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*J. Chapman sculp.*

*London.*

*Published by G. Jones, Ave Maria Lane, Nov. 4, 1825.*



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THAT OF EUROPE UP TO THE LATE PEACE.

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COMPILED, DIGESTED, AND ARRANGED,

By JOHN WILKES, OF MILLAND HOUSE, IN THE COUNTY OF SUSSEX, ESQUIRE;

ASSISTED BY EMINENT SCHOLARS OF THE ENGLISH, SCOTCH, AND IRISH, UNIVERSITIES.

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VOLUME XIII.

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London:

PRINTED FOR THE PROPRIETOR, BY J. ADLARD, DUKE-STREET, WEST SMITHFIELD: SOLD AT THE  
ENCYCLOPÆDIA OFFICE, AVE-MARIA-LANE, ST. PAUL'S; BY WHITE AND CO. FLEET-STREET;  
AND BY CHAMPANTE AND WHITROW, JEWRY-STREET, ALDGADE.

—•••••  
1815.

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*Non audiendi sunt homines imperiti, qui humano ingenio majorem, vel inutilem, et rebus gerendis adversam, πολυμαθειαν criminantur. Est scilicet quædam Scientiarum cognatio et conciliatio; unde et Εγκυκλοπαιδειαν vocant Græci; ut in unâ perfectus dici nequeat, qui cæteras non attigerit. Morhofi Polyhist. l. i. c. i. f. i.*

Those inexperienced persons, who make it a charge of accusation against variety and extensive learning, that it exceeds the compass of human ability, or is useless, or that it is an impediment to transacting business, deserve no attention. For there is between the Sciences a degree of natural and close connexion; from which the Greeks use the term "Encyclopædia;" so that no one can be perfect in any one Science, who has not attained to some knowledge of the rest.

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DESCRIPTION OF THE FRONTISPIECE ILLUSTRATING  
LONDON.

THE CITY OF LONDON, ALLEGORICALLY PORTRAYED WITH THE MURAL CROWN ON HER HEAD, THE CAP OF LIBERTY IN ONE HAND AND THE CORNUCOPIA IN THE OTHER, STANDS IN HER TRIUMPHAL CAR, ADORNED WITH THE TWO DRAGONS HER SUPPORTERS, AND DRAWN BY FOUR STEEDS; WHILST AMERICA AND AFRICA ON HER RIGHT, AND ASIA ON HER LEFT, BRING TO HER THE TRIBUTES OF THE WORLD. ON THE FOREGROUND A YOUNG GENIUS HOLDS THE SHIELD OF THE CITY ARMS AND THE MACE OF CIVIC AUTHORITY. BEHIND ARE SEEN PART OF THE MANSION-HOUSE, THE MONUMENT, AND SHIPPING.

No. 951:



# ENCYCLOPÆDIA LONDINENSIS;

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## UNIVERSAL DICTIONARY

OF

### ARTS, SCIENCES, and LITERATURE.

#### L O G I C.

**L**OGIC, *f.* [from λογος, Gr. discourse; in regard thinking is only an inward mental discourse, wherein the mind converses with itself.] The art of thinking justly; or of making a right use of our rational faculties, in defining, dividing, and reasoning; or, as it is defined by an excellent writer on this subject, *Logic* is the art of using reason well in our enquiries after truth, and the communication of it to others. *Watts.*

Talk *logic* with acquaintance,  
And practise rhetoric in your common talk. *Shakespeare.*

Logic is sometimes called *dialectica*; and sometimes the *canonical art*, as being a canon, or rule, for directing us in our reasonings.

As, in order to think aright, it is necessary that we apprehend, judge, discourse, and dispose, or methodise, rightly; hence *perception*, or apprehension, *judgment*, discourse, or *reasoning*, and disposition, whence results *method*, become the four fundamental articles of this art; and it is from our reflections on those operations of the mind that logic is, or ought to be, wholly drawn.

Lord Bacon divides logic into four branches, according to the ends proposed in each; for a man reasons, either to find what he seeks, or to judge of what he finds, or to retain what he judges, or to teach what he retains; whence arise so many arts of reasoning; viz. the art of *inquisition*, or invention; the art of *examining*, or judgment; the art of *preserving*, or of memory; and the art of *elocution*, or delivery.

Logic, having being extremely abused, is now in some disrepute. The schools have so clogged it with barbarous terms and phrases, and have run it out so much into dry useless subtilties, that it seems rather intended to exercise the mind in wrangling and disputation than to assist it in thinking justly. It is true, in its original it was rather intended as the art of cavilling than of reasoning; the Greeks, among whom it had its rise, being a people who piqued themselves mightily upon their being able to talk *extempore*; and to argue, by turns, on either side of the question. Hence their *dialectici*, to be always furnished with arms for such rencontres, invented a set of words and terms, rather than rules and reasons, fitted for the use of contention and dispute. Thus logic was only an art of words, which frequently had no meaning, but served rather to hide ignorance than to improve knowledge; to baffle reason instead of assisting it; and to confound the truth instead of clearing it. Much of that heap of words, and rules, which we have borrowed from the old logic, is of little use in life; and is so far out of the common usage, that the mind does not attend to them without trouble; and, finding nothing in them to reward its attention, it soon discharges itself, and loses all ideas it had conceived of them.

VOL. XIII. No. 883.

But logic, disengaged from the jargon of the schools, and reduced into a clear and intelligible method, is the art of conducting the understanding in the knowledge of things, and the discovery of truth. From its proper use we gain several very considerable advantages: for, 1. The consideration of rules incites the mind to a closer attention and application in thinking; so that we hereby become assured, that we make the best use of our faculties. 2. We hereby more easily and accurately discover and find out the errors and defects in our reasoning; for the common light of reason, unassisted by logic, frequently observes an argumentation to be faulty, without being able to determine wherein the precise failure consists. 3. By these reflections on the order and manner of the operations of the mind, we are brought to a more just and complete knowledge of the nature of our own understanding.

It is a prevalent opinion, that Aristotle was the first who investigated the principles of logic in a philological manner, and reduced it to a regular system. This opinion seems to receive some countenance from his own declarations. "Concerning the art of rhetoric (says he) the ancients have left us numerous treatises; but, previous to my own attempt, no author has ever treated of syllogism." This assertion, however, does not amount to any positive proof, that before his time the art of syllogizing was unknown in the different schools of philosophy established in Greece. An art or science may be perfectly understood, although its principles have never been digested and arranged by any author. Nay, it is even certain that, before the days of Aristotle, several sects were actually in possession of a regular system of logic. That this system received many important improvements from his surprising exertions, cannot at all be doubted: yet he cannot be regarded as the original inventor.

The system of logic, however, generally ascribed to Aristotle, and which was translated into Arabic many centuries ago, constitutes, no doubt, at this time, the logic of all the nations of Asia who possess the Mahomedan faith; yet this point had not been directly confirmed by translations from the oriental languages, till Mr. Balfour published, in the *Asiatic Researches* for 1805, some extracts, with a translation, of the *Tehzeeb ul Mantik*, or Essence of Logic, an Arabic treatise of considerable repute; which seem to place this question beyond doubt, by their close coincidence in every point with the system referred to Aristotle. Mr. Balfour moreover endeavours to vindicate the Stagyrice against the charge of lord Kaimes, and assigns to him that merit which has been attributed to the great Bacon: "From some of the extracts contained in this paper, it will appear, 1st. That the mode of reasoning by *induction*, illustrated and improved by the great lord Verulam, in his *Organum Novum*, and generally considered as the cause of the rapid progress of sci-

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ence in later times, was perfectly known to Aristotle, and was distinctly delineated by him as a method of investigation that leads to certainty or truth; and 2dly, That Aristotle was likewise perfectly acquainted, not merely with the form of induction, but with the proper materials to be employed in carrying it on—facts and experiments. We are therefore led to infer, that all the blame of confining the human mind for so long a time in chains by the forms of syllogism, cannot be fairly imputed to Aristotle; nor all the merit of enlarging it and setting it free, ascribed to lord Verulam. The vast extent of Aristotle's learning and knowledge, and the singular strength and penetration of his mind, having naturally encouraged him to undertake a complete analysis of all its powers, the doctrine of syllogism became of course a constituent and necessary part of his comprehensive system. And if succeeding philosophers, attracted by its ingenuity and beauty, have deserted the substance in pursuit of the shadow, the pernicious consequences of this delusion cannot justly be referred to him."

In the preface to this Arabic treatise, we have the following definition of its subject: "In the language of logicians, examination or inspection is the contemplation of the thing known, to obtain a knowledge of the thing unknown; that is to say, the contemplation of the known perceptible, and the known demonstrable, to obtain a knowledge of the unknown perceptible and unknown demonstrable; and, as mistakes often happen in this investigation, there is indispensably required some general rule to preserve the mind from falling into an error in the process of thinking. This rule is logic. From this discussion, therefore, it appears that the nature of logic may be defined, a general rule which guards the mind against errors in thinking."

The work is divided into two parts, the first treating of *Definition*, and the second of *Demonstration*. Part I. is subdivided into four sections: 1. Of Expression; 2. Of Ideas formed by the Intellect; 3. Of the Five Universal Ideas called Predicables; 4. Of the different kinds of Definitions. Part II. is arranged in five sections: 1. Of Propositions; 2. Of Syllogism; 3. Of Induction; 4. Of Analogy; 5. Of the Division of Syllogisms according to their Matter.

The section on Syllogisms being quoted by Mr. B. in the passage we have transcribed from his introduction, as a proof that Aristotle was acquainted with the method of pure investigation, we shall give it entire: "A syllogism is a sentence composed of propositions, and in such a manner, that there necessarily arises from this composition another sentence. Know then, that, having finished our investigation of propositions, on the previous knowledge of which all reasoning or demonstration depends, I shall now consider demonstration.—Demonstration, or reasoning, is the process of inferring something from the state of one thing to prove the state of another; and this is of three kinds, viz. Syllogism, Induction, and Analogy. *Syllogism* is that in which an inference is drawn from a general rule or class to a subordinate part or individual belonging to that class; which must of course partake of its general nature, or character. This species of argument affords certainty or truth. Take for example, "The world is changeable, and every thing liable to change was created;" thus they obtain the conclusion that the world did not exist from eternity, that is, was created. Be it then understood, that two sentences combined, from the nature of which there necessarily arises a third, constitute what is called *hecause*, or syllogism; and the third sentence thus obtained is called *metejeh*, that is, the conclusion. The subject and predicate contained in the conclusion of the syllogism described is called the *maddeh*, that is, the matter of the conclusion; and the order in which they are placed constitutes what is called *heiyet*, that is, the form or figure. If the matter and figure of the conclusion appear in the premises of the syllogism, then that syllogism is called conditional, because the conditional particle *leiken* must

be included in it. Take for example, "Whenever the sun shines, day must exist;" but the sun shines, which gives the conclusion, "Then day exists," which is materially and formally contained in the preceding syllogism. But, if the conclusion be not materially and formally expressed in the premises of the syllogism, then it is denominated *ikteraumi*, that is, simple or categorical; whether it be absolute or conditional. The *subject* considered in the conclusion of a simple syllogism is called *afzur*, that is, the minor; and the thing predicated of the subject is called *akbar*, that is, the major; and the proposition which contains the minor is called *fururi*, minor proposition; and the proposition which contains the major is called *akburi*, or major proposition; and the term with which the subject and predicate of the conclusion are both compared is called the middle term, or *huddi ofit*, or *ofit*, &c. &c. &c." We may just mention, that this oriental treatise of logic is of no high antiquity, as is evident from its adducing "the missions of the prophet Mahommed and Jesus Christ," as instances of traditions which cannot be supposed to be false.

It is certainly unreasonable to neglect the useful parts of logic, because many, who have written concerning it, have obscured and perplexed it by a profusion of mystical and elaborate arrangement: indeed, to use the words of a writer upon this subject, "to discard logic, because it might assist the views of the sophistical, is as silly as to prohibit good bills of exchange, because they may give occasion to forgery and fraud."

Of all the human sciences, that concerning man is certainly the most worthy of man, and the most necessary part of knowledge. We find ourselves in this world surrounded with a variety of objects; we have powers and faculties fitted to deal with them, and are happy or miserable in proportion as we know how to frame a right judgment of things, and shape our actions agreeably to the circumstances in which we are placed. No study therefore is more important than that which introduces us to the knowledge of ourselves. Hereby we become acquainted with the extent and capacity of the human mind; and, learning to distinguish what objects it is suited to, and in what manner it must proceed in order to compass its ends, we arrive by degrees at that justness and truth of understanding, which is the great perfection of a rational being.

The logic at present taught in our universities is comprised in a small volume bearing the name of Mr. Professor Duncan, of Marischal-college, Aberdeen. As this book is in the hands of almost every one who has any fondness for such pursuits, we shall, instead of copying what is so well known, present to our readers what has never before appeared in an English dress,—an *Universal Logic* founded on the discoveries of Immanuel Kant; for it is only by comparing new discoveries with the older systems that the sciences are ultimately perfected. We present this treatise in the same form in which we received it.

#### UNIVERSAL LOGIC.

*Prefatory Remark.* It is an unfortunate circumstance, that *that Science*, whose province it is to teach us to think and reason correctly, should be so much sunk in estimation at the present day. The fault does not lie in *the science itself*, but in the manner in which it has been taught; for it must be confessed that we have no work calculated to convey a distinct idea of the value of this science. So many considerations foreign to Logic have always been introduced into it, and it has been so much confounded with erroneous speculations in other sciences, that no *Universal Logic* could possibly be produced. The great discoveries of the *immortal Kant*, however, have at length enabled us, not only to confine logic within its proper limits, but to give to this important science its due rank as one among the very few that are capable of attaining a PERMANENT FORM which no time or circumstance can ever change. This



will greatly facilitate the student who engages in the CRITICAL PHILOSOPHY, the most sublime science ever offered to the consideration of man.

Should the following attempt, to render the ideas of Professor Kant intelligible to an English reader, be fortunate enough to succeed, the time and labour spent in this undertaking could not have been better employed; but, should the endeavour totally fail, it may still serve to induce some one better qualified, to do more ample justice to the merits of this truly great Philosopher.

68, St. James's Street,  
London; Oct. 15, 1813.

THOMAS WIRGMAN.

INTRODUCTION.

I. *Of Logic in general.*

That the human Understanding, in its right use, proceeds according to certain uniform laws, is a fact which does not admit of a doubt. These laws contemplated in the *abstract*, without regard to their application, constitute the Science of Logic.

As SENSE receives the *matter* of Knowledge; and as UNDERSTANDING forms conceptions, that is, gives *unity* or *form* to the received matter, (see vol. xi. p. 608.) it follows that CONCEPTION is the form of all Knowledge; REASON, by means of conclusions, furnishes us with *Ideas*, as the highest possible classes under which we can arrange our Knowledge. Logic has nothing to do with the *matter* of Knowledge, for this belongs to other Sciences; it regards only the *universal form* of all knowledge; but this *form* is properly speaking nothing but *Thought*. Logic therefore, as it only arranges our thoughts, is purely *regulative*.

When we exclude all the knowledge derived from objects, and attend solely to the use of Understanding and Reason in general, we discover the *absolutely-necessary* laws of Thinking, namely those laws without which no thinking whatever can take place. These laws may be thoroughly conceived *à priori*, that is, *independently of all experience*, as they are the conditions of the use of understanding in general, without distinction of objects. Hence it follows that the *universal necessary* laws of thinking in general regard only the *FORM*, and by no means the *matter*, of Thought.

*Logic, as a Science*, which treats of thinking in general without regard to the objects or matter of Thought, is,

1. The *Groundwork* of all other sciences, and the *propaedeutic* to all use of understanding.
2. It cannot be considered as an *Organon* of any particular science, because it abstracts from all objects. It is only an universal *Art of Reason*, to regulate our knowledge agreeably to the forms of understanding, which it purifies and corrects, but does not extend.
3. It is a *Canon* for the use of *Understanding* and *Reason* in general; and consists of pure laws *à priori*, that is, neither borrowed from the sciences, nor from common experience. Logic does not enquire how the understanding is constituted, which is the business of Metaphysics, but how it should proceed in thinking.

4. It is both in *matter* and *form* a Science of Reason. Since it has reason itself for its object, its rules therefore cannot be derived from experience. It is a self-knowledge of Understanding and Reason, not of their powers as constituting objects, but merely of their *formal laws* as regulating our thoughts. In Logic we do not enquire what sort of objects the understanding can know; this enquiry belongs to Metaphysics, and concerns the *material* use of understanding; the object of Logic is to ascertain the *formal* laws of understanding for the purpose of rendering it consistent with itself.

Since logic is a science of Reason *à priori*, and a Canon for the use of Understanding and Reason, it differs essentially from *Æsthetics*, which, as a mere critic of taste, have no canon (Laws), but only a *Normal* (a mere pattern or rule for judging), which consists in universal agreement. *Æsthetics* contain the agreement of knowledge with

the laws of SENSE. *Logic* the rules of the agreement of knowledge with the laws of UNDERSTANDING and REASON. *Æsthetics* have only empirical principles, and can therefore never become a Science, because their rules are derived *à posteriori*, that is, entirely from experience; and it is only by the comparison of objects that the empirical laws, according to what we observe the beautiful in nature, are rendered general.

Now, when we comprise all the essential marks which belong to a complete determination of the Conception of Logic, we obtain the following definition:

*Logic is a Science of Reason both in MATTER and FORM; a science A PRIORI of the necessary laws of thinking, not with regard to particular objects, but to all objects in general; therefore, a Science of the right use of Understanding and of Reason in general, not SUBJECTIVELY, i. e. according to empirical (psychological) principles, showing how the understanding is accustomed to think; but OBJECTIVELY, i. e. according to principles A PRIORI, which determine how it ought to think.*

II. *Chief Divisions of Logic.—Mode of treating it.—Use and concise History of this Science.*

Logic is divided into

1. *Analytic* and *Dialectic*.

The *Analytic* unfolds, by dissection, all the acts of reason which we exercise in thinking in general. It is therefore an analysis of the *Form* of understanding and reason; and is properly termed the *Logic of TRUTH*; because it comprises the necessary laws of all (formal) *truth*, without which our Knowledge, whatever be its object, is in itself untrue. It is therefore nothing more than a *Canon* for the judging act, (a rule for the formal correctness of our Knowledge.)

When we employ this merely theoretical and universal doctrine in a practical manner, i. e. as an organon, it becomes a *Dialectic*, a Logic of Appearance, (*ars sophistica disputatoria*.) This *Dialectic* arises entirely from a negligence in the use of the *Analytic*, being satisfied with the mere *appearance of truth*, instead of the *real truth*, which can only be obtained from an examination of the object. We accordingly divide Logic into two parts; *ANALYTIC*, which furnishes the formal *criterion of Truth*; and *DIALLECTIC*, which contains the marks and rules which denote that something is repugnant to the formal criterion of Truth, notwithstanding it has every appearance of agreement with it. *Dialectic* in this sense however has its advantage as a *Catharticon* of the understanding.

2. It is customary to divide Logic into, *Natural* or *Popular*, and *Artificial* or *Scientific*; (*Logica naturalis, Logica scholastica, five artificialis*).

But this division is inadmissible; for *Natural Logic*, or the Logic of *common sense*, is properly no Logic at all, but an anthropological science, which has only empirical principles, referring merely to the rules of the natural use of Understanding and Reason, which can only be known in the *concrete* without the consciousness of them in the *abstract*.

The artificial or scientific alone deserves the name of Logic, as a science of the necessary and universal laws of thinking, which can be known completely *à priori*, independently of the natural use of Understanding and Reason; although it can only at first be discovered by the natural use of these powers.

3. A still farther division of Logic is that into *Theoretical* and *Practical*; but this division is also unwarrantable.

UNIVERSAL LOGIC, which as a mere *Canon* abstracts from all objects, can have no practical part; for this would be a contradiction in terms. *Practical Logic* presupposes the knowledge of a certain kind of objects, to which it is applied. We might therefore term every science a *Practical Logic*; for every one must contain a form of thinking. Universal Logic, considered as practical, can be nothing more than a *technic* of learning in general. An *organon* of the scholastic method.

According to this division, therefore, Logic would have



have a *Dogmatical* and a *Technical* part. The former might be termed *ELEMENTARY DOCTRINE*, and the latter *DOCTRINAL METHOD*. The practical or technical part of Logic would be a logical art with respect to arrangement, terminology, and distinctions, for the purpose of assisting the understanding in its exercise. But in both parts, the technical as well as the practical, not the least attention should be paid either to the objects or the subject of thought. In the latter respect logic might be divided into

4. *Pure and Applied Logic.*

In *Pure Logic* we separate the understanding from the other faculties of the mind, and consider only what this faculty performs by itself. *Applied Logic* considers the understanding mixed with the other faculties of the mind, which influence its operations, and divert it from its proper course; so that it does not proceed according to those laws of whose rightness it must be itself the sole judge. Applied Logic cannot with propriety be termed Logic. It is a psychological science, wherein we consider how thinking has usually proceeded, not how it ought to proceed. Finally, it teaches what we must do, in order to make a right use of our understanding, under the multiplicity of subjective hindrances and restraints. We may also learn from it what promotes the right use of understanding, how it may be assisted or how logical mistakes and errors may be corrected. But still it is no *propaedeutic*; for Psychology, from which every thing in Applied Logic must be derived, is a branch of philosophy to which Logic must be the *propaedeutic*.

It is indeed said, that technical logic, or the manner of constructing a science, must be learned from applied logic. But this is completely erroneous; for this would be erecting an edifice before we had provided the materials. That is to say, giving a form where the matter is wanting. Every science must have its technic.

5. Lastly, with respect to the division of Logic into that of *Common Sense* and that of *Speculative Reason*, it must here be remarked, that this science can by no means admit of such a division.

*Logic is not a science of Speculative Reason*, or it would be an *Organon* for other sciences, and not a mere *propaedeutic* which treats of the use of Understanding and Reason in general.

As little can Logic be a *product of Common Sense*. Common Sense is that power which discovers the laws of knowledge in the *concrete*. But Logic is a science of the laws of thinking in the *abstract*.

With respect to the mode of treating of Logic, it may be either *scholastic* or *popular*.

It is *scholastic* when it is suited to those who are qualified and desirous to investigate it as a Science. But it is *popular* when it stoops to the capacities and wants of those who do not study Logic as a science, but wish only to use it in order to clear up their understanding. In the scholastic treatment, the laws must be represented in their *universality*, or in the *abstract*. In the popular they must be shown in their *particularity*, or in the *concrete*. The scholastic mode of treatment is the foundation of the popular; for no one can treat a subject even in a popular manner who is not able to treat it fundamentally.

From what we have already said of the nature and end of Logic, we can now judge of this science, and of the utility of studying it by a true and determinate standard.

Logic is certainly no universal art of inventing, no *Organon* of Truth; nor is it an Algebra, by whose assistance hidden truths can be brought to light.

It is however useful, and indeed indispensable, as a *Critic of the Form of Knowledge*, or for judging both of common and speculative reasoning, not to teach them, but to render them correct and consistent with themselves. For the logical principle of Truth is, the agreement of the Understanding with its own universal laws.

Finally, with regard to the History of Logic, we shall merely observe, that the present system of logic is derived

from Aristotle's Analytic. That philosopher may indeed be considered as the Father of Logic. He taught it as an *Organon*, and divided it into Analytic and Dialectic. His mode of teaching was extremely scholastic, as he attempted to develop the most general conceptions upon which logic is founded. Unfortunately we derived but little benefit from this logic, because almost every thing in it terminated in subtilities. We have however learned from it the different judging acts of Understanding and Reason.

Since the time of Aristotle, logic has received no addition to its matter; nor indeed does its nature admit of it. But it may improve in *accuracy*, in *precision*, and in *clearness*. There are but few sciences which can attain a permanent state that admits of no further change. Amongst these are *Logic* and *Metaphysics*. Aristotle omitted none of the powers of the understanding; we are only more accurate, more regular, and more methodical. Lambert's *Organon* was expected considerably to extend the science of Logic; but it only contains more subtle divisions, which, like all subtilities, tend to sharpen the understanding, but are of no essential use.

Leibnitz and Wolff are among the modern philosophers who have contributed to bring universal logic into notice. It cannot properly be said of Malebranche and Locke, that they have touched upon the subject; since they treated of the *Matter of Knowledge*, and of the origin of our conceptions. It must be confessed that the Universal Logic of Wolff is the best we have. Baumgarten concentrated Wolff's Logic; and on this account he has great merit.

With respect to Crusius, he certainly did not reflect sufficiently upon the nature of logic, and unfortunately mixed metaphysical principles with it. Thus has logic exceeded the bounds of the science.

We do not now require any new discoveries in logic, since it treats merely of the *Form* of thinking. It is extremely important to fix the absolute limits of the sciences, in order to prevent their principles from being confounded. By this precision we are now able to separate Logic entirely from Philosophy. *The former contains the formal rules of Thinking, without regard to the matter of Thought.* The latter comprehends the matter as well as the form of Knowledge; and may be termed the highest maxim of Reason in the choice of its ends. It is the only science which can procure us complete inward satisfaction; for it closes as it were the circle of Knowledge, reduces the sciences to perfect order, and gives them thorough connection. Its highest problems are comprised in the following questions:

1. What can I know?
2. What ought I to do?
3. What may I hope?
4. What is Man?

The first question is answered by *Metaphysics*; the second by *Morals*; the third by *Religion*; and the fourth by *Anthropology*. It must however be remarked, that Philosophy is never to be learnt; we must only learn by it to philosophize.

III. *Knowledge in general.—Intuitive and Discursive Knowledge.—Intuition and Conception, the Difference between them.—Logical and Aesthetic Perfection of Knowledge.*

All knowledge has a twofold reference. First, a reference to the *object*; and, secondly, to the *subject*. In the former it refers to the REPRESENTATION; in the latter to CONSCIOUSNESS, which is the universal condition of all knowledge. Properly speaking, *Consciousness* is a Representation of a Representation, or that a Representation has taken place.

In all knowledge we must distinguish the MATTER, i. e. the object; and the FORM, i. e. the mode in which the object is known. See vol. xi. p. 608. If a savage, for instance, sees a house at a distance, the use of which he is unacquainted with, he forms to himself a representation of the very same object which the civilized man represents to himself, who knows it to be a habitation for man. This knowledge differs in the two individuals with respect

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spect to its form. In the one it is a mere *intuition*, in the other an *intuition* joined to a *conception*; that is, *real Knowledge*.

All *real Knowledge* may be termed *intuitive*, as it rests upon *intuition*, which *immediately* refers to the object, without the mind. But, the moment our *sensitive faculty* is impressed by an external object, the *Understanding* instantly forms a conception of this object, and ranks it under its proper class: Thus, when we see a Tree, we proceed by *intuition* in the examination of its peculiar qualities, the leaves, bark, &c. and we determine this Tree to be an Oak, by uniting this particular intuition to our conception of an oak. It is then *real Knowledge*; and this is the process the mind pursues in forming Knowledge. For, the instant the intuition is placed in the conception, I become clearly conscious of the determinate object, and of the Knowledge which I have obtained from it. This Knowledge has now become actually my property by the exertion of my mental activity. It is a Representation, which I not only retain in memory, but can reproduce in my imagination as often as I please, either to communicate it to others, or to further my own progress in Knowledge. Thus, having frequently been impressed by St. Paul's Cathedral, and having with clear consciousness arranged the *intuition* of its various parts under their respective *conceptions*, as the number of the columns, the turrets, the dome, &c. I may now say that I possess an accurate Knowledge of that edifice, which is *real Knowledge* stored up in my mind, and which I can communicate to others either verbally or by giving designs of the various parts. But here we must particularly remark, that Knowledge so communicated is never *real Knowledge* to the individual that receives it; for it evidently wants the most essential part, namely, the *intuition*. Therefore this Knowledge can only be called *discursive*, as consisting only of conceptions, however accurately they may have been formed or faithfully described. Nothing can be more evident than the impossibility of communicating the *intuition*, which can only be obtained by placing ourselves within the reach of the object, and suffering our *sensitive faculty* to be impressed by it. All communicated knowledge is therefore properly enough termed *Discursive* or *Historical Knowledge*. Its inseparable condition is veracity in the Historian; otherwise what is considered as Knowledge may in fact be mere illusion. Who is there that will not say, he knows that the gallant Wellington defeated the French at Vittoria; confiding implicitly in the accounts given by that great general. Without this condition, his brilliant achievements might be considered as mere romance by all those who have had no intuition of them, nor in any manner witnessed their truth. The first requisite of discursive Knowledge is its possibility, the second its probability: for, that which contradicts itself cannot be true.

The difference in the form of Knowledge depends upon a condition which constantly accompanies all knowing, namely upon *Consciousness*, which is susceptible of degrees. I may either have a *clear* or an *obscure* consciousness.

As *consciousness* is the essential requisite of the logical form of Knowledge, Logic can have nothing to do with obscure representations. Logic does not teach us how our representations arise, but merely how they accord with logical forms. Neither can it treat of mere representations, and of their possibility; this it leaves entirely to Metaphysics. It is occupied only with the laws of thinking; that is, with *Conceptions*, *Judgments*, and *Conclusions*. Upon these, all thinking depends. Doubtless something takes place before a *Representation* acquires the form of a *Conception*; and this is nothing more than the *intuition* from which every conception must originate; (see vol. xi. p. 609.) or it can have no meaning whatever.

Although no knowledge whatever is possible without thinking, yet thinking alone can never constitute Knowledge. We here find that *mental forms* without matter never amount to Knowledge, but remain mere *thought*; and that, in order to possess Knowledge with clear consciousness, the *matter* must be given, to which alone these forms

can be applied. Hence *Representation* does not amount to Knowledge, notwithstanding it is always presupposed.

All *distinct* representations, to which alone logical rules can be applied, may be distinguished according to their *clearness* and *obscurity*. When we are conscious of the whole representation, but not of the parts which compose it, the REPRESENTATION IS OBSCURE.

We will elucidate THIS first in *Intuition*. Suppose, for example, we see an Edifice at a distance; in order to be conscious that the object perceived is a *house*, it is requisite that we should have distinct representations of the parts which compose this building, such as the windows, doors, &c. for, if we do not see the parts of the house, we certainly cannot say we see the house itself. We are conscious of the whole representation, but not of the parts of which it is composed; consequently our representation of this object is an *obscure representation*.

To illustrate this in *Conception*. Let us take the Conception of the Beautiful. Every one has a conception of beauty. This conception has various marks; in the first place, the beautiful object must affect our senses; secondly, it must please universally, &c. But, if we cannot distinguish these and the other marks of the Beautiful, our conception of it is *obscure*.

Some have termed an *obscure representation*, a *confused one*; but this is incorrect; for the opposite of confusion is not *distinctness*, but *order*. It is indeed true that distinctness is the effect of order, and obscurity the effect of confusion. Therefore all *confused* knowledge is at the same time *obscure*; but the converse of this position does not hold good, for obscure knowledge is not always confused; for instance, that which contains *no variety* of which we are conscious; here indeed it may be said that there is no *order*, but at the same time there can be no *confusion*.

This applies to all *simple representations*, which never can become *distinct*; not because there is any confusion in them, but because they contain no variety. They must therefore be called *obscure*, but not *confused*. For instance, a mathematical point.

And even in *complex representations*, in which a variety of marks may be distinguished, the want of distinctness may arise, not from confusion, but from the WEAKNESS OF CONSCIOUSNESS. A thing may be formally distinct, i. e. I may be conscious of the variety in the representation, but the matter will be indistinct, if the degree of consciousness be small, though every thing in it be in perfect order. This is the case in *abstract representations*.

*Distinctness* is of two kinds. First, *Sensible Distinctness*. This consists in the consciousness of the variety in the *intuition*. I see, for instance, the milky way as a whitish stripe. The rays from the several stars which compose it must necessarily strike my eye; but the representation of them is only rendered distinct by means of the telescope, which discovers to me the individual stars that compose the milky way.

Secondly, *Intellectual Distinctness*. Distinctness of conception or of understanding is the faculty of forming conceptions. See vol. xi. p. 609. This depends upon an analysis of the *Conception* with regard to the variety which it involves. Thus for example, in the conception of *Virtue* are contained as marks, first, the conception of *Freedom of the will*; secondly, the conception of *Dependance upon the Moral Law*; thirdly, the conception of *subjecting all our inclinations to this law of our will*. If we analyze in this way the conception of *Virtue* into its constituent parts, we thereby render it distinct. But this distinctness adds nothing to the contents of a conception; it only clears it up in point of *form*.

When we reflect upon the two essentially-different sources of knowledge, SENSE and UNDERSTANDING, the difference between *intuition* and *conception* presents itself. All knowledge thus considered is either INTUITION OR CONCEPTION. The former originates in SENSE; the latter in UNDERSTANDING. The logical difference between Understanding and Sense consists in this, that the latter furnishes nothing but *intuitions*, the former nothing but



conceptions. Both these fundamental powers may indeed be considered in another point of view, and be defined in quite another manner; namely, Sense as the power of RECEPTIVITY, and Understanding as the power of SPONTANEITY.

This mode of explanation is however not logical, but metaphysical; and is more fully given in vol. xi. p. 608. where the dissection of the Human Mind into its original and fundamental powers of REASON, UNDERSTANDING, and SENSE, is treated of. It is also customary to term Sense the inferior, and Understanding the superior, power; because Sense furnishes only the matter of thought; while the Understanding disposes of this matter, and arranges it under rules or conceptions.

Upon this distinction between *Intuitive* and *Discursive* Knowledge, or between intuition and conception, rests the difference between the ÆSTHETICAL and LOGICAL perfections of knowledge.

Knowledge may be perfect either according to the laws of Sense or to those of Understanding. In the former case it is æsthetically perfect, and in the latter logically. Æsthetical and logical perfection are therefore different in kind; the former relates to *sense*, the latter to *understanding*. The logical perfection of knowledge depends upon its agreement with the object, consequently upon *universally-valid laws*, and can therefore be judged of according to *norma*, or rules *à priori*. Æsthetical perfection consists in the agreement of Knowledge with the subject, and depends upon the peculiar *sensitiveness* of men. Hence æsthetical perfection has no universally-valid laws, in respect to which it may be judged of *à priori* in a universally-valid manner. However, as there are universally-valid Laws of Sense, not indeed OBJECTIVELY valid for thinking beings in general, but only subjectively so for each individual in particular, we can still form a conception of Æsthetical Perfection which contains the ground of a universal subjective pleasure, namely Beauty, *that which pleases the sense in the intuition*, and may therefore become an object of *universal delight*, because the laws of intuition are the universal laws of Sense.

By this agreement with the universal laws of sense, the *Beautiful*, which consists in *pure form*, is specifically distinguished from the *agreeable*, which only pleases in the feeling by stimulus or emotion; and for this reason can only produce an individual gratification. This pure æsthetical perfection is that which agrees best with the logical.

Æsthetical perfection, so far as regards the beautiful, is of service to logical perfection; but it is also disadvantageous to it, when we attend merely to the agreeable, which consists in our feelings, and has no reference to *pure form*, but only to the matter of sense. For feelings are the greatest enemies to the logical perfection of knowledge.

There is always a sort of strife between the logical and æsthetical perfection of knowledge, which cannot be perfectly removed. The Understanding demands to be instructed; Sense to be pleased; the former requires insight, the latter facility of apprehension. The beautiful, though superficial, will please the Sense, but not satisfy the Understanding; the profound, though dry, will interest the Understanding, but not gratify the Sense.

It is, however, extremely desirable to unite these two kinds of perfection, and to give an æsthetical form to all such knowledge as is susceptible of it; in order to render that popular which is scholastically accurate and logically perfect. But in this attempt to unite æsthetical and logical perfection, we must not forget that *logical perfection* is the basis of all other perfection, and must on no account be sacrificed to any other.

In order to show more clearly the difference between the *logical* and *æsthetical* perfections of our Knowledge, we will compare them with each other under the four heads of Quantity, Quality, Relation, and Modality.

Knowledge is perfect according to

1. Quantity when it is *Universal*;
2. Quality when it is *Distinct*;

3. Relation when it is *True*;

4. Modality when it is *Necessary*.

Considered in these points of view, Knowledge is logically perfect when it has *objective* Universality, *objective* Distinctness, *objective* Truth, and *objective* Necessity.

To these logical perfections of Knowledge, correspond the following Æsthetical Perfections under the same four heads; namely

1. *Æsthetical Universality*. This consists in the applicability of Knowledge to a variety of objects, which may serve as examples.

2. *Æsthetical Distinctness*. This is a distinctness by means of intuition, by which an abstract conception is viewed or illustrated in concreto; by an example.

3. *Æsthetical Truth*. A merely subjective truth, consisting in the agreement of our knowledge with the laws of the sensible phenomena. It is consequently nothing more than a general appearance.

4. *Æsthetical Necessity*. A necessity according to the evidence of the senses, as being confirmed by feeling and experience.

In the above-mentioned perfections two points always occur; the harmonious union of which constitutes perfection in general; namely, *variety* and *unity*. In Understanding, the *unity* lies in the conception; in Sense, in the intuition.

Mere Variety without Unity cannot satisfy us. TRUTH is therefore the highest of all perfections, since it is the ground of unity in the reference of knowledge to its object. Even in æsthetical perfection, Truth is after all the *conditio sine qua non*, the chief negative condition, without which nothing can universally please the taste. Hence no one can hope to succeed in the Fine Arts who has not laid as a foundation the logical perfection of his knowledge. It is in the greatest possible union of logical with æsthetical perfection, in those works which are designed both to instruct and please, that the true character of Genius is manifested.

#### IV. PARTICULAR LOGICAL PERFECTIONS OF KNOWLEDGE.

A. *Logical Perfection of Knowledge as to Quantity*.—*Extensive and Intensive Quantity*.—*Extent and Solidity of Knowledge*.—*Determination of the Horizon of our Knowledge*.

Quantity of Knowledge may be understood either as extensive or intensive. The former implies its multitude or variety, the latter its *contents* or *solidity*, which includes also its fruitfulness so far as it is a ground of numerous and important consequences. (Non multa, sed multum.)

In extending our Knowledge, or giving it the perfection of extensive quantity, it is proper to consider its agreement with our ends and capacities. This reflection refers to the determining the *Horizon of our Knowledge*; by which is to be understood, the proportioning the quantity of knowledge we collect to our capacities, and to the ends we have in view.

The Horizon of Knowledge may be determined,

1. LOGICALLY, i. e. according to the powers of the knowing Faculty, with a view to the *interest of Understanding*. We have here to determine how far we can proceed in knowledge in general, and how far we must proceed for the accomplishment of our chief end or design.

2. ÆSTHETICALLY, i. e. according to *Taste*, with a view to the *interest of Sense or Feeling*.—Whoever determines his horizon æsthetically, endeavours to regulate science according to a universal taste, that is to render it *popular*; and indeed to acquire such knowledge only as admits of universal communication, and may be interesting even to the illiterate.

3. PRACTICALLY, i. e. advantageously with respect to the *interest of Practical Reason or of the Will*. The practical horizon, when it is determined agreeably to the influence which knowledge has upon our Morals, is *pragmatical*, and is of the highest importance.

The Horizon of Knowledge therefore determines either what



what we can know, what we may wish to know, or what we ought to know.

As to the theoretically or logically determined horizon, in particular, we may consider it, either in an *objective* or a *subjective* point of view.

Considered *Objectively*, the Horizon is either *historical* or *rational*. The former is much more extensive than the latter; indeed our historical Knowledge has no bounds. The rational horizon, on the other hand, may be fixed, since, for example, it may be determined to what kind of objects mathematical knowledge cannot extend; and also how far reason can proceed *à priori* in philosophical knowledge independently of experience.

Considered *Subjectively*, the horizon is either universal and absolute, or particular and conditional. (Private Horizon.)

By the absolute and universal horizon is to be understood the congruence of the bounds of human Knowledge with those of human Perfection. And here the question arises, What can man know?

The determination of the Private Horizon depends upon a variety of empirical conditions and peculiar views; for instance, upon the age, the sex, the station, mode of life, &c. Each class of men has, therefore, according to its particular ends and views, and the peculiar powers of knowledge it possesses, a particular horizon. Each Mind, in proportion to its individual powers and views, has an horizon proper to itself. Lastly, we may conceive the idea of an horizon of *Common Sense* as distinguished from the horizon of *Science*, the latter of which requires *principles* to determine what can and what cannot be known.

What cannot be known is *above* our horizon, what need not be known is *out of* our horizon. The latter however must be understood *relatively*, that is, as referring merely to particular private aims, to the attainment of which some species of Knowledge may not only contribute nothing, but actually prove detrimental. For there is no knowledge that is absolutely and in all respects useless, though its utility may not always be apparent. Hence the reproach cast by superficial minds upon those great men who labour to cultivate the Sciences, in the question, *Of what use is this?* is as unwise as it is unjust. He who resolves to engage in the sciences must never for a moment propose this question to himself. If a science explains but one, even possible object, it is on that account alone sufficiently useful. All logically-perfect knowledge has always some possible use, which, though unknown to us, may perhaps be discovered by posterity. Had man in the culture of Science always attended to immediate advantage and utility, we should have had neither Arithmetic nor Geometry; but our understanding is so constituted, that it takes a greater delight in mere introspection than in all the advantage that can accrue from it. This Plato long ago observed. Man is here conscious of his pre-eminence; he feels what is meant by having understanding. Those who are not sensible of this may envy the beasts. The *external* value of Knowledge in its mere application must not be put in comparison with the *INTERNAL* worth which it possesses in its logical perfection.

In the extension and demarcation of our knowledge, the following rules may be useful.

1. To determine our own horizon at an early age, but not until we are able to fix it for *ourselves*, which seldom occurs before the age of twenty.
2. Not too frequently, nor for slight reasons, to change our horizon.
3. Not to measure the horizon of others by our own, nor to consider that as useless which is so merely to ourselves; it being rash to attempt to fix the horizon of others, since we are seldom sufficiently acquainted either with their views or capacities.
4. Neither too much to extend nor to contract our horizon. For he who seeks to know too much, in the end knows nothing; and on the contrary, he who believes

that certain things do not concern him may possibly deceive himself; as for instance, the philosopher who should believe that history is of no use to him.

5. To endeavour, previously, to determine the absolute horizon of the whole human race.

6. To determine the place which the science we have principally in view holds in the horizon of collective knowledge. Here the universal Encyclopædia may serve as a general Map of the Sciences.

7. Before we determine our own particular horizon, to examine carefully for what sort of knowledge we have the greatest capacity and inclination; to consider what may be more or less serviceable to our particular duties, and what may be incompatible with duties which are absolutely necessary.

8. And lastly, to endeavour at all times to extend our horizon rather than to contract it.

With respect to the extension of knowledge generally, we need not dread that we shall proceed too far in the pursuit of it; for nature has sufficiently circumscribed us. The Criticism of Reason, of History, and a general spirit directed to knowledge in the great, and not merely in the detail, will always contract its circumference without diminishing its contents. Thus is it cleared from the husk which is no longer necessary. In the progress of Natural History, of the Mathematics, &c. new and shorter methods will constantly be invented to reduce the multiplicity of books. Thus every thing will be more easily attained and with less burthen to the memory. He therefore who should discover the means of compressing History within a few permanent Ideas would have the merit of a genius.

Ignorance is opposed to the logical perfection of knowledge merely with respect to its extent. This negative imperfection is, on account of the limited nature of the Understanding, inseparable from all human Knowledge.

Ignorance may be considered either in an *objective* or *subjective* point of view.

1. OBJECTIVELY. Ignorance is either *material* or *formal*. The former consists in a want of Historical Knowledge, the latter in a want of Rational Knowledge. We ought not, in any department, to be entirely ignorant. But we may indeed limit our historical knowledge, the better to cultivate rational knowledge; and *vice versa*.

2. SUBJECTIVELY. Ignorance is either *learned*, *scientific*, or *common*. Whoever clearly perceives the bounds of knowledge, consequently where the field of ignorance begins; for instance, the *philosopher* who proves how little we can know of the nature of gold, for want of the necessary data; is learnedly ignorant. He, on the contrary, who is ignorant without perceiving the grounds of his ignorance, is *vulgarly ignorant*. Such a man does not even know that he is ignorant; for, to represent his ignorance to himself, he would require the aid of science. As a blind man can form no idea of darkness until he has seen the light.

The knowledge of our ignorance, therefore, presupposes science, and renders us modest; while an imaginary knowledge inflates. Thus the ignorance of Socrates was glorious, because, according to his own confession, it was properly a knowledge of his ignorance.

To be ignorant of those things which rise *above* our horizon is *irreproachable*, and may be allowed, though only in a relative sense, with respect to the speculative use of our knowing faculty, in as much as the objects are here, though not *above*, yet *out of*, our horizon. Ignorance is, however, *disgraceful* in such things as are essential, and at the same time easy to be known.

There is a difference between not knowing and not noticing a thing. It is advantageous to pass over many things that would be detrimental to our knowledge. Abstraction differs from both. We abstract from our knowledge when we consider it in the general, as a Principle. To abstract thus from all that is foreign to our object, is extremely useful.

Those who cultivate their reason most, are commonly deficient.



deficient in historical Knowledge. Historical Knowledge without determinate bounds is *Polyhistory*. It is liable to render men vain. Unlimited speculation is *Polymathy*. The extension both of Speculative and Historical Knowledge without determinate bounds is termed *Pansophy*. In Historical Knowledge is included the science of the implements of learning; *Philology*, or a critical Knowledge of literature and languages.

The mere Polyhistor is a Cyclops in literature who wants one eye, namely, the eye of philosophy. A Cyclops in Mathematics, History, Natural History, Philology, and Languages, is a scholar who is great in each of these departments, but considers all philosophizing upon them as superfluous.

The *Humanist*, by an acquaintance with the ancients, combines Science with Taste, polishes our rudeness, and promotes a spirit of communication and urbanity, in which indeed *Humanity* consists. If we would separate the mere Philologer from the Humanist, they may be thus distinguished. The former seeks in antiquity the implements of learning, the latter materials for forming the taste.

The *Pedant* cultivates the sciences merely for the schools, and thereby limits their *use*; the mere *fashionable writer* subordinates them to the purposes of general communication, and thus restricts them in their *matter*.

A just precision in forms is profoundness, i. e. scholastic perfection. Pedantry is therefore an affected profoundness; and the *fashionable style*, courting the sanction of Taste, is nothing but an affected popularity. For this extreme politeness seeks only to flatter the reader, and to prevent his being offended even by a single expression.

To avoid Pedantry, we must possess an extensive Knowledge, not only of the sciences themselves, but of their application. Hence the *true Scholar* alone can free himself from Pedantry, which always characterizes a man of confined abilities.

In endeavouring to give to our knowledge the two perfections, scholastic solidity and popularity, without falling into the affectation of either, we must direct our attention first to the scholastic perfection of our Knowledge, and afterwards consider how to render this knowledge truly popular, that is, easy of communication; for, in seeking to please the multitude, we must not sacrifice scholastic precision, without which all science would become trifling.

In order to acquire a truly popular style, we should study the finest works of the ancients, and those of the moderns who have enjoyed the greatest intercourse with the polite world, without which popularity is not to be attained.

The schools have their prejudices, as well as common sense: each may therefore serve to correct the other. Hence it is important to try our Knowledge upon the understandings of men who are not biased by any School.

That perfection of knowledge which renders it easily and universally communicable may be termed its *extensiveness*.

All kinds of Knowledge stand in a certain natural connection. If, in endeavouring to extend our knowledge, we do not observe this connection, it will become mere Rhapsody. It is advisable, therefore, to form some plan by which the sciences may be arranged suitably to the objects we have in view, and so as to render their attainment more easy. If we establish to ourselves a chief science as our main object, and consider all other knowledge only as the means to its attainment, we thus give to our knowledge a sort of systematic character. In order to proceed according to a well-regulated and adequate plan in extending our knowledge, we must endeavour to become acquainted with the connection of the different species of knowledge. It is the *Architectonic* of the sciences, which furnishes us with a System, according to *IDEAS* in which the sciences are considered as a whole, of knowledge interesting to mankind.

With respect to the *intensiveness*, that is, the *intrinsic va-*

lue and importance, of knowledge; we may offer the following remarks:

All such knowledge may be termed *logically important*, which promotes logical perfection according to *Form*. For instance, every mathematical position, every clearly-defined law of nature, every just philosophical explanation. Practical importance we can never foresee, but must wait until it is ascertained.

We must not confound importance with difficulty. Knowledge may be difficult without being important, and conversely. Hence the difficulty determines nothing either for or against the importance of knowledge. This depends upon the multiplicity of its consequences. The more consequences our knowledge has, that is, the more uses it is applicable to; the more important it is. Whenever Knowledge has no important consequences, it is termed a *Sophism*: such, for instance, was the Philosophy of the Schools.

**B. Logical Perfection of Knowledge as to RELATION.—Of Truth.—Material and formal, i. e. logical, Truth.—Criteria of logical Truth.—Falschhood and Error.—Appearance as the source of Error.—The means to avoid Error.**

A chief perfection of Knowledge, indeed the essential and indispensable condition of all its perfections, is **TRUTH**. Truth, it is said, is the agreement of Knowledge with its object. According to this *merely nominal explanation*, therefore, Knowledge, in order to be considered as true, must agree with its object. But I can only compare the object with my Knowledge of it, by knowing the object. Knowledge must therefore confirm itself; which however is far from being sufficient to Truth. For, as the object is without, and Knowledge is in the Mind; we can never do more than judge whether our Knowledge of an object agrees with our Knowledge of an object. Such an explanation in a circle, the ancients termed *Dialele*; and the Logician has always been reproached by the Sceptic for this Defect; a charge which is well founded; for the solution of the problem is absolutely impossible.

The Question now arises whether we possess sure universal *Criteria of Truth*. For this is the meaning of the Question, **WHAT IS TRUTH?**

In order to be able fully to answer this important question, we must clearly distinguish in our Knowledge, what belongs to its **MATTER**, and which refers to the *object*, from what concerns the mere **FORM**, as being the condition without which Knowledge would be no Knowledge at all. With respect to this Distinction between the **OBJECTIVE** or **MATERIAL** and the **SUBJECTIVE** or **FORMAL** reference, the above question is divided into the two following:

Is there, 1, a Universal *Material*; and, 2, a Universal *Formal*, Criterion of Truth?

A universal *material criterion of Truth* is impossible; it is actually a contradiction in terms. For, as a **UNIVERSAL CRITERION** applicable to objects in general, it must wholly abstract from all difference of objects in particular; and yet at the same time as a **MATERIAL criterion** refer precisely to this difference, in order to determine whether a Knowledge agrees with the particular object to which it refers, and not with the conception of an object in general: which indeed is saying nothing at all. But in this agreement of a Knowledge with the determinate object to which it is referred *material Truth* entirely consists. For, Knowledge which with respect to one object is true may with respect to another be false. It is therefore absurd to require a universal material criterion of Truth, that abstracts from all difference of objects, and yet at the same time does not abstract from this difference.

But, with respect to the question concerning *universal Formal criteria of Truth*, the answer is easy, that there are undoubtedly such. For formal truth consists entirely in the agreement of Knowledge with itself, completely abstracting from all objects in general and from all difference.



ence between objects. The universal formal criteria of Truth are therefore nothing else but the universal logical marks of the agreement of Knowledge with itself, or, which is the same, with the universal laws of Understanding and Reason.

These formal Universal Criteria are indeed insufficient to objective truth, but they are still to be considered as, the *conditio sine qua non* of objective Truth.

For, before we ask whether Knowledge agrees with the object, we must first enquire whether it agrees with itself (as to form) : and this is the business of Logic.

The formal Criteria of Truth in Logic are,

1. *The position of Contradiction,*
2. *The position of Sufficient Reason.*

By means of the former the *logical possibility*, and by means of the latter the *logical reality*, of a Knowledge is determined.

The logical Truth of a Knowledge requires, *First*, that it be logically possible; i. e. that it do not contradict itself. This mark of internal Logical Truth, is however only negative; for a Knowledge which contradicts itself is certainly false; but, though it do not contradict itself, it does not follow that it is true. *Secondly*, that it be logically grounded; i. e. that it have sufficient grounds, and no false consequences.

This second criterion of external Logical Truth, or of the rationality of Knowledge as to grounds and consequences, is *POSITIVE*. And here the following rules are to be observed :

1. *From the truth of the Consequence we may infer the truth of the Knowledge as the ground of it, but only negatively.*

If a false Consequence flows from a Knowledge, then the Knowledge itself is false. For, if the ground were true, then the consequence must also be true, since the consequence is determined by the ground.

We cannot, however, infer conversely, that, because no false consequences follow from a Knowledge, it is therefore true; for we may draw from a false ground true results.

2. *If all the Consequences of a Knowledge are true, the Knowledge itself is also true; for, if there were any thing false in a knowledge, some false consequences must result from it.*

From the consequences we may indeed infer a ground, but without being able to determine the ground. It is only from the aggregate of all the consequences that we can infer a determinate ground to be the true one.

The former mode of concluding, according to which the consequence can only be *negatively* and indirectly a sufficient criterion of the truth of a Knowledge, is termed in Logic *apagogical* (*modus tollens*).

This procedure, which is much used in Geometry, has this advantage, that we need only deduce one false consequence from a Knowledge to prove its falsehood. As for instance, to prove that the Earth is not a plane, I may, without positive and direct grounds, conclude in the following manner: Were the Earth a plane, the Polar Star would invariably be at the same height; but this is not the case; consequently the Earth is not a plane.

In the *positive* and *direct* mode of concluding, (*modus ponens*,) there is this difficulty, that the Totality of consequences cannot be apodictically known. Therefore by this mode of concluding we can only arrive at an apparent or hypothetically-true Knowledge, (*Hypothesis*,) upon the supposition, that, where many consequences are true, the remainder will also be true.

We are consequently here enabled to establish *Three Principles* as universal, though merely formal or Logical Criteria of Truth: these are,

1. *The Principle of Contradiction and Identity, (principium contradictionis et identitatis,)* by which the internal possibility of a Knowledge is determined for *Problematical Judgments*.

2. *The Principle of Sufficient Reason, (principium rationis sufficientis,)* upon which the (logical) actuality of a Knowledge rests, namely, that it is grounded; being the matter for *Affertorical Judgments*.

3. *The Principle of the Excluded Third, (principium exclusi medii inter duo contradictoria,)* upon which the (logical) necessity of a Knowledge is grounded; namely, that we must judge so, and not otherwise; i. e. that the opposite is false; for *Apodictical Judgments*.

The opposite to Truth is *Falseness*, which when taken for Truth is called *Error*. An *erroneous judgment* (for Error as well as Truth occurs only in judging) is consequently a judgment which confounds the appearance of Truth with Truth itself.

*How Truth is possible*; it is easy enough to conceive, since here the understanding acts according to the laws of its own constitution.

But how *Error*, in the formal sense of the word, that is, *how an irrational mode of thinking, is possible*, it is difficult to conceive, since we cannot imagine how any power should deviate from the laws of its own constitution. We must not, therefore, look to the Understanding and its own proper laws for the source of Error, any more than to the limits of our Understanding, which may indeed be the cause of *Ignorance*, but by no means of *Error*. If we had no other power of Knowledge than the pure understanding, we should certainly never err. But, besides *Understanding*, there is another indispensable source of Knowledge; namely, *Sense*, which furnishes the materials for thinking, and in so doing acts according to different laws from those of the Understanding. But from Sense alone no Error can arise, because Sense does not judge at all. The ground of all error lies in the secret influence of Sense upon the Understanding while it judges, causing it to mistake *subjective* for *objective* grounds, and consequently the mere *Appearance* of Truth for *Truth itself*. What makes Error possible is therefore this *appearance*.

In one sense indeed we may consider the Understanding as the origin of Error, since for want of the requisite attention to the influence of Sense it suffers itself to be misled by *appearance*, and to take that which is *true* according to the laws of Sense, as true also according to the laws of Understanding.

Again, Error cannot be said to lie in our Reason; for this faculty, like every other, is endowed with its proper powers and limits; and therefore, *cannot err*. But, in judging of the motives of our actions, we suffer our Feelings to work upon our Reason, and to drive it out of its course.

*Ignorance* indeed is occasioned by the limits of Understanding, for nature has denied us much Knowledge; but *Error* is attributable to ourselves. One source of Error is our proneness to judge and decide about things which are without the limits of our faculties.

All Error into which human Reason can fall is however only *partial*. In every erroneous judgment there must always be something true; for a complete error would be an entire contradiction to the laws of Understanding and Reason.

With respect to *Truth* and *Error*, it is necessary to distinguish between *accurate* and *inaccurate* Knowledge. Knowledge is *accurate* when it is adequate to its object, and there is not the least error in it. It is *inaccurate* when there are errors in it, yet without entirely defeating its object.

This distinction respects the *wider* or *narrower* determination of our knowledge; (*cognitio late vel stricte determinata*.) It is sometimes necessary at first to determine knowledge by very wide limits, particularly in history. But in rational knowledge there must be nothing vague; every thing must be strictly determined. It depends on the object of knowledge whether it ought to be determined *vaguely* or *strictly*. The wide determination leaves room for error, since it is frequently mistaken for a strict one.

A distinction may be made between *Strictness* as an *objective perfection* of knowledge, consisting in its entire agreement with its object, and *Subtlety* as a *subjective perfection* of knowledge.

The knowledge of a thing is *subtle* when something is discovered in it that has been commonly overlooked. It requires



requires therefore a higher degree of attention, and a greater exertion of the intellectual powers.

Many persons condemn all *subtily*, because it lies beyond their reach. But, considered in itself, it is always an honour to the Understanding; and, when applied to objects worthy of examination, it is even highly meritorious. When more intellectual attention and effort is bestowed upon an object than is necessary to its attainment, this is a fruitless labour, and leads to subtilities which are indeed difficult, but useless, (*nugæ difficilis.*) As the *strict* is opposed to the *vague*, so is the *subtile* to the *common*.

From the nature of *error* as above described, namely, falsehood with the appearance of truth, the following important rule, for the truth of knowledge, arises.

Error cannot be considered as absolutely unavoidable, though it may be so *relatively*. There are many cases where we are compelled to judge, even at the risk of erring. In order to avoid error, we must endeavour to discover and explain the *appearance* from whence it springs. But very few philosophers have accomplished this; they have only endeavoured to refute the errors themselves, without pointing out the *appearance* from whence they originated. The discovery and solution of the *appearance* is however much more beneficial to *truth* than the immediate exposure of the errors themselves; for this does not stop their source, nor prevent the very same appearance, in other cases, from leading us again into error. Though our error may have been shown to us, there still remains a doubt, however faint, that we might yet be able to justify it, so long as the appearance itself, which laid the foundation of the error, is not removed.

It is besides an act of fairness to explain to him who has erred the *appearance* which caused the error; for no one will allow that he has erred without some *appearance* of truth, which might perhaps have deceived a more penetrating mind, because here subjective grounds came under consideration.

An error, where the *appearance* is obvious to common sense, is called an absurdity. The reproach of absurdity is always personal, and ought always to be avoided, especially when we are refuting error. For to him who maintains an absurdity, the *appearance* itself is not obvious, although it is the ground of an obvious falsehood. We must first point out the *appearance* to him; and, if he still persists, he is indeed absurd, and nothing more can be done with him; for he thereby shows himself to be not only incapable, but actually unworthy, of all further explanation and refutation. Strictly speaking, there is no demonstrating to any one that he is absurd; for here all reasoning would be useless. In proving an absurdity, we no longer address ourselves to a man who remains in error, but to one who is attentive to reason. In that case the absurdity no longer exists.

An absurdity may be termed such an error as has not even an *appearance* to excuse it: for, as a gross error, it shows an ignorance in common affairs, and a want of common observation.

Error in principle is more prejudicial than in its mere accidental occurrence. The comparison of our own judgments with those of others, is an external test of truth, since what is *subjective* is not the same in all men, consequently the *appearance* may be thus detected. The disagreement of the judgments of others with our own may be considered as an *external* mark of error, and as a hint to us to re-examine our judgments; but not as a reason for immediately rejecting it. For we may perhaps be still right in the *matter*, but only wrong in the *manner*; that is, in the mode of treatment.

Common Sense is of itself indeed a touch-stone by which we may discover the defects of the speculative use of Reason. When we find the correctness of the speculative use of Reason sanctioned by common sense, this is termed to *orient one's self in thinking*.

The universal rules and conditions requisite for avoid-

ing error are; 1. To think for ourselves; 2. To consider ourselves in thought as in the place of others; 3. Always to think consistently. The maxim of self-thinking is called an *enlightened*, that of assuming in thought the situation of others an *enlarged*, and that of thinking consistently a *consequential* or *conclusive*, mode of thinking.

C. *Logical Perfection of Knowledge as to QUALITY.*—*Clearness.*—*Conception of a Mark in general; different Kinds of Marks.*—*Determination of the Logical Essence of a thing, and Distinction between this and the Real Essence.*—*Distinctness a high Degree of Clearness.*—*Æsthetical and Logical Distinctness.*—*Difference between Analytic and Synthetic Distinctness.*—*Scale of the Value of Knowledge.*

Human Knowledge considered on the Part of Understanding is *discursive*; that is, it makes that to be a ground of Knowledge which is common to many things; consequently it arises by means of marks. We know things therefore only by means of marks.

A mark is that in a thing which constitutes a part of the knowledge of that thing; or, which is the same, it is a partial representation considered as a ground of knowledge of the whole representation. All our conceptions are consequently marks; and all thinking is nothing else but a representing by marks.

Every Mark is,

1. A representation in itself.
2. It belongs, as a partial conception, to the whole representation of a thing, and is therefore a ground of knowledge of the thing itself.

All marks, considered as grounds of knowledge, are either of an *internal* or an *external* use. The *internal* use consists in *Derivation*, for the purpose of knowing the thing by means of marks as grounds of knowledge. The *external* use consists in *Comparison*, whereby we compare one thing with another according to the laws of *Identity* and *Diversity*.

There are many specific differences with respect to marks, upon which the following classification of them depends.

1. ANALYTIC and SYNTHETIC marks, (which regard the origin of a conception;) the former are *partial conceptions* of a real conception, (which are already thought therein.) The latter, on the other hand, are *partial conceptions* of the merely-possible whole-conception, (which can only arise by the synthesis of many parts.) All Rational conceptions are *Analytic*, and all *Empirical* conceptions are *Synthetic*.

2. CO-ORDINATE and SUBORDINATE marks, which regard the relation of one conception to another. Marks are called *Co-ordinate* when each of them is represented as an immediate mark of the thing. Their connection produces an *entire conception*, and is termed an *aggregate*; which however, with respect to synthetic empirical conceptions, can never be completed, but resembles an unlimited right line, to which more can always be added. Marks are called *Subordinate* when one is represented only by means of another in the thing. Their connection is termed a *series*, and one mark implies the other. This series of subordinate marks is *finite* on the part of the grounds (*à parte ante*), because at last we arrive at *simple conceptions*, which are insolvable, and admit of no further analysis. On the part of the consequences (*à parte post*), it is *infinite*, because we have indeed a HIGHEST GENUS, but have not a LOWEST SPECIES.

In the Synthesis of every new conception by the aggregation of co-ordinate marks, *extensive distinctness* is produced. By the *Analysis* of conceptions, in the series of subordinate marks, *intensive distinctness* is generated. This latter distinctness, as it necessarily tends to the solidity and conclusiveness of knowledge, is highly important in philosophy. But in metaphysics it is carried to the highest perfection.

3. AFFIRMATIVE and NEGATIVE marks. By the former we know what a thing *is*; by the latter what it is not. Negative



Negative marks serve to guard us against error: they are therefore unnecessary in those cases where error is impossible, and only necessary and important when they guard us against an important error into which we might easily have fallen. Thus for example, with respect to a being such as God, negative marks are of the utmost importance.

By *affirmative* marks our object is to *understand a thing*. By *negative*, into which all marks whatsoever may be converted, our aim is not to *misunderstand*, or *not to err*, though we should even learn nothing of a thing.

4. IMPORTANT and PROLIFIC, or BARREN and UNIMPORTANT, MARKS. A mark is important and prolific when it is a ground of knowledge which has very numerous consequences; either with respect to its *internal use*, that is *in derivation*, where it enables us to know a great deal of the thing itself; or with respect to its *external use*, *in comparison*, where it serves to point out the agreement and difference of things.

We must however distinguish here the *Logical* importance and fruitfulness from the *Practical*, that is, the *Utility*.

5. SUFFICIENT and NECESSARY, and INSUFFICIENT and ACCIDENTAL, MARKS. A mark is *sufficient* when it serves to distinguish the thing from all others. If it does not do this, it is *insufficient*; for instance, *Barking* as the mark of a dog. The sufficiency as well as the importance of marks is only to be understood relatively, with respect to the ends we have in view in our knowledge.

Necessary marks are lastly those which must always be met with in the thing represented; and are also termed *essential*, in opposition to the *unessential* or *accidental*, which may be separated from the conception of the thing.

There is still another distinction among necessary marks. Some of them apply to the thing as the grounds of other marks in the same thing; others only as the consequences of other marks, or as being derived from them.

The former are *primitive* and *constitutive* marks; that is to say, those which are not derived from any other marks in the conception. The latter are *attributes*, which only apply to the thing as being derived from the primitive marks in its conception. For instance: the three angles in the conception of a triangle are derived from there being three sides.

The *unessential* or *accidental* marks are again twofold; namely, they refer either to the *internal determination*, (*modi*) of a thing, or to the *external relation* (*relationis*.) As for example, *learning* is a mark that denotes an internal determination of man; but *master* or *servant* an external relation.

The *aggregate* of all the *primitive* marks of a thing, or the sufficiency of its marks according to *co-ordination* or *subordination*, constitutes ITS ESSENCE.

But in this explanation we must by no means think of the *real* or *natural essence* of things, which it is impossible ever to discover. Since logic abstracts from the *matter* of all knowledge, consequently from the thing itself; it follows that this science can only treat of the *logical essence* of things; and this we can easily obtain. For here nothing farther is required than a knowledge of all those predicates which determine the conception of an object. Whereas to the *real essence* of a thing (*esse rei*) is required the knowledge of those predicates on which depends whatever belongs to its *existence* as determining ground. Thus, in order to determine the *logical essence* of a body, we need not seek the *data* in nature; but only attend to the marks which originally constitute its fundamental conception, (*constitutiva rationis*.) For the *logical essence* is nothing but the primitive and fundamental conception of all the necessary marks of a thing, (*esse conceptus*.)

The first step requisite for perfecting our knowledge as to Quality is *clearness*. The second is a higher degree of clearness, namely *distinctness*, which consists in the clearness of its marks. *Logical distinctness* in general, must be distinguished from *æsthetical*. The logical depends upon

the *objective*, the *æsthetical* upon the *subjective*, clearness of marks. The former is clearness by *conception*; the latter clearness by *intuition*. *Æsthetical distinctness* consists in mere *liveliness* and *intelligibility*, that is, in a clearness of marks by examples in the *concrete*; (for many things may be intelligible which are not distinct, and many things may be distinct which are difficult to be understood, because they refer to remote marks whose connection with the intuition is only possible by a long series.)

*Objective distinctness* frequently occasions *subjective obscurity*, and conversely. Hence *logical distinctness* is frequently attainable only at the expense of *æsthetical*; and the latter is often injurious to the former, by examples and families ill-adapted, and only used according to analogy. Besides, examples are not marks, nor do they belong as parts to the conception; they are only intuitions which may assist in forming conceptions. *Distinctness* by examples, that is, mere intelligibility, is quite different from *distinctness* by conceptions as marks. In the union of *æsthetical* or *popular* with *scholastic* or *logical distinctness*, consists the power of representing abstract and profound knowledge in a clear manner, and adapting it to the capacity of common sense.

Logical distinctness in particular may be termed *complete distinctness*; for here all the marks taken together that constitute the whole conception must be rendered distinct. A conception may be completely distinct with respect to the totality of its *Co-ordinate* or of its *Subordinate* marks. (In the former consists the *extensive distinctness* of a conception, which is also termed its *ampleness*. In the latter the *intensive distinctness*, namely its *profundity*.) The extensive distinctness may also be termed the *external completeness*, and the intensive the *internal completeness*, of the clearness of marks. This latter completeness can only be obtained by Ideas of Reason and by arbitrary conceptions of *understanding*, but not empirically.

*Extensive quantity* of Distinctness, when it is not abundant, is termed *Precision*. The *ample* and the *precise* taken together constitute the *adequate*, (*cognitionum quæ rem adequat*.) When the *intensively-adequate* knowledge, that is, the *profound*, is combined with the *extensively-adequate*, that is, the *ample* and *precise*; they produce, according to quality, the greatest perfection of all human knowledge; (*consummata cognitionis perfectio*.)

Since it is the business of Logic to render *clear* conceptions *distinct*, we may now enquire, how this distinctness is produced?

The Distinctness of knowledge may be obtained in two ways: firstly, by *Analysis*, by which we discover all those marks that are already thought in a given conception; secondly, by *Synthesis*, where we trace all those marks which are added as parts of an entire possible conception. Hence there is an essential difference between *forming a distinct conception*, and *rendering a conception distinct*. In order to form a distinct conception, we commence from the parts, and proceed to the whole. At first there are no marks at all; but we obtain these by means of *synthesis*, and thus generate *synthetic distinctness*, which really extends the matter of the conception by that which is added to it as a mark from the intuition, (whether pure or empirical.) The mathematician and natural philosopher both use this *synthetical procedure* in forming distinct conceptions. For all distinctness, in what is purely mathematical as well as in experimental knowledge, depends upon an extension of its conception by the *synthesis* of marks.

In order to render a conception distinct, we begin with the whole, and proceed analytically to the parts, by which we do not in the least extend our knowledge. The matter remains the same, the form alone is changed; by which we are enabled to distinguish better, or to become clearly conscious of that which originally lay in the given conception. As by colouring a map we add nothing to it, but merely render its parts more distinct; so we clear up a conception by the analysis of its marks, without in the least increasing its contents. By a *Synthesis* of marks



the OBJECT is rendered distinct; by an *Analysis* of marks the CONCEPTION is rendered distinct. In the former we proceed from the parts to the whole; in the latter from the whole to the parts. It is the business of the PHILOSOPHER to render *given* Conceptions distinct; and of the Mathematician to produce distinct Conceptions.

This Analytic procedure, with which alone logic has to do, is the first and chief requisite for rendering knowledge distinct. The more distinct our knowledge is, the STRONGER and more EFFICACIOUS it is. We must however be careful in this Analysis not to proceed so far as at last to make the subject itself vanish.

With regard to the objective value of Knowledge in general, it may be arranged according to the following scale.

*The first degree of Knowledge* is—to represent something to one's self even without being conscious that it is a representation; i. e. to represent necessarily or instinctively.

*The Second*; To perceive, that is, to represent something to one's self with consciousness; (*percipere*.)

*The Third*; To know a thing *instinctively* (*noscere*); or to represent it in comparison with other things in respect to *Identity* and *Diversity*. Animals know objects in this way only, but not with consciousness.

*The Fourth*; To know something with *consciousness*, (*cognoscere*); this is not possessed by the brutes.

*The fifth*; To understand (*intelligere*); i. e. to form conceptions, or to conceive. This is very different from comprehending. We may conceive many things that we cannot comprehend; for instance a perpetual motion, the impossibility of which is proved in mechanics.

*The sixth*; To penetrate or *perceive* (*perspicere*); that is, to inspect something by means of Reason. We seldom accomplish this thoroughly; and the more perfect we render our knowledge as to its *matter*, the more we diminish it in *quantity*.

*The Seventh*; To comprehend (*comprehendere*); that is, to inspect by reason *à priori* in a manner sufficient for our purpose. All comprehending is merely relative, i. e. sufficient to a certain purpose; for we cannot comprehend any thing *absolutely*. Nothing can be more comprehensible than mathematical demonstrations; for example, that *All lines within a circle are proportionals*; and yet nothing can be more incomprehensible than that so simple a figure should possess such wonderful properties. The field of the *intelligible* is therefore much greater than that of the *comprehensible*.

D. *Logical Perfection as to MODALITY.*—*Certainty.*—*Conception of holding for True in general.*—*Modes of holding for True.*—*To be of Opinion—to believe—to be certain.*—*Conviction and Persuasion.*—*Reservation and Suspension of Judgment.*—*Preliminary Judgments.*—*Prejudices, their sources and chief kinds.*

Truth is an *objective* Property of Knowledge; the Judgment by which something is represented as true; that is, its relation to an understanding, and consequently to a particular subject, is the subjectively holding for true. Holding for true is either certain or uncertain. The certain holding for true is joined with the consciousness of necessity; the uncertain with the consciousness of contingency, or the possibility of the contrary. The latter is either objectively or subjectively insufficient, or it is objectively insufficient but subjectively sufficient. The former is termed *Opinion*; the latter *Belief*.

There are three kinds or modes of holding for true: *To be of Opinion, to believe, and to be certain.* The first is a *Problematical Judgment*, the second *Affertorical*, and the third *Apodictical*.

Thus for example, the taking *immortality* for true is merely *Problematical*, when we are only of opinion that we may be immortal; but *Affertorical*, if we really believe that we are so; and, lastly, *Apodictical*, when we are certain that there must be another life after this.

There is an essential difference between *Opinion, Belief, and Certainty*; which we shall here fully explain.

To be of *Opinion* is to hold something for true from reasons which are both subjectively and objectively insufficient, and may be considered as a preliminary Judgment, (*sub conditione suspensiva ad interim*;) which we cannot well dispense with. We must first be of opinion before we adopt and maintain the truth of any thing, always taking care not to hold *Opinion* for any thing more than mere opinion. Almost all our knowledge begins with opinion.

Now where can more *Opinion* properly have place? In none of those sciences which contain Knowledge *à priori*. Therefore neither in the *Mathematics*, in *Metaphysics*, nor in *Morals*; but merely in empirical Knowledge, in *Physics*, in *Psychology*, and the like. For to be of opinion *à priori* is in itself an absurdity. Nothing can be more ridiculous than to be merely of opinion in the *Mathematics*; here, as well as in *Metaphysics* and in *Morals*, we must actually demonstrate our Knowledge or confess our Ignorance. Very great injury accrues to the sciences from our merely being of Opinion where we ought to be certain. Matters of opinion always allow the possibility of the opposite being proved; as for instance, with regard to the ETHER which is supposed to fill celestial space, there exist opposite Opinions. This depends upon our faculties being confined within certain limits.

To *Believe*, is to hold something for true upon grounds which are indeed objectively insufficient, but subjectively sufficient. *Belief* relates to objects that never can be known, nay, of which we cannot form an opinion, or even pretend that they are probable. But, as belief is a subjectively-sufficient holding for true, we ought to be certain that our mode of conceiving objects of belief involves no contradiction, and that in a moral point of view the opposite can never be proved: for example, I may be fully certain that nobody can refute the position THERE IS A GOD! for from whence shall he obtain his arguments?

Objects of belief are therefore, First, *Not objects of Empirical Knowledge.* What is called *Historical Belief* is, strictly speaking, not Belief, since it may become Knowledge by means of the *intuition* from whence it originated. The holding for true upon testimony does not differ either in degree or kind from the holding for true from our own experience.

Secondly, *Not objects of Rational Knowledge*; that is, Knowledge *à priori*; neither *Theoretical*, as Mathematics and Metaphysics; nor *Practical*, as Morals.

Neither Mathematics nor Metaphysics in the least allow of uncertainty or belief; for every thing in them must be absolutely demonstrated, or nothing at all is accomplished. In the practical field, or in Morals, belief is equally inapplicable, for we must be perfectly certain whether the action we are about to perform is *Right or Wrong*; that is, conformable to duty or contrary to duty, permitted or not permitted. In morals nothing must be determined upon even at the risk of offending the MORAL LAW.

Thirdly, *Such objects only are matters of Belief with respect to which the holding for true is necessarily free*; that is, where it is absolutely impossible to establish the truth from grounds taken from the object, because it is beyond the reach of our faculties; as *God, the Soul, Immortality, &c.* Yet it is equally impossible for us to relinquish such objects. We are therefore constrained to believe them entirely from *subjective* grounds. This belief is however not inferior to any Knowledge, although it never can become Knowledge. The certainty that is obtained from Knowledge implies only that our senses have been impressed by *given matter*, and that the Understanding has been active in giving it a *form*; and thus an external fact has occurred in our consciousness; whereas, in the *consciousness* of the certainty that arises from belief, we discern that our Reason has been engaged in forming deductions, which, if logically correct, produce *as much conviction* in our minds as the testimony of the senses. Thus for example, who dares to doubt the validity of the MORAL LAW, or disregard the dictates of conscience, and still call himself a rational being?



*Moral Unbelief* is the rejection of that which, although it never can be known, is still morally necessary to be presupposed, in order that Reason should be consistent with itself. This moral unbelief arises from a want of moral incentives. The stronger the moral feeling, the more firm and lively is the BELIEF in those things which we are compelled to assume and presuppose in a *Practical point of view* for the sake of the moral interest. *Belief*, therefore, affords no conviction like *Evidence*, which can be communicated and command universal assent; but, as it rests entirely upon *subjective grounds*, it is as convincing and satisfactory to the subject as any knowledge could possibly be.

3. *To be certain, is to hold something for true from grounds that are both objectively and subjectively sufficient.* Certainty is either *empirical* or *rational*, according as it is grounded in Experience or in Reason. This distinction refers to the only two sources from whence all our Knowledge springs, namely, *Experience* and *Reason*.

*Rational certainty* is divisible into *Mathematical* and *Philosophical*: the former is *intuitive*, the latter *discursive*. *Mathematical certainty* is also termed *Evidence*, because *intuitive Knowledge* is clearer than *discursive*. Though the *Mathematical* and *Philosophical Knowledge* of Reason are equally certain, the kind of certainty in them differs.

*Empirical certainty* is *original*, when it is procured by our personal experience: it is *derived*, when it is obtained from the experience of others; which latter is usually termed *historical certainty*.

*Rational certainty* is distinguished from *Empirical* by the consciousness of the *Necessity* that always accompanies it. It is consequently *apodictical*, while *empirical certainty* is only *Affertorial*. We are rationally certain of that, which we might have known without any experience. Our Knowledge may concern objects of experience, and yet its certainty may be both *empirical* and *rational* at the same time; since an *empirically-certain position* may be known also by principles *à priori*. *Rational certainty* cannot be attained in all subjects; but, where it can, it is to be preferred to *empirical certainty*.

All certainty is either *immediate* or *mediate*; that is, requires proof, or is incapable of proof. Let never so much of our Knowledge be *mediately certain*, that is, certain because it is demonstrated; there is always at the bottom something *indemonstrable*, or immediately certain; for all our knowledge first springs from *immediately-certain positions*.

The proofs upon which all immediate certainty of Knowledge depends are either *direct* or *indirect*; which latter are also called *Apogogical*. When I prove a Truth by its grounds, I give a *direct* proof of it; but, when I conclude the Truth of a position from the falsity of its opposite, this is an *apogogical proof*, which requires that the positions be *Contradictorily* or *Diametrically* opposed. For two merely *contrary* positions may both be false. A proof which is the ground of *Mathematical certainty* is termed a *Demonstration*, and that which is the ground of *Philosophical certainty* an *Aeroamatical* proof.

From the preceding remark upon the nature and kinds of holding for true, we may draw this general conclusion; that all conviction is either *Logical* or *Practical*. When we know that the holding for true is sufficient, and that we are still free from all *subjective grounds*, then we are convinced *Logically*, or from *objective grounds*; that is to say, *The object is certain*.

A sufficient holding for true from *Subjective grounds*, which in a *practical reference* is as valid as the *objective*, is *Practical Conviction*, though not *Logical*. And thus *Practical Conviction*, or the *Moral Belief* of Reason, is often more firm than Knowledge itself. For in Knowledge we still attend to the *opposite reasonings*; but in Belief we do not, as it does not arise from *objective grounds*, but entirely from the moral interest of the subject. This *Practical Conviction* is therefore the *true moral belief* of Reason; and, although it never can become Knowledge, it cannot be invalidated by any Knowledge whatever.

Conviction is opposed to *Persuasion*, which is a holding

for true upon insufficient grounds, where we are uncertain whether they are merely *Subjective* or both *subjective* and *objective*.

*Persuasion* frequently precedes *Conviction*. In much of our Knowledge we have only a sort of consciousness, which does not enable us to judge whether the grounds of our holding for true are *objective* or *subjective*. Hence, to arrive at *Conviction* from mere persuasion, we must first reflect to what faculty a certain Knowledge belongs, and then investigate whether the grounds are sufficient or insufficient. Many persons are content with *Persuasion*; some arrive at *Reflection*; but very few proceed to *Investigation*. Whoever knows what is requisite to certainty, will not easily confound persuasion with conviction; and consequently will not be easily persuaded. There is always a ground which determines our assent; and this may be both *objective* and *subjective*; but it is seldom analyzed.

Though all *Persuasion* is, as to FORM, *false*, in as much as it gives to an uncertain Knowledge the appearance of certainty; yet, as to MATTER, it may be true. Here it differs from *Opinion*, which is also an *uncertain Knowledge*, but is always considered such.

The strength of a belief may be put to the test by *Wager* or by *Oath*. The former requires a comparative, the latter an absolute, sufficiency of objective grounds. But, in *Rational belief*, where there are no objective grounds, a *subjective sufficiency* of grounds is equally valid.

We frequently use the expressions to *adopt*, to *suspend*, to *defer*, and to *abandon*, a Judgment. These expressions seem to imply that there is something *arbitrary* in our Judgments. The question then is, *whether the Will has any influence upon our Judgments*.

The will has no immediate influence upon our holding for true; this would be highly absurd.

Had the will this influence upon our conviction, we should constantly form to ourselves the chimera of a happy state, and always consider it as true.

As, however, the will either stimulates the understanding to the investigation of truth, or withholds it, we must admit that it has an influence upon the exercise of understanding, and thus mediately upon conviction itself, which depends upon this exercise. With respect to the reservation of Judgment, this consists in the determination not to suffer a mere preliminary judgment to become a definitive one. A preliminary judgment is one, in which there are more grounds for than against the truth of a thing, but which grounds are not sufficient to an immediate and determinate Judgment. A Preliminary Judgment is therefore a *Problematical Judgment*, with the consciousness of its being merely *problematical*.

The suspension of a Judgment may occur from two motives; either for the purpose of investigating the grounds for a definitive judgment, or to avoid judging altogether. In the former case the Suspension is called *Critical* (*suspensio iudicii indagatoria*), in the latter *Sceptical* (*suspensio iudicii sceptica*). For the sceptic relinquishes judgment altogether; while the true philosopher merely suspends his judgment, because he has not yet sufficient grounds to hold something for true.

To suspend our judgment upon principle, requires the understanding to be versed in judging, which is the case only as we advance in years. Indeed to withhold our assent is always difficult; sometimes because the understanding is eager to judge and enrich itself by Knowledge, and frequently because we feel an inclination to some things in preference to others. Whoever has been often obliged to recall his assent, and has thereby become cautious and prudent, will not be apt to judge too hastily, for fear he should be compelled again to retract. This recantation is always mortifying, and renders us mistrustful of all our Knowledge.

We may still further remark, that to leave a judgment in doubt is different from leaving it in suspense. In the latter case we retain an interest in the thing; in the



former, it is perhaps not our intention to examine strictly whether it be true or not.

Preliminary judgments are very necessary, nay, indeed indispensable to the use of understanding, in investigation and meditation; for they serve to lead the understanding, and to furnish it with the various means necessary to its enquiries.

When we meditate upon an object, we must always form a preliminary judgment, and anticipate the Knowledge we are to derive from it; and, when we endeavour to *invent*, or make *discoveries*, we must always form some previous plan to prevent our thoughts from wandering at random. Hence, by preliminary judgments may be understood maxims to direct our investigations. They may also be termed Anticipations, since we anticipate our judgment of a thing before we arrive at it definitively. Such judgments have therefore an excellent use; and rules might even be given agreeably to which we ought to judge previously of objects.

Preliminary Judgments are to be distinguished from prejudices. Prejudices are preliminary judgments laid down as principles. Every prejudice is to be considered as a principle of erroneous judgment. We must therefore distinguish the false knowledge which springs from a prejudice, from the prejudice itself, which is its source. For instance, the interpretation of dreams is in itself no prejudice, but an error, which originates in the generally-received Rule, that, *that which sometimes comes true always comes true*, which is in itself a prejudice.

Prejudices are sometimes true as preliminary judgments; only it is wrong to lay them down as principles, that is, as definitive judgments. This mistake is caused by taking subjective grounds for objective, from a want of that reflection which ought always to precede judgment. We can admit much Knowledge without investigation; for instance, *all immediately-certain positions*. Here we need not examine the conditions of their truth; yet we cannot and ought not to judge of any thing without reflection, that is, without comparing our Knowledge with the faculty from whence it sprang, namely, SENSE or UNDERSTANDING. If then we attempt to form judgments without this necessary reflection, even where no investigation is required, Prejudices arise, that is, principles of judgment from subjective grounds, which are falsely taken as objective ones.

The chief sources of prejudice are, *Imitation, Habit, and Inclination*.

*Imitation* has an universal influence upon our judgment; for it is a strong reason to hold something for true, that it has been declared so by others. Hence the prejudice, that *what every body says must be true*. Those prejudices which are founded in *Habit*, require a length of time before they can be completely eradicated, as the Mind meets with many hindrances in weighing opposite reasons before it can relinquish its habit, and adopt an entirely new mode of Thinking. But, if a prejudice of *habit* is also founded in *imitation*, it is then indeed extremely difficult to cure. A prejudice of imitation may be considered as a proneness to the Mechanism of Reason, instead of an active exertion of its proper freedom.

Reason is an *active principle*, which ought to take nothing upon credit, or from the mere authority of others; and indeed, in its *pure use*, not even from experience. But the idleness of much the greater part of mankind induces them rather to tread in the footsteps of others, than exert their own understandings. Were this universally the case, there would be an end to improvement, and the world would ever remain in the same state. It is therefore highly necessary and important, not to educate youth, as is usually done, upon the principle of mere imitation.

There are many things which induce us to adhere to the maxim of Imitation, and thereby render Reason a fruitful soil of prejudice. Amongst these may be reckoned the following:

1. *Formula*: These are rules which serve as patterns

for imitation. They are also exceedingly useful as guides in intricate cases. The clearest heads have therefore endeavoured to discover them.

2. *Sayings*: Which express an important truth, with great accuracy; so that it seems impossible to convey it in fewer or better words.

3. *Sentences*: That is, propositions which are adopted, and frequently last for centuries; from the strength of thought which they contain, the result of a matured judgment.

4. *Canons*. These are general rules which serve as the groundwork of sciences, and denote something sublime and deeply considered. They may also be expressed in a sententious manner, which renders them much more pleasing.

5. *Proverbs*. These are popular rules of common sense to denote popular judgments, which serve only the vulgar, and are not met with among people of refined education.

From the three preceding general sources of prejudice, and chiefly from imitation, arise many particular ones; among which we shall notice the following.

1. *Prejudices of Authority*.

a. *Prejudice in favour of the Authority of Persons*. In matters which depend upon experience and testimony, to rest our Knowledge upon the authority of others is by no means a prejudice; for, as we cannot experience every thing ourselves, the authority of other persons must be the foundation of our Judgment. But, if we make the authority of others the foundation of our holding for true in Rational Knowledge, this is indeed a prejudice, for Rational Truth is valid, even though it be anonymous. Hence the question is not *Who has said it?* but *What has been said?* There is but one Truth; and, if we take the trouble, we shall discover it. It is of no importance to Knowledge to be nobly descended; and yet it is extremely common to respect great authorities, and to concur in their judgments without examination.

b. *Prejudice in favour of the Authority of the Multitude*. It is the vulgar who are chiefly inclined to this prejudice. For, since they cannot judge of the Merit, Capacity, and Knowledge, of a single person, they rather abide by the judgment of the many, on the supposition that what every body says must be true. However, this prejudice influences them only in matters of experience; for in religious affairs, in which they are themselves interested, they trust to the judgment of the learned. It is besides worthy of remark, that the ignorant are prejudiced in favour of learning, and the learned in favour of common sense. When the learned, after having nearly passed through the circle of the sciences, do not find that satisfaction which should reward their labours, they begin at last to lose their confidence in learning, especially with respect to those speculations, the conceptions of which cannot be rendered sensible, and whose foundations are wavering; as for instance, in Metaphysics. However, as they still believe that the Key to the certainty of the desired Knowledge is somewhere to be met with, they look for it in *Common Sense*, having so long sought for it in vain in scientific investigation. But this hope is very deceitful; for, when the *cultivated* Power of Reason can do nothing with respect to a certain Knowledge, the *uncultivated* will certainly not succeed better. In Metaphysics, the appeal to the decisions of common sense is besides wholly inadmissible, because here nothing can be admitted in the *concrete*. But in Morals the case is certainly different; here, not only all rules may be given in the *concrete*, but *Practical Reason* reveals itself in general more clearly and correctly by means of Common Sense than by means of *Speculative Reason*. Therefore Common Sense, on subjects of Morality and Duty, frequently judges with more correctness than Speculative Reason.

c. *Prejudice in favour of the Ancients*. We have certainly great reason to judge favourably of antiquity; but we often carry our admiration of the ancients too far, and thus raise the relative value of their writings to an absolute



lute value, trusting implicitly to their guidance. To over-rate the ancients in this way, is to put back the understanding to the state of infancy, and to neglect the use of our own talents. Besides, we deceive ourselves greatly if we believe that all the writings of the ancients were equally classical with those which have descended to us; for time sifts every thing, and only retains that which has an intrinsic value. We may therefore justly suppose that we possess only the best writings of the ancients.

There are various causes by which the prejudice in favour of antiquity is produced and maintained. When we discover any thing in the Ancients, which, considering the circumstances of the times they lived in, exceeds our expectation, we are filled with surprise and admiration. Besides a Knowledge of the Ancients is a proof of erudition and great reading, which are always esteemed, however trifling and unimportant the Knowledge may be which is obtained from that study. The obligation we are under to them for having introduced us to many Species of Knowledge, induces us to hold them in high esteem; but, in consequence of the time and labour we have bestowed upon them, we are apt to carry this too far. There is also a certain jealousy of our contemporaries, which leads some, who cannot cope with the moderns, to praise the ancients at their expense. We must however candidly acknowledge, that the ancient models of taste have never been equalled.

The opposite to this, is the prejudice in favour of Novelty. There have been times when the prejudice in favour of the ancients has sunk, particularly in the beginning of the 18th century, when the celebrated Fontenelle took part with the moderns. In experimental knowledge, which is always capable of being extended, it is very natural that we should place more confidence in the moderns than in the ancients. But this judgment must be considered as a preliminary judgment; for, if we change it into a definitive one, it then becomes a prejudice.

We must not omit to mention two very useful rules in judging: the one is, that comparisons illustrate, but do not prove: and the other, that ridicule exposes, but does not refute.

2. *The Prejudice of Self-Love*, or logical Egotism, is opposed to the Prejudice of Authority, as it manifests itself in a certain partiality to the offspring of our own understandings. But self-love is extremely laudable, as it induces us to be active for our own interest, and is even necessary to our existence. How, then, does it come to be the source of prejudice? This happens when we consult our self-love at the expense of our Reason. A strict attention to the following maxim, will eventually confine self-love within its proper limits, and thus prevent its ever amounting to a prejudice. We should always ask ourselves this Question: *Would every body judge as I have done? and, if this were to become a universal law for all reasonable beings, what would be the state of the world?*

To favour the prejudices of others, is nothing more than directly to impose upon them. Yet who would undertake to expose and remove them? Old and inveterate prejudices are difficult to be eradicated, being judges in their own cause. It is however very advisable to use every means to expose them, as much good may result from their extermination.

V. *Of Probability.*—Difference between Probability and Plausibility.—Mathematical and Philosophical Probability.—Doubt Subjective and Objective.—Scepticism, Dogmatism, and Criticism.—Hypothesis.—Of the Difference between Theoretical and Practical Knowledge.

When there is a majority of objective reasons in favour of a thing, it approximates to Certainty, and is termed Probability. For instance, if a medicine has cured ten and killed ten, there is then an equal chance; but, if it has cured twenty and killed ten, the reasons for are more than those against it. If it has cured a hundred and killed ten, the probability in its favour is greater; but, if it has

cured ten thousand and killed only ten, the probability of its effecting a cure is greatly increased. Hence it is evident that probability is susceptible of degrees.

The more perfect our conceptions of a thing are, the better we are able to judge of its probability: For example, suppose I throw two dice, what is it most probable I shall throw, ten or five? First, I have an accurate conception of the dice; they are cubes, with the numbers from one to six marked on each. In order to determine which throw is the most probable, I proceed to enumerate all the possible throws thus: Let A represent one Die, and B the other.

To throw	A	B	Cases	To throw	A	B	15
2	1	1	1	6	1	2	6
3	2	1	2	7	2	3	
	1	2		3	4	4	
4	3	1	3	6	5	6	5
	2	2		8	2	3	
5	4	1	4	3	4	4	4
	3	2		9	3	5	
6	2	3	5	6	6	4	3
	1	4		10	4	5	
	5	1		3	6	6	2
	4	2		4	4	5	
	3	3		11	5	6	1
	2	4		12	6	6	
	1	5					
			15				Cases 36

Now there are only thirty-six possible cases: And thus, by a complete analysis of our Conception of the Dice, we have obtained the exact number of possible cases to produce each throw; by which we perceive, that to throw five we have four possible cases, and to throw ten we have only three; consequently it is more probable to throw the former. Hence it is evident, that, the clearer our conceptions are, the more accurately we are able to judge, till at length we may count the different degrees of probability, which is of the utmost importance to the success of an undertaking.

Probability is not to be met with in the Mathematics, for there demonstration commands assent; nor in True Philosophy, (Criticism,) for here we must either believe or know. By the former is meant Rational belief, which is a subjectively-sufficient holding for true; and to know is to be fully certain. Probability is therefore only to be met with in experience.

By Probability is to be understood a holding for true on insufficient grounds, which however have a greater relation to the sufficient than to the opposite. In this explanation we distinguish Probability from mere Plausibility (verisimilitudo); that is, a holding for true upon insufficient grounds which have a greater relation to the insufficient than to the opposite. The grounds of holding for true may be either objectively or subjectively greater than those for the contrary. In order to discover which of the two is the case, we need only compare the grounds with the sufficient ground. In Probability, the ground of holding for true is objectively valid; in mere Plausibility, it is only subjectively so. In Probability, there must always be a standard by which it can be estimated; and this is Certainty; for, if we are to compare the insufficient with the sufficient, we must know what is sufficient, namely, the Certainty. In Plausibility there is no such standard; for here we do not compare the insufficient with the sufficient ground, but with the opposite.

The moments of Probability may be either homogeneous or heterogeneous.



*heterogeneous*. If they are homogeneous, as is the case in Mathematical Knowledge, they must be *numbered*. If they are heterogeneous, as in Philosophical Knowledge, they must be weighed, that is, estimated by their effects, or as they overcome obstacles in the mind. These obstacles have no relation to Certainty, but only such a relation as one Plausibility has to another. Hence it follows that in the Mathematics only the relation of the *insufficient* to the *sufficient* grounds can be determined. In Philosophy we must content ourselves with *Plausibility*, which is a mere subjectively and practically sufficient holding for true. For Probability cannot be estimated in philosophical knowledge, on account of the heterogeneity of the grounds. But of mathematical Probability we may say, that it goes more than half way towards Certainty.

Much has been said on the subject of a Logic of Probability; but this is impossible; for, if the degree of the relation of the insufficient to the sufficient grounds cannot be mathematically counted, all rules are useless. Besides we can give no other universal rules of probability, except these, that *error* does not wholly lie on one side, and that there must be a ground of agreement in the object; also, that, when error exists in equal quantity and degree in two opposite arguments, the truth lies between them.

Doubt is an opposite ground, or a mere obstacle to holding for true, which may be either *objectively* or *subjectively* considered. Doubt is either *subjectively* taken as the state of an irresolute mind; or *objectively*, as the knowledge of the insufficiency of the grounds of holding for true. In the latter sense it is an *objection*; that is, an objective ground for disbelieving a knowledge that is considered to be true.

*Scruple* is an opposite ground to the holding for true, which is only subjectively valid. In scruple we do not know whether the obstacle is grounded in the object or only in the subject, that is, whether it arises from inclination, habit, &c. We doubt without being able clearly to explain ourselves concerning the ground of doubt. In order to remove a scruple, it must be raised to the clearness and precision of an objection. For it is by means of objections that certainty is rendered clear and perfect; and we cannot be certain of a thing unless opposite grounds are stated by which it may be determined how far we are from or how near we are to certainty. It is not sufficient that each Doubt should have a reply; it must be *resolved*, that is, rendered conceivable how the scruple originated. If this is not effected, the doubt is only *repelled*, but not *removed*; and the seeds of doubt still remain. In many cases we cannot indeed determine whether the obstacle to holding-for-true has merely subjective or objective grounds; and therefore cannot remove the scruple by exposing the appearance, because we cannot always compare our knowledge with the object. It is therefore modest to propose our objections only as doubts.

There is a principle of doubt, which consists in the maxim, to consider all knowledge as uncertain, and to show the impossibility of attaining to certainty. This is *Scepticism*. It is opposed to *Dogmatism*, which is a blind confidence in the power of Reason, suffering it, on account of its apparent success, to extend itself *à priori*, without a *Critic*, by means of mere conceptions. Both Scepticism and Dogmatism, when universally applied, are erroneous. For in great part of our knowledge we cannot proceed dogmatically; and Scepticism, by renouncing all positive knowledge, puts a stop to all endeavours for the attainment of certainty. When, however, Scepticism is limited to that method, which, in the investigation of Truth, endeavours to reduce every thing to the greatest possible uncertainty, in order that we should not assume Appearance for Truth; it is then only a suspension of Judgment, which is highly beneficial to *Criticism*. The *Critical* method of Philosophizing is precisely that which establishes *Reason* as its leading principle, and rejects all that is unreasonable. Thus it extracts the pure truth which is contained both

in Scepticism and Dogmatism. For this astonishing discovery we are indebted to the immortal Kant, who has founded a Philosophy (see vol. xi. p. 605.) that must quiet for ever Speculative Reason, and clear Practical Reason from all charge of contradiction and absurdity, erecting upon this basis a perfect system of Morals. Criticism may therefore be said to attain the summit of all human culture; for it constantly criticises its own principles, and only adopts those which are susceptible of apodictical certainty and complete demonstration.

We have already stated, that Probability is a mere approximation towards Certainty. This is particularly the case in Hypotheses, by means of which we can never arrive at apodictical certainty, but only at a greater or less degree of Probability in our knowledge. *An Hypothesis is the holding for true of a Judgment, from the Truth of a ground, on account of the sufficiency of its consequences; or the holding for true of a presupposition as a ground.*

All holding for true in hypotheses depends upon this, that the presupposition, as ground, be sufficient to explain other knowledge as consequences. For, from the truth of the consequences we infer the truth of the ground. Since, however, this mode of inference affords a sufficient criterion of Truth, and can lead to apodictical certainty only when all the possible consequences of a given ground are true; it appears from hence that, as we cannot determine all possible consequences, hypotheses will always remain hypotheses; that is, presuppositions whose complete certainty never can be ascertained. The probability of an hypothesis may nevertheless go on increasing until it raises itself to an *Analogon* of certainty; that is, to that state where all the consequences that have hitherto presented themselves are capable of being explained by the presupposed ground; for in that case there is no reason why we should not suppose that all possible consequences may be explained by it. In this case we submit to the hypothesis as if it were completely certain, although it is only so by induction.

In every Hypothesis something must however be apodictically certain, namely;

1. *The Possibility of the Presupposition itself*. When, for instance, in order to explain Earthquakes and Volcanoes, a subterraneous fire is supposed, such a fire must in the first place be possible, if not as a flaming, yet as a heated, substance. But, on account of certain other appearances, to consider the earth as an animal in which the circulation of internal fluids produces this heat, is a mere fancy, and no hypothesis. For it is admissible to fancy a thing real; but not to fancy a thing possible: this ought to be certain.

2. *The Consequence*. This must flow correctly from the assumed ground, or the hypothesis produces merely a chimaera.

3. *The Unity*. It is an essential requisite of an hypothesis that it be only *one*, and that it do not require auxiliary hypotheses for its support. If we are obliged, for the sake of one hypothesis, to have recourse to others, it thereby loses much of its probability. For, the more consequences are derived from one hypothesis, the more probable it is. The hypothesis of Tycho Brahe was so inadequate to the explanation of many of the celestial phenomena, that he had recourse to several new hypotheses to supply its defects. From this it might easily have been perceived that it was not the true one. This has since been fully evinced. The Copernican System is an Hypothesis which explains every thing requisite, as far as our experience has hitherto reached. This needs no auxiliary hypothesis.

There are Sciences which do not admit of Hypotheses; for example, the Mathematics and Metaphysics. But in Natural Philosophy they are both useful and necessary.

With respect to the difference between Theoretical and Practical Knowledge, we may remark, that Knowledge is termed Practical when it is opposed, not only to *Theoretical* but to *Speculative*.



*Practical Knowledge* is therefore either,

1. IMPERATIVE; and so far opposed to Theoretical; or it contains,
2. *The Ground of possible Imperatives*, and is so far opposed to Speculative.

By IMPERATIVES in general, is to be understood, all those positions which express a possible FREE ACTION, by which a certain end may be realized. All Knowledge therefore which contains an Imperative is PRACTICAL, and is opposed to *Theoretical*. The latter expresses not what *ought to be*, but what *is*; and consequently has for its object, not acting, but BEING; while the former refers to ACTING, and to the realizing of what OUGHT TO BE.

*Practical Knowledge*, in opposition to *Speculative*, may however be termed *Theoretical*, provided *Imperatives can be derived from it*: in that case it is OBJECTIVELY PRACTICAL. Speculative Knowledge is such from which no rules of conduct can be derived, or which contains no grounds for possible Imperatives. Such merely-speculative positions occur frequently in Theology. Speculative Knowledge is always *Theoretical*, but not conversely all *Theoretical Knowledge* Speculative; for, taken in another point of view, it may at the same time be PRACTICAL.

Ultimately, every thing centres in the PRACTICAL; and the *practical worth* of all our knowledge consists exactly in this tendency of all Theory and Speculation finally to promote the practical. But this *worth* is only then unconditional, when the end, to which our exertions are directed, is an unconditional end. Now the only unconditional end to which all practical knowledge can refer is MORALITY. This is indeed the final end and scope of all our exertions. For *pure practical* reason lifts man out of Nature, and refers him to a MORAL WORLD, where he alone will allow himself to partake of happiness that has rendered himself worthy of it. Hence Morality is the only unconditional end, and on that account may be called *necessarily or absolutely Practical*. That part of Philosophy which treats of Morality must, by way of eminence, be termed PRACTICAL; though every other Philosophical Science may also have its practical part, namely, directions how to realize certain ends denoted by the theory.

DEFINITIONS AND FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES.

1. REPRESENTATION, is a Variety in a Unity; it is an EFFECT resulting from the ACTIVE and PASSIVE faculties of the Mind; i. e. The representing subject is the CAUSE, as it is active in giving a form to the variety or matter received, which is the OBJECT; and, when this object or variety has been formed into a Unity, then arises the EFFECT, which is a Representation. This procedure must be accompanied with consciousness.

2. CONSCIOUSNESS is the act which refers that, in a Representation, which belongs to the mind, to the mind; and that to the external thing which is its produce.

3. SENSE, or RECEPTIVITY, is the passive faculty of the Mind, which receives the variety or matter of Representations, (and without which no representation whatever would be possible.) It may be termed the faculty of Receiving *immediate* representation of objects by *Sensation*, or the power of forming INTUITIONS.

4. SENSATION is the alteration that occurs when the *receptivity* is affected; or it is the impression of objects on our Senses, which is the ground of all INTUITIONS, both external and internal.

5. EXTERNAL INTUITION is that representation which *arises immediately*, in consequence of our receptivity being affected from without. It must always have the MATTER *present*, which consists of a variety of parts lying one without and near another; that is, it must occupy a determinate place in *space*, and fill up a portion of *time*; e. g. any external object, for instance, a Man.—It immediately refers to its object, which is completely determined, and is an individual Representation, determinable by NUMBER; i. e. it is a *Substance*.

6. INTERNAL INTUITION is that representation which *arises immediately* in consequence of our Receptivity being affected from within; (i. e. by the operations of our own faculties.) It must always have the matter *present*, which consists of a variety of parts, that never lie one near another, as in a plane; but strictly follow one after another, and occupy a portion of *Time only*; as for instance, any *emotion, action, or passion*, in Man. It immediately refers to its object, which has a beginning, middle, and end; and is an individual Representation. It is determinable by DEGREES, i. e. it is an *Effect* of a Substance, or a Reality in Time only.

7. TIME is a variety in general, whose parts strictly follow one after another, and are intimately connected; it is continuous, divisible *in infinitum*, and infinite. It is an INTUITION *à priori*, consequently universal and necessary. But the form of Internal Sense is a variety as above described. Therefore, TIME IS THE FORM OF INTERNAL SENSE. It is a Subjective Reality; has a larger sphere than Space; and has only one Dimension, namely, Duration.

8. SPACE is a variety in general whose parts lie one without and near another; i. e. co-exist; they are intimately connected. It is continuous, divisible *in infinitum*, and infinite. It is an INTUITION *à priori*; consequently universal and necessary. But the form of External Sense is a variety as above described; therefore SPACE IS THE FORM OF EXTERNAL SENSE. It is a subjective Reality, has a *smaller* sphere than time, and has three dimensions, *length, breadth, and height*.

9. PHENOMENON is another name for Intuition; it indicates that *intuitions* are merely APPEARANCES in time and space, and *not the things in themselves* as they exist independently of the operation of our faculties. For it is a fact, that the Mental activity exerted in forming an intuition is merely a RE-ACTION that takes place when we are affected by any external object, which *in itself* is called Noumenon.

10. NOUMENON is the Cause of the Phenomenon; or it is *the thing in itself* which is out of *Time and Space*, and of which we consequently know nothing.

11. PERCEPTION is also synonymous with Intuition; or, it is a representation of a thing of whose existence we are quite convinced; and in this respect it is opposed to *Conception*, which is a Representation of a thing of whose existence we are not convinced.

12. UNDERSTANDING, or SPONTANEITY, is the faculty to produce *mediate Representations*, or *Conceptions* which are abstracted from Intuitions. For this purpose it is furnished with 12 pure primitive and original Conceptions (called also Categories), which are the highest conceptions that can be formed, and under which it classes all the conceptions which it abstracts from intuitions.—It *judges immediately*, e. g. the grass is green; and finally, by uniting several representations into *One*, produces a unity of consciousness.

13. TO JUDGE is to apply a *Predicate* to a *Subject*. The Subject must always be an actual or possible Intuition, and the predicate a Conception; therefore, to judge is to comprehend an Intuition under a Conception: or a given variety under a unity.

14. CONCEPTION is a representation which refers *mediately* to its *object*, that is, by means of the intuitions from which it was produced; hence it is a representation that is common to many objects; i. e. a Universal Representation, or a Representation of a Representation. It is completely confined to Time and Space, for of things out of Time and Space we can have no conception.

15. TO THINK is to join one conception to another, which never amounts to Knowledge.

16. KNOWLEDGE is an *Intuition* joined to a *Conception*.

17. THE PERFECTIONS OF KNOWLEDGE are Truth, Clearness, and Universality.

18. IMAGINATION is a Spontaneity which acts blindly; F it



it has three powers, the *representative*, the *creative*, and the *retentive*.

19. The REPRESENTATIVE POWER of Imagination produces Intuitions.

20. The CREATIVE POWER produces new combinations from sensible materials.

21. The RETENTIVE POWER, or MEMORY, recalls to mind past objects by the *law of Association of Ideas*.

22. Reason is the highest degree of *Spontaneity*, the power which forms IDEAS; that is, it extends the conceptions of the understanding to absoluteness, or carries them beyond the limits of *Time* and *Space*; for this purpose it is furnished with *Six Primary and Original Ideas, formed out of the Categories of Understanding*, under which it classes all our *Knowledge*, and thus produces the greatest *Systematical Unity of Knowledge*. It judges *mediately* or by conclusion, deducing one judgment from another. It is the last test of TRUTH.

23. IDEA must be carefully distinguished both from *Conception* and *Intuition*. It is a Conception carried by Reason to absoluteness; and has nothing to do with Time and Space, consequently, it is not to be met with in experience; e. g. we have an Idea of God, the Soul, and a future state; but not the shadow of a *Conception* of any of these objects; much less can we pretend to have *Intuitions* of them. It is that which renders a conclusion possible.

24. CONCLUSION is a Judgment of Reason; it consists of *Predicate, Middle Term, and Subject*. Its highest proposition must be an *Idea*, or no conclusion is possible. It in-

fers from universals to particulars, a mode of inference which cannot err.

25. A PRIORI. All those objects which lie in the mind, antecedent to all representation, are *objects à priori*; also called *pure*. They are UNIVERSAL and NECESSARY; e. g. TIME and SPACE, 12 CATEGORIES, 6 IDEAS OF REASON.

26. A POSTERIORI. All those objects which do not lie in the Mind, but which come through the Senses, are *objects à posteriori*; also called *empirical*; e. g. every object of actual experience.

OBSERVATION. On analyzing *Perception, Conception, Thought, Knowledge, Judgment, and Reasoning*; we find that they consist of nothing but INTUITION, CONCEPTION, and IDEA, the products of Reason, Understanding, and Sense, variously compounded; for, what is Perception but an *External Intuition*? what Conception but the *form abstracted from Intuitions*? what is Thought but *one Conception joined to another*? and what indeed is Knowledge but an *Intuition joined to a Conception*? Lastly, what is Reasoning but an *Intuition comprehended under a Conception, and that Conception again under an Idea*; or the deducing one Judgment from another? Hence it is evident, that the ELEMENTS of every Perception, Conception, Knowledge, &c. may the very Elements of every thing that is cogitable, must be either INTUITION, CONCEPTION, or IDEA. It is on this account that the following Table is subjoined, as it is presumed that a thorough acquaintance with the Elements of Knowledge, may enable us to recognize them in their various Ramifications and Combinations.

TABLE  
OF THE  
ELEMENTS OF KNOWLEDGE.

AXIOM. All that MAN can KNOW, are Representations; but not the Objects which produce them.

GENUS.

REPRESENTATION IN GENERAL.

The Mind has a faculty to represent something to itself.

PROOF. The mind Thinks, i. e. it is active. Now there are only two ways possible, either to connect the objects of our thoughts or to create them. But the latter is absurd; therefore the Mind can only connect given matter into a Unity, which constitutes a Representation.

N. B. To Create, means to produce Something from Nothing, which is above human capacity. To Connect, means to give a form or unity to received materials; i. e. to produce a Whole.

SPECIES.

REPRESENTATION IN PARTICULAR.

I. INTUITION,	II. CONCEPTION,	III. IDEA,
1. is a Representation, where the MATTER is present. It includes the whole Sensible World; i. e. every thing which we can feel, see, hear, taste, or smell.	1. is a Representation, where the matter is absent. It is mere FORM abstracted from sensible things, and can be obtained in no other way.	1. is a Representation which is purely mental, and does not in the least partake of any thing sensible; for it is out of TIME and SPACE; i. e. it is <i>Supersensible</i> .
2. is produced by SENSE;	2. is produced by UNDERSTANDING;	2. is produced by REASON;
and arises immediately upon the receptivity being affected.	and arises mediately by means of Judgment.	and can only arise by means of a Syllogism.
3. is divisible into	3. is divisible into	3. is divisible into
EMPIRICAL:                      PURE:                      PURE:                      PURE:	EMPIRICAL:                      PURE:                      PURE:                      PURE:	EMPIRICAL:                      PURE:                      PURE:                      PURE:
i. e.                                      i. e.                                      i. e.                                      i. e.	i. e.                                      i. e.                                      i. e.                                      i. e.	i. e.                                      i. e.                                      i. e.                                      i. e.
External, Internal,      Time and Space in                      in Time and Time      themselves, which Space,                      are à priori, whose only.                      matter is Receiving in general, whose forms are the Modes of Re- ceiving, viz. 1. Succession; 2. Co-existence.	in Time, their matter is Intui- tion, to which they must all be reducible.	in Time, their matter is Con- ception, raised by Genus and Species to Ab- soluteness.
	the 12 Categories, which are out of Time and Space, and à priori, whose matter is Connec- tion in general, and whose forms are the 12 modes of connection.	the 6 Ideas, which are out of Time and Space, and à priori, whose matter is the Cate- gories, and whose forms are their connection into the 6 Unities.



PART I.

ELEMENTS OF PURE UNIVERSAL LOGIC.

Section I. OF CONCEPTIONS.

*Of Conception in general, and the difference between Conception and Intuition.*

1. All Knowledge, that is, all representations referred with consciousness to an object, are either *Intuitions* or *Conceptions*. An Intuition is an *individual* representation (representatio singularis). A Conception is a *universal* (representatio per notas communes) or a *reflective* representation (representatio discursiva). Knowledge consisting of Conceptions only, (without Intuitions,) is called **DISCURSIVE** or **HISTORICAL KNOWLEDGE**; for here we do not immediately refer our representations to the objects which produced them, but are content to take them upon the testimony of others.

*Remark (1.)* All union of *Conceptions*, without *Intuitions*, produces merely *Thought*; but never *Knowledge*, which absolutely requires the *Intuition*.

*Remark (2.)* *Conception* is opposed to *Intuition*; for it is a universal representation which is common to many objects. *Intuition*, on the other hand, is the *immediate* impression of a single thing. We can have no *Intuition* without *Sensation*, and no *Sensation* without the existence of some external body touching our senses. *Intuitions*, therefore, imply the existence of the external world.

(3.) It is mere tautology to talk of universal or common *Conceptions*. This fault arises from the improper division of *Conceptions* into *universal*, *particular*, and *singular*. The *Conceptions* themselves cannot be thus divided; this division regards only their use or application.

*Matter and Form of Conceptions.*

2. In every *Conception* there is to be distinguished *matter* and *form*. The *matter* of the *Conception* is its *object*, the *form* is its *universality*.

*Empirical and Pure Conceptions.*

3. A *Conception* is either *pure* or *empirical*. The former is that whose *matter* lies originally in the mind; the latter is that whose *matter* is derived from experience.

An **IDEA** is a *Conception* of Reason, whose object never can be found in experience.

*Remark (1.)* *Empirical Conceptions* spring from the senses by the comparison of objects of experience, and receive from the understanding merely the form of universality. The reality of these *Conceptions* rests upon actual experience. Whether there be *pure conceptions of understanding* which arise independently of all experience, it is the business of *Metaphysics* to investigate.

(2.) *Ideas* or *Conceptions* of Reason can never lead to real objects, because all real objects must be comprised in a *possible experience*. They serve, however, by means of Reason, to stimulate the understanding in experience, by showing that the objects we have experienced are not all that are possible, and that the principles of possibility do not apply to the things in themselves, nor to objects of experience as things in themselves, but merely as *phenomena*.

An *Idea* contains an *Archetype* of the use of understanding; for example, the *Idea* of the *Universe*, which is not necessary as a *constitutive* principle for the empirical use of understanding, but only as a *regulative* one, for the sake of its concatenation. An *Idea* is therefore to be considered as a necessary fundamental Principle of classification, either that it may be *objectively* completed, or considered as *unlimited*. Nor can an *Idea* be obtained by *composition*; for the whole is here considered before the parts. There are, however, *Ideas* which admit of approximation. This is the case with the *Mathematical Ideas*, which essentially differ from the *Dynamical*, which

are *heterogeneous*; the former differ only in quantity, but the latter in kind.

We can never give objective reality to *Theoretical Ideas*, or prove that they possess it; except indeed to the *Idea* of **LIBERTY**, and this only because it is the condition of the *Moral Law*, whose reality is an *axiom*. The reality of the *Idea* of **God** can never be demonstrated in a theoretical point of view; nor can it ever be got rid of in a *practical* one; for it would imply that there could be an *Effect* without a *Cause*.

*Given (à priori or à posteriori) and produced Conceptions.*

4. All *Conceptions*, with respect to their *matter*, are either given (*conceptus dati*), or produced (*conceptus factitii*). The former are either given *à priori* or *à posteriori*. All *Conceptions* given *à posteriori*, i. e. empirically, are *Experimental Conceptions*; those which are given *à priori*, are termed *notions*.

*Remark.* The form of a *Conception*, as a discursive representation, is always produced.

*Of the Logical Origin of Conceptions.*

5. The origin of *Conceptions*, as to mere *form*, rests upon *reflection*, and upon *abstraction* from the difference of things, which are denoted by certain representations. Hence the Question, What acts of Understanding are requisite to beget *Conceptions* from given representations?

*Remark (1.)* As *Universal Logic* abstracts from all matter of Knowledge and of Thought, it can consider a *Conception* only with respect to its form, that is, *Subjectively*; not how it, as a mark, determines an object, but merely as to its reference to several objects. *Universal Logic* does not enquire into the origin of *Conceptions*; nor how *Conceptions* arise as *Representations*; but merely how given *Representations* become *Conceptions* in our thoughts, whether these *Conceptions* contain something derived from experience, or imagined, or taken from the nature of Understanding. This logical origin of *Conceptions*, an origin as to mere *form*, consists in *reflection*, by which a representation common to several objects is produced. This form is requisite to Judgment. *Logic*, therefore, only considers the difference of reflection in *Conceptions*.

(2.) The origin of *Conceptions* with respect to their *Matter*, according to which a *Conception* is either *empirical*, *arbitrary*, or *intellectual*, is investigated in *Metaphysics*.

*Logical Acts of Comparison, Reflection, and Abstraction.*

6. The logical acts of Understanding which produce *Conceptions* with respect to their *form*, are,

(1.) *Comparison*, i. e. the comparing representations with one another, in reference to a unity of consciousness; i. e. discovering the difference of things.

(2.) *Reflection*, i. e. considering how different representations can be comprised in one consciousness, i. e. discovering the agreement of things; and lastly,

(3.) *Abstraction*, i. e. the exclusion of all that in which the given representations differ, or selecting all those marks which are found in each individual.

*Remark (1.)* In order to beget *Conceptions* from given *Representations*, we must be able to *compare*, to *reflect*, and to *abstract*; for these three logical operations of Understanding are the necessary and universal conditions of *Conception* in general. For instance, I see a fir, a willow, and a lime; first I *compare* these objects together, and I perceive that they differ from each other with respect to their trunks, their branches, their leaves, &c. I next *reflect* upon that in which they agree, or which is common to them, namely, a trunk, branches, and leaves. Lastly, I *abstract* from the size, figure, &c. of their different parts; and in this manner I obtain the *Conception* of a Tree.

(2.) The more differences of things are omitted in a *conception*, the more abstract it becomes; for example, if un-



der scarlet cloth I only think the red colour, I then abstract from the cloth; but, if I abstract from the red colour, and think scarlet as some material thing in general, my conception is by this means become *more abstract*. The conception *body* is properly no abstract conception; for, from body I cannot abstract any thing, or I should have no conception of it whatever; but I can abstract from the size, the hardness, the colour, the fluidity, &c. The most abstract conception is that which has nothing in common with others, and this is the conception of *Something*; for that which differs from it, is *Nothing*, and has consequently nothing in common with it.

(3.) Abstraction is only the *negative* condition under which the universal validity of representations can be produced. The *positive* are comparison and reflection. For by abstraction we do not obtain conceptions; it only perfects them, and confines them within determinate bounds.

#### Contents and Sphere of Conceptions.

7. Every Conception, considered as a partial Conception, is contained in the representation of the thing; but when considered as a ground of Knowledge, i. e. as a mark, the thing is contained *under* it. In the former respect every conception has *Contents*; in the latter, a *Sphere*. The Contents and Sphere of a conception are in an inverse ratio to each other. The more a conception contains *under* it, the less it has *in* it; or the more the *Contents* the smaller the *Sphere*, and conversely.

*Remark.* The universality or validity of a conception does not depend upon its being a *partial conception*, but on its being a *Ground of Knowledge*.

#### Extent of the Sphere of Conceptions.

8. The more things stand under a conception, and are thought by it, the greater is its sphere.

*Remark.* Thus, as we say of a *GROUND* in general, that it contains the *consequence* under it; so we may say of a conception, as a *ground of Knowledge*, that it contains all those things under it from which it was abstracted: for example, the conception *metal* contains under it gold, silver, copper, &c. For as every conception, as a universally-valid representation, contains that which is common to several representations of different things; thus all those things which in this respect are contained under it are representable by it. Indeed this constitutes the *utility* of a conception; for, the more things are represented by a conception, the larger is its sphere. For instance, the conception *body* has a larger sphere than the conception *metal*.

#### Superior and inferior Conceptions.

9. Conceptions are called *superior* when they have other conceptions under them, which in respect to the former are called *inferior*. A mark of a mark, or a remote mark, is a *superior* conception. The conception in reference to a remote mark is an *inferior* conception.

*Remark.* As conceptions are called Superior and Inferior only relatively, it follows that the same conception, in a different relation, may be at the same time Superior and Inferior; for example, the conception *Man* in relation to the conception *Negro*, is superior, but in relation to the conception *Animal*, inferior.

#### Genus and Species.

10. The superior conception, with respect to its inferior, is termed *Genus*; the inferior conception, with respect to its superior, *Species*. In the same manner as superior and inferior conceptions differ, so do consequently Genus and Species; not in their nature, but only with respect to their relation to one another in the logical subordination.

#### Highest Genus and lowest Species.

11. The *highest genus* is that which cannot be a species. The *lowest species* is that which cannot be a genus. But,

according to the law of continuity, there can never be a lowest species, nor a lowest but one.

*Remark.* If we form a series of subordinate conceptions, we must at last arrive at a Genus which is no longer a Species. For instance, Man, Animal, Creature, Object; which last is the highest possible genus, for it includes even the Idea of God himself, who is sometimes the object of our thoughts, and from this no further abstraction can be made, without all conception vanishing. But in this series no lowest conception, or species, is to be found, because such a one can never be determined. We may however admit of a comparatively-lowest conception by common consent, which implies that we have agreed not to investigate deeper. Hence the following rule: *There is a genus that can never become a species, but no species that cannot be again considered as a genus.*

#### Wider and narrower Conceptions.—Reciprocal Conceptions.

12. The superior conception is also termed a *wider conception*, the inferior a *narrower*. Conceptions having the same sphere are termed *reciprocal conceptions*.

#### Relation of inferior to superior, and of wider to narrower.

13. The inferior conception is not contained in the superior, for it contains more than the superior. But it is contained *under* it; because the superior contains the ground of knowledge of the inferior. Farther; one conception is not *wider* than another on account of its containing *more* under it, for this we cannot determine, but because it contains under it *the other conception*, and, besides this, *still more*.

#### Universal Rules for the Subordination of Conceptions.

14. With respect to the logical sphere of conceptions, we have the following Rules.

(1.) Whatever applies to or contradicts the superior conceptions, also applies to or contradicts all the inferior conceptions contained under them.

(2.) And conversely, whatever applies to or contradicts the inferior conceptions, also applies to or contradicts their superior conceptions.

*Remark.* Because that wherein things agree flows from their *universal* properties; and that wherein they differ from their *particular* properties. Thus we can never conclude that, what applies to or contradicts an inferior conception, also applies to or contradicts other inferior conceptions, which belong, together with it, to a higher conception. For instance, we cannot say, that what does not apply to men does not therefore apply to angels.

#### Of the arising of Superior and Inferior Conceptions.—Logical Abstraction and Logical Determination.

15. By continuing logical abstraction, higher and higher conceptions arise. By continuing logical determination, lower and lower conceptions arise. The greatest possible abstraction produces the highest or most abstract conception, from which no farther abstraction can be made. The most perfect determination would be a *thoroughly-determined conception*; that is, such a one to which no additional determinations can be thought.

*Remark.* As only single or individual things are thoroughly determined, consequently *thoroughly-determined Knowledge* can only be thought as *Intuition*, and not as *Conception*: for logical determination can never be completed in conceptions. (See Remark to 11.)

#### Use of Conceptions in the abstract and in the concrete.

16. Every conception can be used in the *universal* and in the *particular*; (*in abstracto et in concreto*.) In the abstract, the inferior conception is used with respect to its superior; in the concrete, the higher with respect to its inferior.

*Remark* (1.) The terms *abstract* and *concrete* do not relate to conceptions in themselves; for every conception is abstract;



THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

PHYSICS DEPARTMENT

PHYSICS 311

LECTURE 10

STATISTICAL MECHANICS

ENTROPY

THE CANONICAL ENSEMBLE

THE PARTITION FUNCTION

THE THERMODYNAMIC LIMIT

THE GIBBS PARADOX

THE GRAND CANONICAL ENSEMBLE

THE IDEAL GAS

THE VAN DER WAALS EQUATION

THE CRITICAL POINT

THE TRIPLE POINT







fract; but rather to their use; and this use may have different degrees; that is, we may treat a conception as having more or fewer determinations. By abstraction we ascend towards the conception of the *highest genus*; in the concrete we approach the individual.

2. We cannot decide whether *abstraction* or *concretion* has the preference in point of use. For by abstract conceptions we determine *many things a little*; by concrete conceptions we determine *a few things much*. Consequently, what we gain on the one hand we lose on the other. A conception which has a large sphere is so far useful, that we can apply it to *many things*; but on that very account it contains so much the *less*. The conception *Substance*, for instance, does not contain so much as the conception *Chalk*.

3. To hit the proportion between the representation in the abstract and in the concrete in the same Knowledge, consequently between the conception and its exposition, is to obtain the *maximum* of Knowledge, both with respect to its sphere and contents. In this point also consists the art of Popularity.

Section II. OF JUDGMENTS.

Definition of Judgment in general.

17. Judgment consists of three parts; *Subject, Predicate, and Copula*. First, the *Subject* is the thing spoken of; secondly, the *Predicate* is something affirmed or denied of the subject; and thirdly, the *Copula* is the verb or word which joins the subject and predicate together. To judge is to comprehend a variety under a unity, or an intuition under a conception, e. g. Man is an Animal. Here the intuition Man is comprehended under the conception Animal. Judgments of understanding are immediately clear in our consciousness, e. g. the grass is green.

Remark. As it is not the business of Logic to enquire into the origin of our conceptions, but merely to investigate the relations they stand in one to another, it is evident that this science is nothing but *Dogmatical Philosophy*, which every where terminates in *unintelligibility*; for the very essence of *Dogmatism* is, that it does not search to the bottom for TRUTH; but is content to assume things, and consider them True. A thing may, for instance, be *logically possible*, but *really impossible*: thus, a space enclosed by two lines may be thought, though we know that two lines cannot enclose a space. Hence LOGIC has performed its duty when it has shown what relations our represen-

tations stand in to one another, or that there is no contradiction in our thoughts; and this may be termed *Criticising the Form of Knowledge*. But a much more important Duty remains to be performed, and that is to *Criticise the Matter of Knowledge*. This must be performed by TRANSCENDENTAL PHILOSOPHY, the only science that is fully competent to show whether our Knowledge in point of MATTER be intelligible, and whether it be sound and good Knowledge; or unintelligible, and mere speculation. —See *Critical Philosophy*, under KANT, vol. xi. and the article METAPHYSICS.

Matter and Form of Judgments.

18. Matter and Form are the essential constituents of every Judgment. The matter consists of the *given representations*, connected in the Judgment; the form in the determination of the mode how the various representations are connected.

Remark (1.) As the whole real and cogitable world consists only of three Things; namely, INTUITION, CONCEPTION, and IDEA; it is evident that all our Thoughts, Knowledge, and Judgments, can arise from nothing else but the combination of these three elements. In order therefore to obtain real Knowledge, it is absolutely necessary to have an intuition united to a conception; that is to say, that the Subject in the Judgment should be an Intuition, and the Predicate a Conception; e. g. This tree (at which I am now looking, see Def. 5.) is an oak.

(2.) If a Judgment is to terminate in mere thought, it is only necessary to have one conception united to another. This is mere speculation, and never amounts to Knowledge.

(3.) If one Idea is joined to another in a Judgment, it is evident that the result can only be an Idea. But, as an Idea (see Def. 23) has nothing to do with Time and Space, it is evidently out of the limits of experience and of all Knowledge; consequently, such a Judgment can be only mere Speculation.

Object of logical Reflection; i. e. the mere Form of Judgment.

19. As Logic abstracts from all real or objective Knowledge; it can neither concern itself with the matter of a Judgment, nor with the contents of a conception. It has therefore solely to show the difference of Judgments with respect to their mere form. Which may be thus exhibited at one view.

JUDGMENTS OF UNDERSTANDING.

Quantity.	Quality.	Relation.	Modality.
Singular,	Affirmative,	Categorical,	Problematical,
Particular,	Negative,	Hypothetical,	Affertorical,
Universal.	Infinite.	Disjunctive.	Apodictical.

I must now prove the completeness of this Classification; that is, show that it is neither *redundant* nor *deficient*. First, if we judge of any thing, we must either affirm or deny, or deny infinitely; and no other case is possible. This regards Judgments of *Quality*. Secondly, we can only affirm or deny with respect to the properties of a thing, the effects of a thing, or the parts of a whole; and no other case is possible. This respects *Relation*. Thirdly, we must either affirm or deny something of one thing, or of many, or of all; and no other case is possible. This regards *Quantity*. Fourthly, with respect to *Modality*; the thing judged of must be either possible, actual, or necessary; and here also no other case is possible. Hence it may be inferred that this classification is quite complete; for it is out of the power of any one to add another class; and if one be taken away the whole is destroyed.

Every Judgment must stand under the four classes of Quantity, Quality, Relation, and Modality, at the same time.

20. This may be elucidated in the following judgment, *The Bird sings*; this is a singular, affirmative, hy-

pothetical, judgment, with apodictical certainty. First it is considered under *Quantity*, as singular; *This bird sings*. Secondly under *Quality*, as affirmative; for we affirm of the Bird that it sings. Thirdly, under *Relation*, as hypothetical; for *Singing is an effect* produced by the bird. And, lastly, it is considered under *Modality*, as apodictical, or as a judgment of the greatest degree of certainty; for I have the testimony of my senses that the bird *actually sings*.

Quantity of Judgments; Universal, Particular, and Singular.

21. Judgments are, with respect to Quantity, either *Universal, Particular, or Singular*. The Universal unite a whole species to a conception; for instance, *All animals have life*. The Particular add a part or many; for instance, *Some men are learned*. The Singular add one individual thing; as, *Newton is the inventor of fluxions*.

Quality of Judgments; Affirmative, Negative, and Infinite.

22. Judgments according to Quality are affirmative, negative, or infinite. In affirmative Judgments the sub-



ject is thought as contained within the sphere of the predicate; in *negative*, it is placed out of the sphere of the predicate; and in *infinite*, the subject lies somewhere out of the sphere of the predicate, in an infinite sphere. These Judgments either add or exclude qualities or properties to or from a thing, and improve our Knowledge; for by affirming I increase my knowledge, by negating I purify it. They may also be either universal, particular, or singular.

*Relation of Judgments; Categorical, Hypothetical, and Disjunctive.*

23. According to Relation, Judgments are either categorical, hypothetical, or disjunctive. Here the given representations are one subordinated to the other, either as *Predicate to the Subject*, as *Consequence to the Ground*, or as *Members of Division to the Conception divided*. The Categorical adds qualities to an Intuition, the hypothetical adds effects, and the disjunctive adds parts to a whole, and may be affirmative or negative; universal, particular, or singular.

*Categorical Judgments.*

24. The *subject* and *predicate* in Categorical judgments constitute their *matter*. And the Relation between the *subject* and *predicate*, i. e. their agreement or contradiction, constitutes the *form*, and is determined by the *Copula*.

*Remark.* Categorical judgments indeed constitute the *matter* of both hypothetical and disjunctive; but they must not on that account be confounded with them. Nor must we think, as many logicians have done, that they are only different modifications of the Categorical, and consequently reducible to it. These three kinds of Judgment depend upon *essentially-different* logical functions, and must therefore be treated of separately.

*Hypothetical Judgments.*

25. The *Matter* of Hypothetical Judgments consists of two Judgments which are connected to one another as *ground* and *consequence*. The one of these judgments, which contains the ground, is the *antecedent*; the other, which is related to the former, the *consequent*; and the representation of this kind of connection of both judgments under one another to a unity of consciousness is termed the *consequence*, which constitutes the *form* of an hypothetical judgment.

*Remark* (1.) As the *Copula*, in a Categorical Judgment, constitutes its form, so does the *Consequence* in a Hypothetical Judgment.

(2.) It has been thought easy to change a Hypothetical into a Categorical Position; but this cannot be done, for they are in their nature entirely different. In the *Categorical* there is nothing *Problematical*, but every thing is *Affertorical*. Whereas in the Hypothetical the *Consequence only is Affertorical*. In the latter I may therefore connect *two false judgments* with one another; for *Logic* merely concerns itself with the correctness of the connection which constitutes the *form*, and is the *consequence* upon which the logical (or formal) truth of this judgment depends. There is an essential difference in the two positions: *All bodies are divisible*, and *If all bodies are composed then they are divisible*. In the former position, I maintain the thing *absolutely*; in the latter, only *problematically*, under a certain condition.

*Manner of Connection in Hypothetical Judgments; Modus ponens, and Modus tollens.*

26. The form of connection in hypothetical Judgments is two-fold. The *placing* (modus ponens), or the *taking away* (modus tollens.)

(1.) If the *Antecedent* be true, then the *Consequence* is also true, that is determined by it; and this is called the *modus ponens*.

(2.) If the *Consequence* be false, then the *Antecedent* is also false; and this is called the *modus tollens*.

*Disjunctive Judgments.*

27. A Judgment is *Disjunctive*, when the parts of the sphere of a given conception determine one another, as parts of a whole, or are considered as complements to a whole.

*Matter and Form of Disjunctive Judgments.*

28. The several given judgments of which the *disjunctive judgment* is composed, constitute its *matter*, and are called *members of disjunction* or *opposition*. The *form* of these judgments consists in the *disjunction itself*; that is, in the determination of the relation of the several judgments, as members of the whole sphere of a divided knowledge, mutually exclude each other or complete each other.

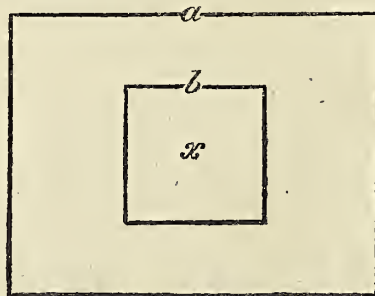
*Remark.* All disjunctive judgments therefore represent various judgments as *united in one sphere*; and each judgment is only produced by means of the limitation of the others with regard to the entire sphere. They determine therefore the *relation* of each judgment to the whole sphere; and thereby, at the same time, the relation which these disjunctive members have to one another. One member therefore determines every other only so far as they jointly stand in connection as parts of a whole sphere of knowledge, *out of which, in a certain reference, nothing can be thought*.

*Peculiar Character of Disjunctive Judgments.*

29. The peculiar character of Disjunctive Judgments, whereby they specifically differ from all other, and particularly from Categorical, consists in this, that the members of disjunction are altogether *problematical* judgments, of which nothing else can be thought, but that they, as parts of a sphere of knowledge, are each the others complement to a whole; and, taken all together, are equal to the sphere of the whole. Hence it follows, that in one of these problematical judgments the truth must be contained; or, which is the same thing, that *one of them must be assertorical*; because the sphere of the whole knowledge under the given conditions, comprehending nothing more than these members of disjunction, and they being opposed to one another, *one of them only can be True*.

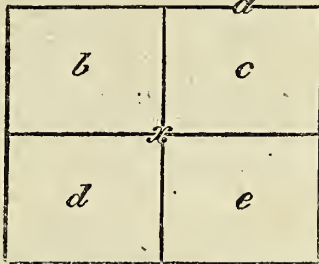
*Remark.* In a *categorical* judgment, the thing whose representation is considered as a part of the sphere of another representation, is thought as being contained under this, its superior conception; consequently we here compare, in the subordination of the spheres, the part of a part with the whole. But in *Disjunctive* Judgments we proceed from the whole to all the parts together. What is contained under the sphere of a conception, must be contained under some one of the parts of this sphere. Agreeably to this, the sphere must be arranged. If I, for instance, form the following Disjunctive judgment; *A learned man is either an Historian or a Philosopher*; I thereby determine that these conceptions complete the sphere of learned; but are by no means parts of one another. The comparison between *Categorical* and *Disjunctive* judgments, may be rendered intuitive, thus,

In the *Categorical* Judgment, *Kant is Mortal*; let  $x$  represent the intuition *Kant*; this is contained under  $b$ , which represents the Conception *Man*; and this again is contained under  $a$ , which represents the Conception *Mortal*;





In the *Disjunctive* Judgment, Kant is either an *European*, an *Asiatic*, an *African*, or an *American*; let *x* represent the intuition Kant; let *a* represent the whole sphere of the Conception under consideration, namely, the world; and *b, c, d, e*, the members of Disjunction. Hence, as *x* is contained under *a*, it must consequently be found either in *b, c, d*, or *e*, which taken together complete the sphere of *a*.



Thus in *Disjunctive* Judgments, we think *many things* by one Conception; and in *Categorical* we think *one thing* by many Conceptions.

*Modality of Judgments, Problematical, Assertorical, and Apodictical.*

30. According to Modality, which determines the relation of the Judgment to the Knowing Faculty, Judgments are either Problematical, Assertorical, or Apodictical; the *Problematical* are accompanied with the consciousness of the mere *Possibility*; the *Assertorical* with the consciousness of the *Actuality*; and the *Apodictical* with the consciousness of the *Necessity* of the Judgment.

*Remark (1.)* Modality of Judgments, therefore, only shows the manner how, in any Judgment, something is either affirmed or denied; that is, in what manner we maintain the truth or falsehood of a Judgment. For instance, in the Judgment, *The Soul of man MAY be immortal*; the truth is here only *Problematically* determined, that it is possible. In the Judgment, *The Soul is immortal*; it is *Assertorically* determined, that it is actually so. In the Judgment, *The Soul MUST be immortal*; it is *Apodictically* determined that it must of necessity be so. This determination of the *possible*, the *actual*, and the *necessary*, *truth*, concerns therefore the judgment itself, and by no means the thing judged of.

(2.) Upon the difference between *Problematical* and *Assertorical* judgments, rests the true difference between *Judgments* and *Propositions*. These terms have hitherto been confounded. In a *Judgment*, is thought the relation of various representations to a unity of consciousness, but only *Problematically*. In a *Proposition*, this relation is thought *Assertorically*. A problematical proposition is a contradiction in terms; for before I obtain a proposition I must first of all judge, which I do in many cases without proving my judgment. But to establish a proposition I must prove my judgment. It is good to judge problematically before we determine a judgment *Assertorically*; indeed it is not always necessary to our purpose to have assertorical judgments.

*Exponible Judgments.*

31. Judgments, in which an affirmation and a negation are contained at the same time, but in a concealed manner, so that the affirmation is indeed evident, but the negation concealed; are *exponible* propositions.

*Remark.* In the *exponible* judgment, for instance, *Few men are learned*, lies, *first*, but in a concealed manner, the negative judgment, *Many men are not learned*; *secondly*, the affirmative, *Some men are learned*. As the nature of *exponible* propositions wholly depends upon the conditions of speech, which enables us to express in a concise manner two judgments at once; it is to be remarked, that, from the nature of language, many judgments occur which must be explained in grammar, and not in logic.

*Theoretical and Practical Propositions.*

32. A *Theoretical* proposition is that which refers to an object; and determines what does, or does not, belong to it. A *Practical* proposition, that which expresses the action as a necessary condition, whereby an object is possible.

*Remark.* Logic has only to treat of *Practical* propositions with respect to their *Form*, which are so far opposed to *Theoretical*. *Practical* propositions, with regard to their *matter*, belong to *morals*; and must again be distinguished from *Speculative*.

*Indemonstrable and Demonstrable Propositions.*

33. *Demonstrable* propositions are those which are capable of proof; *Indemonstrable*, those which are incapable of proof: the latter are also called *immediately-certain*, and therefore considered as *Elementary* propositions.

*Principles.*

34. *Immediately-certain* judgments *a priori* may be called *Principles*, when other judgments can be deduced from them, but no others substituted for them. They may on this account be called *Elements*.

*Intuitive and Discursive Principles, or Axioms and Acroams.*

35. *Principles* are either *intuitive* or *discursive*. The former can be viewed in the *intuition*, and are called *AXIOMS*; the latter can only be expressed by *conceptions*, and may be called *ACROAMS*.

*Analytic and Synthetic Propositions.*

36. *Analytic* propositions are such, whose certainty rests upon the *Identity* of their *conceptions* (i. e. of the predicate with the notion of the subject); e. g. *All bodies are extended*. For take away the predicate *extended*, and the whole vanishes. Propositions whose truth is not grounded upon the identity of conceptions, must be termed *Synthetic* propositions; e. g. *All bodies attract*. Take away the predicate *attract*, and the body still remains.

*Remark (1.)* *Synthetic* propositions increase our knowledge in point of *matter*; *analytical* improve it in point of *form*.

(2.) *Analytical* principles are *not Axioms*, for they are *discursive*. And *Synthetic* principles are only then *Axioms* when they are *intuitive*.

*Tautological Propositions.*

37. The *Identity* of *Conceptions* in *Analytical* Judgments may be either *explained* or *implied*. In the former case they are *Tautological Propositions*.

*Remark (1.)* *Tautological* propositions are virtually empty, for nothing can be deduced from them, they are therefore without use or advantage. This is the case, for instance, in the *tautological* proposition, *Man is Man*; for, by saying *Man is man*, I do not increase my Knowledge of man. *Implied* identical propositions are not virtually-empty, for they make the predicate clear, that is implied in the conception of the subject.

(2.) *Virtually-empty* propositions must be distinguished from *senseless*; the latter want intelligibility, because they concern the determination of *Occult Qualities*.

*Postulates and Problems.*

38. *Postulates* are *immediately-certain* practical propositions or principles, that determine possible actions; implying the manner of performing them with *immediate certainty*. *Problems* are *demonstrable* propositions requiring further direction; and expressing an action whose manner of performance is *not immediately certain*.

*Remark (1.)* There may be *Theoretical* *Postulates* for the advantage of *Practical Reason*. These are *theoretical* in a *practical point of view*, that is, necessary *Hypotheses*; for instance, *The existence of God*; *The Freedom of the will*; *A Future State*; &c.



(2.) To *Problems* belong, 1st, the *Question*, which contains what is to be done; 2dly, the *Solution*, which contains directions how the proposed thing can be done; and, 3dly, the *Demonstration*, which shows that, when we have proceeded according to the Directions, the Problem will be solved.

*Theorems, Corollaries, Lemmata, and Scholia.*

39. *Theorems*, are theoretical propositions, capable of, and requiring, proof. *Corollaries* are immediate consequences from preceding propositions. *Lemmata* are propositions borrowed from other sciences; with the presupposition that they have been demonstrated in the science to which they naturally belong. *Scholia* are merely explanatory propositions, which do not therefore constitute any part of the system.

*Remark.* The essential parts of every *Theorem* are the *Thesis* and *Demonstration*. We may remark a farther difference between *Theorems* and *Corollaries*; namely, that the latter are immediately concluded; whereas the former are inferred by a series of consequences from immediately-certain propositions.

*Judgments of Apprehension and of Experience.*

40. A judgment of *Apprehension* is merely *subjective*. But an *objective* judgment from *Apprehension*, is a judgment of *Experience*.

*Remark.* A Judgment from mere *Apprehension* is not easily possible; for here I contemplate my object without affirming or denying; for instance, if I think of a *Tower*, and think it *red*, I cannot affirm that it is *red*. The following judgment is a Judgment of *Apprehension*: *On touching a stone, I FEEL it warm*; and, if I assert that *the stone is warm*, this is an experimental Judgment. But we must be particularly careful in *experimental* Judgments not to attribute to the *object* what belongs merely to the *subject*.

### Section III. Of CONCLUSIONS.

*Conclusion in general.*

41. By *conclusion* is meant that act of thinking by which one judgment is deduced from another. A *conclusion in general* is therefore the deducing one judgment from another.

*Immediate and Mediate Conclusions.*

42. All conclusions are either *Immediate* or *Mediate*. An *immediate* conclusion is the deduction of one judgment from another, without the help of an intermediate judgment. A *mediate* conclusion is one which, besides the conception involved in the judgment, still requires others in order to deduce a consequence.

*Conclusions of Understanding, of Reason, and of Judgment.*

43. *Immediate* conclusions are also called *Conclusions of Understanding*. All *mediate* conclusions are either *Conclusions of Reason* or *Conclusions of Judgment*. We shall first treat of the *immediate*, or *Conclusions of Understanding*.

#### I. CONCLUSIONS OF UNDERSTANDING. See Plate II.

*Peculiar Nature of Conclusions of Understanding.*

44. The essential characteristic of all *immediate conclusions*, and the principle of their possibility, consists in this, that the mere *FORM* of *Judgment* undergoes a change, whilst the *matter* of the Judgment, that is, the *Subject* and *Predicate*, remain unchanged.

*Remark.* *Immediate* conclusions essentially differ from *mediate*. In the former the *form* only is changed; in the latter the *matter* is altered, for, in order to deduce a consequence, we add a new conception as a *middle term*. When I, for instance, conclude thus; *All men are mortal, therefore Kant is mortal*; this is no *immediate* conclusion, but is only possible by means of the intermediate conception, *Kant is a Man*; but, by the introduction of this new conception, the *matter* of the judgment is increased.

*Modes of Conclusions of Understanding.*

45. The conclusions of Understanding proceed through

all the classes of the logical functions of Judgment. They are consequently determined by *Quantity*, *Quality*, *Relation*, and *Modality*.

1. *Conclusions of Understanding as to QUANTITY; i. e. by SUBALTERNATE JUDGMENTS.*

46. In conclusions of understanding, *per judicium subalterna*, both judgments differ as to *Quantity*. Hence the *Particular* judgment is deduced from the *Universal* upon the following principle; *From the Universal to the Particular the conclusion is valid*.

*Remark.* A Judgment is termed *subalternate* when it is contained under another, as *particular under universal*.

2. *Conclusions of Understanding as to QUALITY; i. e. by Judgments OF OPPOSITION.*

47. Conclusions of understanding of this kind differ as to *Quality*, and may be considered in respect to their *opposition*, which is indeed threefold. In the first, the judgments are *Contradictorily opposed*; in the second, *Contrarily opposed*; and, in the third, *Subcontrarily opposed*.

*Remark.* Conclusions of Understanding by *equivalent* judgments are properly speaking not conclusions, for no consequences follow from them. They may rather be considered as a mere substitution of words which denote the same conception. For instance; *Not all men are virtuous*, and *Some men are not virtuous*. Both which express the same thing.

a, *Conclusions of Understanding from CONTRADICTORILY-OPPOSED Judgments.*

48. In judgments of understanding that are *contradictorily opposed*, which constitutes *real opposition*, the truth of one judgment is concluded from the *falsehood* of the other, and conversely. This takes place upon the principle of the *excluded third*. Viz. Two *contradictory* judgments cannot both be true; nor can they both be false, since a third judgment is impossible; consequently, when one is true, the other is false, and conversely.

b, *Conclusions of Understanding from CONTRARILY-OPPOSED Judgments.*

49. In *contrarily-opposed* judgments, one is universally affirmative, the other is universally negative. Now one of them expresses more than the other; and, as the *falsehood* may lie in the excess of the one beyond the mere negation in the other, they cannot both be true, but may both be false. With respect to these judgments, therefore, we conclude, *from the truth of the one, the falsehood of the other*; but not conversely.

c, *Conclusions of Understanding from SUBCONTRARILY-OPPOSED Judgments.*

50. In *subcontrarily-opposed* judgments, the one particularly affirms what the other particularly denies. As both may be true, but both cannot be false, we have the following conclusion, *that, when one of these positions is false, the other is true*; but not conversely.

*Remark.* In *subcontrarily-opposed* judgments, no *real* opposition takes place; for instance, in the following conclusion: *Some men are learned, consequently some men are not learned*. For what is affirmed of some men in the first judgment, is not denied of the same men in the second.

3. *Conclusions of Understanding as to RELATION; i. e. by CONVERSION of Judgments.*

51. *Immediate* conclusions by *Conversion* concern the Relation of Judgments, and consist in the *transposition* of *subject* and *predicate*; so that the subject in the one judgment becomes the predicate in the other, and conversely; e. g. *Some Men are learned, therefore some learned are men*.

*Pure and Altered Conversion.*

52. By *transposition*, the *Quantity* of a Judgment is either *altered*, or it remains *the same*. In the former case, the conversion is called an *altered* one, (*conversio per accidens*;) 2



# LOGIC.

## CONCLUSIONS OF UNDERSTANDING,

are

IMMEDIATE INFERENCES *and require no MIDDLE TERM:*

*the Matter of these judgments remains the same; the Form, only, is Changed.*

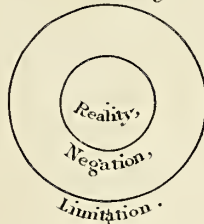
*they arise from*

*the CATEGORIES of*

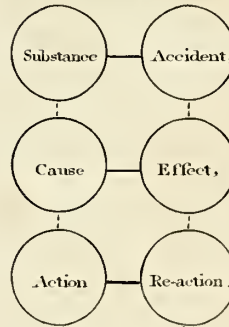
Quantity,



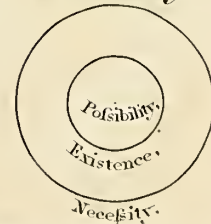
Quality,



Relation,



Modality.



Subalternation.

Opposition.

Conversion.

Contraposition.

<sup>1</sup>  
*Contradictory.*

<sup>2</sup>  
*Contrary.*

<sup>3</sup>  
*Subcontrary.*

*The particular is deduced from the Universal.*

<sup>1</sup>  
*The Excluded Third. The Truth of one proves the falshood of the other, and Conversely.*

*The Subject in one becomes the Predicate in the other and Conversely.*

*The Quantity remains the same, the Quality is altered.*

<sup>2</sup>  
*The Truth of one proves the falshood of the other, but not Conversely.*

<sup>3</sup>  
*The falshood of one proves the truth of the other, but not Conversely.*











## CONCLUSIONS OF REASON,

*arise from the*

CATEGORIES of RELATION,

*and are*



*These increase the Matter of the Judgment, by the introduction of a*

MIDDLE - TERM.

Predicate.....*all Men are* MORTAL.

M.P.....*Major*

Middle-term.....*Kant is a* MAN.

S.M.....*Minor*

Subject.....KANT *is mortal*.

S.P.....*Conclusion*



*These have no Middle-term The Major is an hypothetical proposition, containing Antecedent and Consequent The Conclusion takes place, merely by Changing a Problematical condition into an Assertorical proposition.*



*These have no Middle-term The Major is a disjunctive proposition and must, therefore, have members of division, they conclude either, from the truth of one member, the falshood of all the rest, or, from the falshood of all the members except one, the truth of that one.*



idens;) in the latter it is termed *pure*, (conversio simpliciter talis.)

*General Rules of Conversion.*

53. With respect to conclusions of understanding by *Conversion*; we have the following rules.

1. *Universal-affirmative* judgments admit only of *altered conversion*; for the *predicate* in these judgments is the wider conception, and there is consequently only a part of it contained in the *subject*.

2. All *universal-negative* judgments admit of *pure conversion*; for by negation the *subject* is placed out of the sphere of the *predicate*.

3. All *particular-affirmative* judgments admit of *pure conversion*; for here a part of the sphere of the *subject* is classed under the *predicate*; consequently a part of the sphere of the predicate admits of being ranked under the *subject*.

*Remark (1.)* In *universal-affirmative* judgments, the *subject* is contained under the sphere of the *predicate*. We ought, therefore, for instance, to conclude thus; *All men are Mortal; therefore some of those beings who are mortal are Men*. The reason why *universal negative* judgments admit of *pure conversion* is, that two conceptions universally contradicting each other contradict themselves in equal extent.

(2.) Many *universal-affirmative* judgments admit indeed of *pure conversion*; the ground of this does not lie in the *form*, but in the particular quality of the *matter* of them. As for instance, *All that is unalterable is necessary, and all that is necessary is unalterable*.

4. *Conclusions of Understanding as to MODALITY; i. e. by CONTRAPOSITION of Judgments.*

54. *Immediate conclusion* by contraposition consists in that transposition whereby merely the *Quality* of the judgment is altered, but the *Quantity* remains the same. They concern only the *Modality* of judgments, since they change an *Affertorical* into an *Apodictical*.

*General Rule of Contraposition.*

55. All *universal-affirmative* judgments admit of *pure contraposition*. For if the *predicate*, as that which contains the *Subject* under it, be negated; then, as the whole sphere is negated, so must also a part of it, namely, the *Subject*, be negated.

*Remark.* The transposition of Judgments by *conversion* and *contraposition* are so far opposed to each other, that the former merely change the *Quantity*, the latter the *Quality*. This refers only to *Categorical Judgments*.

II. CONCLUSIONS OF REASON. See Plate III.

*Rational Conclusions in General.*

56. A *Rational Conclusion* is the knowledge of the *Necessity* of a *proposition*, in consequence of its condition ranking under a *Universal Rule*.

*Universal Principle of all Rational Conclusions.*

57. The universal principle, upon which the truth of all conclusion by Reason rests, may be thus formally expressed: *What stands under the Condition of a Rule, stands also under the Rule itself.*

*Remark.* A *Rational Conclusion* premises a *Universal Rule*, and a *subsumption* under the condition of the rule. Thus we obtain the *conclusion à priori*. For, that the individual stands under the universal, and is determinable by it, is precisely the principle of *Rationality* or of *Necessity*.

*Essential Constituents of all Conclusions of Reason.*

58. Every *Rational Conclusion* contains the three following parts.

1. A *Universal Rule*, which is called the *Major proposition*;

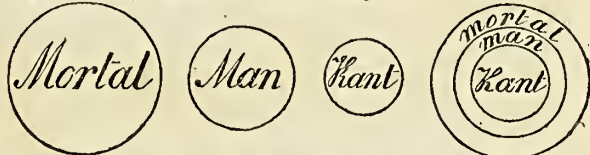
2. The *proposition* which ranks a knowledge under the condition of a universal rule, and is called the *Minor proposition*;

3. The *proposition* which applies, affirmatively or negatively, the *predicate* of the rule to the subsumpted knowledge; and is called the *Conclusion*.

The two former propositions in their connection with each other are termed the *Premises*.

*Remark (1.)* The above explanation is merely *logical*, but yet strictly correct; for it states that each conclusion consists of three distinct Judgments. In the *MAJOR* are compared the *Predicate* and the *Middle-term*; in the *MINOR* the *Subject* and the *Middle-term*; and in the *CONCLUSION* the *Subject* and the *Predicate*. It must however never be forgotten, that *Logic* is only a *Dogmatical Science*, which is content to assume things and take them as true; (see *Remark* to No 1.) It may therefore throw some light on this important subject to pursue the examination of *Conclusion* to its *real essence*: (see vol. xi. p. 613.) The general nature of a *Conclusion* is that it consists of three judgments; but, as every judgment comprehends a represented *variety* in a *Conception*, a conclusion will consist of three conceptions. Thus it comprehends an *intuition* under a *conception*, and a *conception* under a *higher conception*; arranging what is particular under what is general. For instance, *All men are mortal; Kant is a man*; therefore *Kant is mortal*. The sphere of the conception *Mortal* is the largest; *Man* is the next in extent, and is comprehended in the former; and the intuition *Kant* is contained in the conception *Man*. The highest conception under which the others are arranged must be strictly universal; that is, it must be an *IDEA*, otherwise no *Conclusion* is possible. Thus it will be evident, that, where the *predicate* in a Judgment does not immediately apply to the *subject*, it is not a *Judgment of Understanding*, but a *Judgment of Reason*, and requires a middle term, as the following figures may illustrate.

Predicate. Middle Term. Subject.



(2.) A *Rule* is an *assertion* under a *universal condition*. The relation of the condition to the assertion, namely, how the latter stands under the former, is the *Explanation* of the *Rule*. The knowledge that there is a condition is the *Subsumption*. The connection, of that which has been subsumpted under the condition, with the assertion of the *Rule*, is the *Conclusion*.

*Matter and Form of Conclusions of Reason.*

59. The *Matter* of a *Rational Conclusion* consists in the *Premises*; the *Form* in the *Conclusion*, in as much as it contains the *Consequence*.

*Remark (1.)* In a *Rational Conclusion* we must first prove the *truth* of the *premises*, and then the *correctness* of the *consequence*. We must never reject a rational inference, till we have found reason to reject either the *premises* or the *consequence*.

(2.) In every *Rational Conclusion*, the conclusion itself is given as soon as the premises and consequence are given.

*Division of Conclusions of Reason into CATEGORICAL, HYPOTHETICAL, and DISJUNCTIVE.*

60. As *Conclusions of Reason* can only regard the relations of things, it is easy to determine that there are but three classes of conclusions possible, under the head *Relation*, (see the *TABLE* of *JUDGMENTS*;) namely, the *Categorical*, the *Hypothetical*, and the *Disjunctive*. All rules (judgments) contain a variety connected into an objective unity of *Consciousness*; consequently, a condition under which one knowledge is connected with another in our consciousness. Now there are only three possible conditions of this unity. Either a knowledge must be the *subject* of the inherence of its marks; or one know-



ledge must be the *ground* of the dependence of another upon it; or, lastly, it must regard the connection of the parts into a whole; a *logical division*. Hence there can only be three sorts of Universal Rules, that is, *major propositions*, by which one judgment can be deduced from another.

*Remark (1.)* Rational conclusions cannot be distinguished according to *Quantity*, for every *major* is a Rule, consequently *Universal*; nor with respect to *Quality*, for it is indifferent whether they *affirm* or *deny*; nor, lastly, with respect to *Modality*, for the consequence is always accompanied with the consciousness of *Necessity*, and has the dignity of an apodictical proposition. It must be evident, therefore, that *RELATION* is the only possible ground of division of Rational Conclusions.

(2.) Some logicians have considered the *Categorical* Conclusions of Reason as the only *legitimate* ones; the other two as *illegitimate*. But this is extremely erroneous; for all *three* are equally correct, and essentially-different Functions of Reason.

*Peculiar Difference of CATEGORICAL, HYPOTHETICAL, and DISJUNCTIVE, Conclusions of Reason.*

61. The difference in the three sorts of Conclusions of Reason lies in the *Major proposition*. In *Categorical* conclusions, the major is a Categorical proposition; in *Hypothetical*, it is an Hypothetical or Problematical proposition; and, in *Disjunctive*, it is a Disjunctive proposition.

#### I. Categorical Conclusions of Reason.

62. In every Categorical Conclusion of Reason, there are *three principal Conceptions*, (termini;) namely.

1. The *Predicate* in the conclusion, which is called *Terminus major*, because it has a larger sphere than the subject;

2. The *Subject* in the conclusion, which is called *Terminus minor*; and,

3. An *intermediate conception*, which is called the *middle term*, because, by means of it, a certain knowledge is ranked under the condition of the rule.

*Remark.* The above-mentioned difference in terms occurs only in *Categorical Conclusions of Reason*; for these are the only ones that conclude by means of a *middle term*: the others by a proposition being represented *Problematically* in the major, and *Affertorically* in the minor.

#### Principle of Categorical Conclusions of Reason.

63. The principle upon which the possibility and validity of all *Categorical Conclusions of Reason* rests is this: *What applies to the mark of a thing, applies also to the thing itself; What contradicts the mark of a thing, contradicts also the thing itself.* (Nota notæ est nota rei ipsius; repugnans notæ, repugnat rei ipsi.)

*Remark.* From the preceding principle is easily derived the well-known rule of *Dictum de omni et nullo*; but, for that very reason, it cannot be the highest principle for rational conclusions in general, nor for categorical in particular. *Genus* and *Species* are universal marks for all those things which stand under them. Hence the following Rule: *What applies to or contradicts a Genus or a Species, that also applies to or contradicts all those objects which stand under that Genus or Species*; and this is the rule called the *Dictum de omni et nullo*.

#### Rules for Categorical Conclusions of Reason.

64. From the nature and principle of Categorical Conclusions of Reason, flow the following Rules.

1. In every Categorical Rational Conclusion there can be contained neither more nor less than *three principal conceptions*, (termini;) for here we must connect two conceptions (the subject and predicate) by a mediating mark, or middle term;

2. The premises cannot be *altogether negative*, (ex puris negativis nihil sequitur;) for the subsumption in the minor proposition must be affirmative, as it asserts that a certain knowledge stands under the condition of the rule;

3. Neither can the premises be *altogether particular*, (ex

puris particularibus nihil sequitur;) for then there would be *no rule*, that is, no universal proposition, from which a particular knowledge could be deduced;

4. *The conclusion always accommodates itself to the weaker part of a Ratiocination*; that is, either to the *negative* or *particular* proposition in the premises; (conclusio sequitur partem debiliorem;) therefore,

5. If either of the premises be a *negative* proposition, then the *conclusion* must also be *negative*; and,

6. If one of the premises be a *particular* proposition, then the *conclusion* must also be *particular*.

7. In all *Categorical Syllogisms*, the *major* must be a *universal* proposition, the *minor* an *affirmative* proposition. Hence, lastly,

8. The *Conclusion* must agree in respect to *Quality* with the *major*, and in respect to *Quantity* with the *minor*.

#### Pure and Mixed Categorical Conclusions of Reason.

65. A *Categorical* Rational Conclusion is *pure*, when no *immediate conclusions* are introduced into it, nor the regular order of the premises changed. Otherwise the conclusion is called *impure*, or *mixed*; (ratiocinium, five hybridum.)

#### Mixed rational Conclusions by Inversion of the Propositions.

66. To the *mixed* conclusions are reckoned those which arise by inversion of the propositions, and in which therefore the placing of these propositions is irregular. This takes place in the *three last* divisions of the *Table of Inversion of the Propositions* of Categorical Rational Conclusions: therefore the *first* is the only regular and legitimate mode of concluding.

#### Explanation of the Table of the four Figures of Conclusions.

67. By *figures* is to be understood the four modes of Concluding, whose difference consists in the particular placing of the premises and of their conceptions. The investigation of these figures is the more necessary, as logicians have dwelt much upon them, because they found that true consequences have followed from them, though in a *concealed and circuitous way*: for strict logical consequences can only flow *directly* from the first figure.

#### Ground of the Difference in the four Figures, by means of the different placing of the Middle Term.

68. Upon the proper placing of the *middle term* every thing here depends. It may occupy either, 1, in the *major* the place of the *subject*, and in the *minor* the place of the *predicate*; or, 2, in *both premises*, the place of the *subject*; or, 3, in *both premises*, the place of the *predicate*; and, or, lastly, 4, in the *major* the place of the *predicate*, and in the *minor* the place of the *subject*. By these four cases the difference of the four figures is determined. For instance, let S stand for *subject* in the conclusion, P for *predicate*, and M for *middle term*. Then the scheme of the four figures may be exhibited in the following Table:

M. P.	P. M.	M. P.	P. M.
S. M.	S. M.	M. S.	M. S.
S. P.	S. P.	S. P.	S. P.

#### Rules for the First Figure, as the only regular one.

69. The rule for the first figure, as the only regular and legitimate mode of Categorical Conclusion, is *That the MAJOR must be a universal proposition, the MINOR an affirmative*. And, as this must be the universal rule for all *Categorical Rational Conclusions*, hence it follows, that the first figure is the only regular one: it is the ground-work of all the others; so that, if any of them conclude rightly, they must be reducible to the first, by means of the *inversion*



version of the premises. Nothing can therefore be more clear than the uselessness of the three last figures, however much they may have been esteemed as original modes of concluding categorically; and a greater service cannot be rendered to the science of Logic, than to clear them entirely away, and thus prevent them from confusing arguments, which, when exhibited in the first figure in their perfect purity, must be convincing to every one; and, if logically correct, apodictically certain.

*Remark.* The first figure admits of a conclusion of any Quantity and any Quality. In the other figures conclusions of a restricted kind only can occur. This proves that these figures are not complete; but that certain limitations are to be met, which prevent their concluding universally, as in the first figure.

*Conditions of a Reduction of the three last Figures to the first.*

70. The reason why in the three last figures a right mode of concluding is possible, is this; that the *middle-term* is so situated, that, by means of *immediate conclusions*, it is placed orderly, agreeably to the rules of the first figure. Hence the following rules for the other three figures.

*Rule for the Second Figure.*

71. In the second figure the *minor is correct*, therefore the *major* must be *inverted*, but so that it still remains *universal*. This is only possible when it is *universally negative*: for, if it is *universally affirmative*, it must be done by *contraposition*. In both cases the conclusion will be negative (*sequitur partem debiliorem*).

*Remark.* The rule for the second figure is this; *What is contradicted by the mark of a thing, contradicts the thing itself.* Now I must first *invert* this, and say, *What is contradicted by a mark, contradicts this mark*; or I must convert the conclusion thus; *What is contradicted by the mark of a thing contradicts the thing itself*; consequently the thing is contradicted by it.

*Rule for the third Figure.*

72. In the third figure the *major is correct*, consequently the *minor* must be inverted; however, so that an affirmative position arises from it. But this is only possible when the affirmative position is *particular*, consequently the *conclusion is also particular*.

*Remark.* The rule for the third figure is this; *What agrees with or contradicts a mark also agrees with or contradicts SOME that are contained under this mark.* Here I must first say, it agrees with or contradicts ALL that are contained under this mark.

*Rule for the Fourth Figure.*

73. In the fourth figure, neither *major* nor *minor* are correct. If the *major* be *universally-negative*, it admits of simple *conversion*, but so that the *minor* is particular; consequently the conclusion negative. If the *major* is *universally-affirmative*, it admits either of *conversion* or *contraposition*. Therefore the conclusion will be either *particular* or *negative*. But, if the conclusion be not to be inverted, (P. S. changed into S. P.) then a transposition of the premises or a conversion of both must take place.

*Remark (1.)* The fourth figure concludes as follows. The *predicate* depends upon the *middle term*; the *middle term* upon the *subject* (of the conclusion); consequently the *subject* upon the *predicate*; which does not at all follow, but always the reverse. In order to render this possible, the *major* must be made *minor*, or *vice versa*; and the conclusion must be *converted*, because in the first change the *major* is turned into the *minor*.

2. We have dwelt purposely upon these three *false figures* of Categorical Rational Conclusions, with a view of facilitating the detection of them in complicated arguments, and thus rendering it easy to reduce them to the first figure, where the same consequences will flow in a regular and uninterrupted manner, without any *immediate conclusions* being introduced.

*General Result of the three last Figures.*

74. From the previously-explained rules of the three last figures, which we have proved to be *false modes of Conclusion*, it is evident,

1. That in none of them a *universally-affirmative* conclusion can occur, but that the conclusion is always either *negative* or *particular*.

2. That in all of them an *immediate conclusion* is *intermixed*, which, though not evidently expressed, is secretly understood; and, on this account,

3. These three modes of concluding are termed *impure conclusions*, (*ratiocinium hybrida, impura*;) since no pure conclusion can have more than three chief propositions, (*termini*.)

2. *Hypothetical Conclusions of Reason.*

75. An *Hypothetical Conclusion* is one which has an hypothetical proposition for its *Major*. It consists therefore of two propositions; first an *Antecedent*, and secondly a *Consequent*; and here the conclusion takes place either according to the *modo ponente* or the *modo tollente*.

*Remark (1.)* Hypothetical Conclusions of Reason have consequently *no middle-term*; for the inference of one judgment from the other is here *only denoted*. In the *Major* is expressed the inference of one proposition from another; the first of which is a *premise*, and the other a *conclusion*. The *Minor* is the changing a *problematical condition* into an *assertorical proposition*.

(2.) As an *Hypothetical Conclusion* consists only of two propositions without a *Middle-term*; it is clear that this is properly no conclusion of Reason, but an immediately-demonstrable conclusion from *Antecedent* and *Consequent*, either according to *Matter* or *Form*.

(3.) Every Conclusion of Reason must be a *Demonstration*. Now the *Hypothetical* contains in itself only the *Ground* of a *Demonstration*; consequently it is clear that it cannot be a *Conclusion of Reason*.

*Principle of Hypothetical Conclusions.*

76. The principle of Hypothetical Conclusions is the *proposition of a ground*; (*a ratione ad rationatum*; a *negatione rationali ad negationem rationis, valet consequentia*.)

3. *Disjunctive Conclusions of Reason.*

77. In *Disjunctive* conclusions, the *Major* is a disjunctive proposition, and must therefore have members of division. Here we conclude, 1, from the truth of one member of Disjunction upon the falsehood of the rest; or, 2, from the falsehood of all the members *except one*, upon the truth of this one. The former takes place by the *modus ponentem* (or *ponendo tollentem*); the latter by the *modus tollentem*, (*tollendo ponentem*.)

*Remark (1.)* All the members of disjunction *except one*, taken together, constitute the contradictorily-opposite of this one. Here therefore a *Dichotomy* takes place, agreeably to which, If one of the propositions be true, the other is false, and conversely.

(2.) All Disjunctive rational conclusions, consisting of more than two members of division, are properly *poly syllogistical*. For all true Disjunction can only consist of *two members*; and indeed the *logical division* consists only of *two members*; but the *membra subdividentia* are placed for the sake of brevity under the *membra dividenda*.

*Principle of Disjunctive Conclusions.*

78. The principle of Disjunctive Rational Conclusions is the *principle of the excluded third*. (*A contradictorie oppositorum negatione unius ad affirmationem alterius;—a positione unius ad negationem alterius—valet consequentia*.)

*Dilemma.*

79. A *Dilemma* is an *Hypothetic-disjunctive Conclusion* of Reason, or an *Hypothetical Conclusion* whose consequent is a disjunctive judgment. The *Major* is an *Hypothetical proposition*.



proposition whose consequent is disjunctive. The *minor* affirms that the *consequent* (per omnia membra) is false, and the *concluding* proposition affirms that the *antecedent* is false; (a remotione consequentis ad negationem antecedentis valet consequentia.)

*Remark.* The ancients considered the *Dilemma* of great importance, since it enabled them to perplex their antagonist by producing numerous obstacles to whatever opinion he might adopt. But it is a sophistical artifice, instead of directly refuting a position, merely to expose its difficulties, which may indeed be done in most cases. If we mean to assert that all is false which is difficult, it is extremely easy to overturn every thing. It is certainly right in argument to show the impossibility of the contrary; but there is something deceptive even in this, when we take the *inconceivableness* of the opposite for its *impossibility*. The *Dilemma* therefore requires great caution, although it concludes rightly; for it may be employed not only to defend but to controvert *true positions* by opposing difficulties to them.

#### Formally-expressed and hidden Conclusions.

80. A *formally-expressed* Rational Conclusion is one which contains every *requisite*, not only as to *matter*, but as to *form* also, correctly and properly expressed. To this is opposed the *hidden* conclusion (cryptica), in which either one of the premises is *inverted*, or one of them *omitted*; or lastly where the *middle term* alone is connected with the conclusion. A hidden conclusion of the second sort, in which one of the premises is not expressed, but only understood, is called *Enthymema*, or *Mutilated*; those of the third sort are termed *Contracted*.

### III. CONCLUSIONS OF JUDGMENT. See Plate IV.

#### Determinative and Reflective Judgment.

81. Judgment is twofold, both *determinative* and *reflective*. The former proceeds from *universal* to particular, the latter from *particular* to *universal*. This has only *subjective* validity; for the universal, to which it attains through the particular, has only an *empirical* universality, a mere logical *Analogon*.

#### Conclusions of (Reflective) Judgments.

82. Conclusions of Judgment are certain modes of Concluding from *particular* conceptions to *universal*. They are therefore not Functions of Determinative, but of *Reflective*, Judgment. They do not determine the *object*, but only the *manner of reflecting upon it*, in order to obtain a knowledge of it.

#### Principle of these Conclusions.

83. The Principle which constitutes the ground of Conclusions of Judgment is the following: *That many things cannot agree in one single point without a common principle; and that whatsoever applies to many things in this manner, must do so from a common principle.*

*Remark.* As Conclusions of Judgment rest upon such a principle; they cannot on that very account be considered as *immediate* conclusions.

#### INDUCTION AND ANALOGY the two Modes of Conclusions of Judgment.

84. Judgment, whilst it proceeds from particular to universal, in order to derive universal Judgments from experience, that is to say, not *à priori*, but empirically, concludes either from *many* things to *all* of one sort, or from *many* determinations and properties, in which things of one sort agree, to the *rest* of their determinations and properties, so far as they belong to the same principle. The first mode of concluding is called *Induction*; the other *Analogy*.

*Remark (1.)* *Induction* concludes therefore from the particular to the universal, according to a universally-constitutive principle; namely, *What applies to many things of one Genus applies also to the rest.* *Analogy* concludes from the particular similarity of some properties of two things

to their total agreement according to the principle of *specification*. Things of one genus, which agree in many properties, agree also in the rest. *Induction* extends the empirical objects from *particular* to *universal*, in respect to many objects; *Analogy*, on the contrary, from the given properties of one thing to more of the very same thing. If *one* property is found in many things, it exists in *all* of the kind (*Induction*). If *many* properties of one thing are also in another, consequently all the properties of the first will be found in the other (*Analogy*). Thus for instance is the proof of *Immortality*, from the complete development of the natural predispositions of every creature, a conclusion according to *analogy*. In conclusions of *Analogy*, the *identity of the principle* is not required; for we conclude according to analogy that there may be rational inhabitants in the Moon, not that they are men; neither can we conclude by analogy beyond the *tertium comparationis*.

(2.) Every Conclusion of Reason must possess necessity. *Induction* and *Analogy* are therefore not Conclusions of Reason, but only logical *presumptions*, or empirical conclusions. For by induction we obtain general but not universal propositions.

(3.) The preceding Conclusions of Judgment are both useful and indispensable for the purpose of extending our experimental knowledge. But, as they only produce empirical certainty, we must use them with great caution.

(4.) It might prevent much confusion if suitable words were adopted in general use to denote the *three* distinct acts of *concluding* or *inferring*; for instance, for *Conclusion of Understanding* or immediate conclusions, the term ILLATION, or IMMEDIATE INFERENCE; for *Conclusions of Reason*, SYLLOGISM, RATIOINATION, or CONCLUSION; for *Conclusion of Judgment*, INDUCTION and ANALOGY, which are particularly happy, and will always imply a Conclusion of Judgment or of Experience, where the inference proceeds either from a few particular experiments to all cases (*Induction*); or from the particular agreement of two things to the determination of all the rest of that species (*Analogy*). As the *Science of Mind* becomes extended, language will naturally improve with it, and more appropriate terms will be found to express determinately, and to separate distinctly, the various operations of the thinking faculties, which are at present treated of in a very loose and confused manner.

#### Simple and compound Conclusions.

85. A Rational Conclusion is termed *simple* when it consists only of *one*. Compound when it consists of *more* than one rational conclusion.

#### Poly-syllogistical Ratiocinations.

86. A compound conclusion, in which the various rational conclusions are connected together, not by mere co-ordination, but by *subordination*, i.e. as ground and consequence, are called *chain-syllogisms*.

#### Pro-syllogisms and Epi-syllogisms.

87. By *chain-syllogisms* we may conclude in two ways: either from the *ground* to the *consequence*, or from the *consequence* to the *ground*. The former are called *Epi-syllogisms*; the latter *Pro-syllogisms*. An *Epi-syllogism* is a conclusion where one of the premises is the *conclusion* in a Pro-syllogism.

#### Sorites, or Chain-Syllogisms.

88. A conclusion resulting from several abridged conclusions in a series, is termed a *Sorites*, or chain-syllogism; and may be either *Progressive* or *Regressive*, according as we ascend from the approximate to the remote mark, or conversely descend.

#### Categorical and Hypothetical Sorites.

89. *Progressive* as well as *Regressive* chain-syllogisms may be either *Categorical* or *Hypothetical*. The former consist

# LOGIC.

## CONCLUSIONS OF JUDGMENT,

are

*neither Immediate nor Rational,*

*but merely EMPIRICAL CONCLUSIONS, and,*

*their Universality is always Conditional:*

*They arise from*

### REFLECTIVE JUDGMENT.

#### INDUCTION

*Extends the particular to the Universal, thus: If one property be found in many things, it exists in all of the kind.*

#### ANALOGY

*Concludes thus: If many properties of one thing be found in another, all the properties of the one will also be found in the other.*

*They have only Subjective validity, for they do not determine the objects, but only our manner of reflecting upon objects in general.*







sift of Categorical propositions, as a series of *predicates*; the latter of Hypothetical, as a series of *consequences*.

*Fallacious Conclusions—Paralogisms—Sophisms.*

90. A Rational Conclusion, which according to form is false, though it has the appearance of a correct conclusion, is termed a *Paralogism*, when we deceive ourselves by it; a *Sophism*, when we endeavour to deceive others by it.

*Remark.* The ancients applied themselves greatly to the construction of such sophisms. Hence arose the various kinds of them; for instance, the *Sophisma figure dictionis*; where the middle term is taken in various significations, *fallacia a dicto secundum quid ad dictum simpliciter*; *sophisma heterozetiseos, elenchi, ignorationis*; and the like.

*Leap in Concluding.*

91. A Leap (*saltus*) in concluding or proving, is connecting one of the premises with the conclusion, while the other is omitted. Such a leap is legitimate when the *premise* is easily supplied; but *illegitimate* when the assumption is not clear; for here we connect a remote mark with a thing, without an intermediate mark.

*Begging the Question, and Proving in a Circle.*

92. By begging the Question is to be understood the using a position, by way of proof, as an immediately-certain one, though it is itself unproved. Proving in a Circle is, laying the proposition we intend to prove as the ground of its own proof.

*Remark.* It is often difficult to discover when we have proved in a circle; and this fault occurs most frequently in difficult demonstrations.

*Proving too much and too little.*

93. A proof may prove too much, and also too little. In the latter case, it only proves a part of what was to be proved; in the former, it applies to that which is false.

*Remark.* A proof that proves too little may be true; it is therefore not rejectable; but, if it proves too much, it proves more than is true, and must consequently be false.

PART II.

METHOD OF PURE UNIVERSAL LOGIC.

*Manner and Method.*

94. All Knowledge must be conformable to a rule, if it is to produce a whole; for irregularities are at the same time irrationalities. But this rule is either that of *manner* (free), or that of *method* (constrained).

*Form of Science.—Method.*

95. Knowledge, when considered as a science, must be planned according to a Method. For Science is a Whole of Knowledge, as a System; not merely as an Aggregate. It implies therefore Systematical Knowledge, which has been compiled agreeably to predetermined Rules.

*The Object and End of Method.*

96. As the *Elementary* Doctrine of Logic has for its object the Elements and Conditions of the Perfections of Knowledge; so the *Method* of Logic, as its second part, has to treat of the form of a Science in general, or of the manner and mode of connecting various Knowledge into a Science.

*Means of advancing the Logical Perfections of Knowledge.*

97. *Method* must inform us how we are to arrive at the Perfections of Knowledge. Now the most essential logical perfections of Knowledge consist in its *Clearness*, and in its systematic arrangement as a Science. *Method* will accordingly have to point out the means by which these perfections of Knowledge are advanced.

*Conditions of the Clearness of Knowledge.*

98. The *Clearness* of Knowledge, and its connection

into a Systematical whole, depends upon the clearness of conceptions, both with respect to what is contained in them and what is classed under them. The clear consciousness of the *Contents* of a Conception is advanced by *Exposition* and *Definition*. The clear consciousness of the *Sphere* of a Conception is advanced by *Logical Division*. We shall therefore first treat of the means to advance the *Clearness* of Conceptions with regard to their *Contents*.

I. *Advancement of the Logical Perfection of Knowledge by DEFINITION, EXPOSITION, and DESCRIPTION of Conceptions.*

*Definition.*

99. A Definition is a sufficiently clear and adequate conception; (*conceptus rei adequatus in minimis terminis; complete determinatus.*)

*Remark.* *Definition*, alone, is to be considered as a logically-perfect conception, for it unites in itself the two essential perfections of *Clearness* and *Perspicuity*; (that is, completeness and precision in clearness, or quantity of clearness.)

*Analytical and Synthetical Definition.*

100. All Definitions are either *Analytical* or *Synthetical*. The former are definitions of a *given* Conception, the latter of a *produced* one.

*Given and produced Conceptions, à priori and à posteriori.*

101. The *given* Conceptions of an *analytic* definition, are given either *à priori* or *à posteriori*; as the *produced* conceptions of a *synthetical* definition are produced either *à priori* or *à posteriori*.

*Synthetical Definitions by Exposition or Construction.*

102. The synthesis of produced conceptions, from whence arise *synthetical definitions*, is either that of *Exposition* (of the phenomena), or that of *Construction* (of the mathematical). The latter is the synthesis of *arbitrarily-produced* Conceptions; the former of *empirically-produced* Conceptions; that is, from given phenomena; (*Conceptus factitii vel à priori vel per synthesein empiricam.*) The arbitrarily-produced conceptions are the *Mathematical*.

*Remark.* All definitions of *mathematical*, as well as of *empirical*, conceptions, so far as the latter can take place, are *produced synthetically*. For in the empirical conceptions of Earth, Air, Fire, Water, &c. we have not to dissect what lies in these conceptions; but to learn by experience what *belongs* to them; consequently, all empirical conceptions must be considered as *produced* conceptions, whose synthesis is however not *arbitrary*, but *empirical*.

*Impossibility of Empirical Synthetical Definitions.*

103. As the synthesis of empirical conceptions is not *voluntary*, but *empirical*, (because in experience we may always discover more and more marks of a conception,) it follows that empirical conceptions never can be defined.

*Remark.* *Arbitrary* conceptions alone, therefore, can be synthetically defined. Such definitions of arbitrary conceptions as are both *possible* and *necessary*, and which must precede that which is expressed by an arbitrary conception, may be called *Declarations*; for we hereby declare our thoughts, or explain what is to be understood by certain *words*. This is the case in the Mathematics.

*Analytical Definitions of given Conceptions by Dissolution, both à priori and à posteriori.*

104. All given conceptions, whether given *à priori* or *à posteriori*, can only be defined by *Analysis*; for we can only render them *evident* by making their marks successively clear. If all the marks of a given conception are made clear, the conception is *perfectly-evident*. If it does not contain too many marks, it is *precise*. Thus arises a *definition* of a Conception.

*Remark.* As we never can be certain that we have obtained all the marks of a given conception by analysis, all analytical definitions must be considered as uncertain.

*Exposition*



*Exposition and Description.*

105. Conceptions do not all admit of being defined, nor is it necessary that they all should. There are, however, approximations to definitions of certain conceptions, which are either *Expositions* or *Descriptions*. The *Exposition* of a Conception consists in the successive representations of its marks so far as they are discoverable by Analysis. *Description* is the exposition of a certain conception so far as it is *precise*.

*Remark* (1.) We can give an exposition either of a *Conception*, or of *Experience* itself, which is an intuition joined to a conception. The former takes place by *Analysis*, the latter by *Synthesis*.

(2.) Exposition takes place only in *given* Conceptions, which are thereby rendered *perspicuous*; this must be distinguished from *Declaration*, which is a *perspicuous* representation of produced Conceptions. As it is not always possible to render *Analysis* complete, an incomplete exposition, as a partial definition, is nevertheless a true and useful representation of a Conception. Definition here is only the Idea of a logical perfection, which we must always endeavour to attain.

(3.) *Description* takes place only in *empirically-given* Conceptions. It has no determinate rules; and only contains the materials for Definition.

*Nominal and Real Definitions.*

106. By merely *nominal* definitions are to be understood those, which arbitrarily give a meaning to a certain name; and which therefore only denote the logical characteristic of their object; or serve to distinguish it from other objects. *Real* definitions are such as are sufficient to a knowledge of the object from its *internal* determinations, as they show the possibility of the object from *internal* marks.

*Remark* (1.) When a conception is *internally* sufficient to distinguish the thing, it is also *externally* sufficient. But it may be *internally insufficient*, and yet *externally sufficient*. However, absolute *external* sufficiency is impossible without the *internal*.

(2.) Objects of Experience admit only of *nominal* Definitions. *Logical Nominal Definitions* of given Conceptions of understanding, are derived from *Attributes*. *Real* Definitions are taken from the *essence* of the thing itself; that is, from the first grounds of possibility. The latter therefore contain what always applies to the thing, that is, to its real essence. Merely *negative* Definitions cannot be termed *Real* Definitions; for, though negative marks serve to distinguish one thing from another, as well as affirmative marks; yet they do not give any information as to the internal possibility of the thing itself. In moral subjects, we must always endeavour to obtain *real* definitions. The Mathematics abound in *real* definitions; for the definition of an arbitrary conception is always a *real* one.

(3.) A *Generic* definition is that which produces a conception, whose object may be represented *a priori* in the concrete. All *mathematical* definitions are of this class.

*Chief Requisites of a Definition.*

107. The essential and universal requisites for perfecting Definition in general may be considered under the four heads of QUANTITY, QUALITY, RELATION, and MODALITY.

1. According to *Quantity*, namely, what concerns the sphere of a definition, the *definition* and the *thing defined* must be reciprocal conceptions, and consequently the one neither *wider* nor *narrower* than the other.

2. According to *Quality*, the definition must be an *ample* and yet a *precise* conception; that is, it must be an *adequate* one.

3. According to *Relation*, the definition must not be *tautological*; that is, the marks of the definition as the *ground* must be different from the *thing defined*; and lastly,

4. According to *Modality*, the marks must be *necessary*; consequently not such as are obtained from experience.

*Remark.* The condition, that the *Generic* conception and the conception of the *Specific difference* are to constitute the definition, takes place only in *nominal* definitions by comparison, and not in *real* definitions by derivation.

*Rules for Proving Definitions.*

108. In order to prove definitions four things are to be attended to: we have to examine whether the definition,

1. Considered as a *Proposition*, be *true*; whether it,
2. Considered as a *Conception*, be *perspicuous*; whether it,
3. Considered as a *perspicuous Conception*, be also *ample*; and lastly, whether it be,
4. Considered as an *ample Conception*, at the same time *determined*; i. e. *adequate* to the thing itself.

*Rules for Forming Definitions.*

109. The very same things that are required for proving definitions are to be attended to in forming them. With this view we must search for, 1, True positions; 2, Such where the predicate does not already presuppose the conception of the thing; 3, Collect more of them, and compare them with the conception of the thing itself, to determine whether they be adequate; and, 4, whether one mark does not lie in another, or is not subordinate to it.

*Remark* (1.) It may indeed easily be observed, that, as these rules apply only to *Analytical Definitions*, and as we never can be certain that the thing has been completely analyzed, we must still consider the definition only as an attempt, and not use it as a definition. Under this limitation we may consider it as a true and *perspicuous* conception, and draw from it corollaries. For we may here observe, that what applies to the conception of the thing defined, applies also to the definition; but indeed not conversely, since the definition does not embrace the whole of the thing defined.

(2.) To employ the conception of the thing defined in the definition, or to lay the thing defined as a ground for the definition, is to define in a circle.

II. *Advancement of the Perfections of Knowledge by the Logical Division of Conceptions.**Conception of a Logical Division.*

110. Every conception contains a variety *under* it; so far they all agree; but in this also they differ; for, the determination of a conception in respect to all possible parts contained under it, in as much as they are opposed to one another, that is, differ from each other, is termed the *logical division of a conception*. The superior conception is called the *divided conception*; and the inferior conceptions, the *members of division*.

*Remark.* To *part* a conception is not to *divide* it. In the partition of a conception we perceive what is contained *in it* (by Analysis.) In the division we consider what is classed *under it*. Here we divide the sphere of a conception, and not the conception itself. It is a great error to take the division for the partition of a conception, since the members of division contain much more in them than the divided conception.

(2.) We may proceed from the inferior to the superior, and afterwards return from the superior to the inferior, by *division*.

*Universal Rules of Logical Division.*

111. In each division of a Conception,
  1. The *members of division* must exclude or be opposed to one another;
  2. They must be comprehended under a superior conception; and lastly,
  3. Taken all together, they must constitute the sphere of a divided conception, or be equal to it.

*Remark.* The *members of division* must be separated from one another by *contradictory* and not by mere *contrary* opposition.



*Co-division and Sub-division.*

112. The first divisions of a conception are called *Co-divisions*, and the divisions of these divisions are termed *Sub-divisions*.

*Remark* (1.) Sub-divisions can be continued to *infinity*, but they may be comparatively *finite*. *Co-divisions* proceed also to *infinity*, particularly in conceptions of experience; for we can never ascertain all the relations among conceptions.

(2.) We may also term co-division a division according to the different conceptions of the same object, (points of view;) sub-division a division of the points of view themselves.

*Dichotomy and Polyotomy.*

113. A division into two members is called *Dichotomy*, into more than two, *Polyotomy*.

*Remark* (1.) *Polyotomy* is empirical, *Dichotomy* is the only division from principles *à priori*; consequently, the only *primitive* division; for the members of division ought to be opposed to each other: now the opposite of A is simply *non A*.

(2.) *Polyotomy* cannot be taught in Logic; for it requires a *Knowledge of the Objects*; but *Dichotomy* requires only the position of contradiction, and not the knowledge of the Contents of the Conception which we intend to divide. *Polyotomy* requires either *intuition à priori* as in the Mathematics, (e. g. the division of the conic sections,) or *empirical intuition*, as in Natural Philosophy. However, the division from the *principle of synthesis à priori* is susceptible of *Trichotomy*; namely, 1, the Conception as the Condition; 2, the Conditioned; and, 3, the derivation of the latter from the former.

*Various Divisions of Method.*

114. We may still further remark on the subject of *Method*, in scientific Knowledge; that there are various kinds, which may be arranged under the following heads.

1. *Scientific and Popular.*

115. The *Scientific* or *Scholastic* method is thus distinguished from the *Popular*. The former proceeds from fundamental and elementary propositions; the latter depends on *Custom* and *Habit*. The former has for its object *Soundness*, consequently dispels every thing that is heterogeneous to it; the latter aims at entertaining.

2. *Systematic and Fragmentary.*

116. The *Systematic* is opposed to the *Fragmentary* or *Rhapsodical* Method. When we think according to a certain method, in which the transition from one position to another is perspicuously denoted, we treat Knowledge *systematically*. If, on the other hand, we think indeed according to a method, but have not arranged our thoughts, such a method may be called *Rhapsodical*.

*Remark*. The systematic mode of treatment is opposed to the fragmentary in the same manner as the methodical to the tumultuary. He who thinks methodically can treat a subject either in a systematic or fragmentary manner. The externally-fragmentary but intrinsically-methodical mode of treatment is called the *Aphoristical*.

3. *Analytical and Synthetical.*

117. The *Analytic* is opposed to the *Synthetic* method. The former commences from the conditioned, and proceeds to the condition, or to first principles (*a principiatis ad principia*); the latter proceeds from principles to their consequences, or from the simple to the composed. The former may be termed *Regressive*, and the latter *Progressive*.

*Remark*. The *Analytic* method is also called the *Inventive*; and is best suited to the end of popularity; the *Synthetic* is calculated for the scientific and systematic treatment of Knowledge.

4. *Syllogistic and Tabular.*

118. The *Syllogistic* is that method in which a science is propounded by a series of conclusions; the *Tabular* that which exhibits at once an entire system in its whole connection.

5. *Acroamatic and Erotematic.*

119. *Acroamatic* is that method by which we merely teach; *Erotematic* that by which we also question. The latter may be again divided into the *Dialogical* or *Socratic*; and the *Catechetical*, as the Questions are directed either to the *Understanding* or merely to the *Memory*.

*Remark*. We cannot teach *erotematically* otherwise than by the *Socratic Dialogue*, in which the Pupil and the Teacher mutually propose Questions and answer them; so that the pupil seems also to be a teacher, and is thus rendered attentive to the principles of his own reason. By the *catechetical* method we do not teach, but only examine what has already been taught by the acroamatic method. The *Catechetical*, therefore, can only be applied to empirical and historical knowledge; the *Dialogical* only to rational knowledge.

*Meditation.*

120. *Meditation* is thinking methodically, which should accompany all our reading and study. To this it is requisite that we make previous investigation, and afterwards reduce our thoughts to order, or connect them according to a certain method.

CONCLUSION.

That the preceding system is a *Pure Universal Logic* must be evident, as it concerns itself with the *form* of Knowledge only, and not at all with its *matter*. It can, therefore, be only of a regulative use; but, in this light, it must be allowed to be indispensable, since it contains the Rules of the Agreement of Knowledge with the Laws of UNDERSTANDING and of REASON.

But, as all Knowledge consists both of *matter* and *form*, and as logic can only criticize the FORM, it must be evident that *another science* is still requisite, in order to examine or criticize its MATTER: and this science is TRANSCENDENTAL PHILOSOPHY. Thus, in order to be certain that our Knowledge is genuine, we must absolutely examine it, both by the Rules of Logic, and by the Laws of Transcendental Philosophy, or of true METAPHYSICS. (See that article.) Without the latter, Logic may become a mere play of thoughts, which entangles itself in its own illusions. The distinction between the *Original* and *Logical* use of Understanding is more particularly explained in vol. xi. p. 616. in that view of the Critical or Transcendental Philosophy which accompanies the life of its author, the immortal KANT.

The Logic here given, has the great merit of exposing the false subtleties of the syllogistic figures, on which so much seeming learning has been lavished; and of establishing the only pure and legitimate Form of Categorical Conclusion, which is the highest principle of reasoning. Thus simplified, and confined within its proper limits, LOGIC may justly be expected to resume its rank among the useful sciences, and be again considered as an essential part of a liberal education.



**LOG'ICAL**, *adj.* Pertaining to logic; taught in logic.—We ought not to value ourselves upon our ability, in giving subtle rules, and finding out *logical* arguments, since it would be more perfection not to want them. *Ba-her*.—Skilled in logic; furnished with logic.—A man who sets up for a judge in criticism, should have a clear and *logical* head. *Addison*.

**LOG'ICALLY**, *adv.* According to the laws of logic: How can her old good man  
With honour take her back again?  
From hence I *logically* gather,  
The woman cannot live with either. *Prior*.

**LOGIC'IAN**, *f.* A teacher or professor of logic; a man versed in logic.—If we may believe our *logicians*, man is distinguished from all other creatures by the faculty of laughter. *Addison*.

Each staunch polemic stubborn as a rock,  
Each fierce *logician* still expelling Locke,  
Came whip and spur. *Pope's Dunciad*.

**LOG'IE**, a town of Scotland, in Rosshire: four miles south of Tain.

**LOG'IE**, a town of Scotland, in the county of Aberdeen: six miles south of Frazerburgh.

**LOG'IE**, a town of Scotland, in the county of Angus: five miles north-west of Montrose.

**LOGIERA'IT**, a town of Scotland, in the county of Perth: seven miles north of Dunkeld.

**LOGINOV'**, a town of Russia, in the government of Tobolsk, on the Irtysh: sixteen miles south-east of Tara.

**LOG'ISM**, *f.* [*logismus*, Lat.] In rhetoric, an inconclusive kind of argument; a kind of syllogism. *Bailey*.

**LOG'IST**, *f.* [*λογιστης*, Gr.] An expert accountant. *Scott*.

**LOGIS'TA**, *f.* The title of an officer at Athens, whose business was to receive and pass the accounts of magistrates when they came out of their office. The *logistæ* were in number ten; they were elected by lot, and had ten *euthyni*, or auditors of accounts, under them.

**LOGIS'TIC**, or **LOGISTICAL**, *adj.* Belonging to computation; belonging to the method of computation by sexagesimal fractions; logarithmic.

**LOGIS'TICS**, or **LOGISTICAL ARITHMETIC**, a denomination sometimes given to the arithmetic of sexagesimal fractions, used by astronomers in their calculations. It was so called from a Greek treatise of one Barlaam Monachus, who wrote about sexagesimal multiplication very accurately; and entitled his book *Λογιστική*. This author Vossius places about the year 1350; but he mistakes the work for a treatise of algebra. Shakerly, in his *Tabulæ Britannicæ*, has a table of logarithms adapted to the sexagesimal fractions; which, therefore, he calls *logistical logarithms*; and the expeditious arithmetic of them which is by this means obtained, and by which all the trouble of multiplication and division is saved, he calls *logistical arithmetic*. See the article **LOGARITHMS**, vol. xii. p. 902.

**LOG'GIUM**, *f.* [in old records.] A lodge, a hovel, an out-house.

**LOG'MAN**, *f.* One whose business is to carry logs:  
For your sake  
Am I this patient *logman*. *Shakespeare's Tempest*.

**LOGODÆ'DALIST**, *f.* [from the Greek *λογος*, a word, and *δαιδαλος*, an artificer.] An inventor of new words. *Scott*.

**LOGODÆ'DALY**, *f.* A fine flourish of words without much meaning. *Scott*.

**LOGODO'RI**. See **SASSARI**.

**LOGOGRAPHIC**, *adj.* [from the Gr. *λογος*, a word, and *γραφω*, to write.] An epithet applied to a method of printing, in which the types, instead of answering only to single letters, are made to correspond to whole words.

**LOGOGRAPHY**, *f.* A word coined to express the

above invention. It is little used at present; but the principle of it will be explained under the article **PRINTING**.

**LOG'OGRIPIH**, *f.* [from the Gr. *λογος*, a word, and *γριφος*, a net.] A kind of riddle. Verbal intricacy:

And weaved fifty tomes  
Of *logogriphes*, and curious palindromes. *B. Jonson's Undw.*

**LOG'OM**, a town of Hindoostan, in Vishapur: ten miles north of Poonah.

**LOGOM'ACHY**, *f.* [from the Gr. *λογος*, a word, and *μαχη*, a fight.] A contention in words; a contention about words.—Forced terms of art did much puzzle sacred theology with distinctions, cavils, quiddities; and so transformed her to a meer kind of sophistry and *logomachy*. *Howel*.

**LOGON'DIUM**, *f.* in botany. See **VITEX**.

**LOGO'NE**, a town of Hindoostan, in Vishapur: ten miles north of Poonah.

**LOGO'NI**, a town of Sardinia: nine miles east of Cagliari.

**LOGO'RAS**, a town of Syria: fifteen miles north of Antioch.

**LOGOTHE'TA**, *f.* An officer under the emperors of the East, who kept an account of the various branches of public and private expense. There were several kinds of them, distinguished by the particular branch they superintended: as the *logotheta re dromu*, or post-master general; *logotheta των οικιακων*, or master of the household, &c.

**LOGRO'NO**, a town of Spain, in Old Castile, on the Ebro. It contains five parishes, eight convents, and about 5000 inhabitants. The environs produce fruit, legumes, flax, hemp, excellent wine, oil, and silk. It is twenty miles north-west of Calahorra, and fifty-two east of Burgos. Lat. 42. 23. N. lon. 3. 24. W.

**LOGRO'NO**, a town of South America, in the province of Quito: forty miles east-south-east of Cuenza.

**LOG'STOR**, or **LIXTOER**, a town of Denmark, in North Jutland, on Lymford Gulf: twenty-one miles west of Aalborg. Lat. 57. N. lon. 9. 15. E.

**LOG'UIVY PLOU'GROS**, a town of France, in the department of the North Coasts: thirteen miles west of Guingamp, and twelve south of Lannion.

**LOGUR'**, a town of Hindoostan: twenty-eight miles west-north-west of Poonah.

**LOG'WOOD**, *f.* in botany. See **HAMOTOXYLUM**.—*Logwood* is of a very dense and firm texture; and is the heart only of the tree which produces it. It is very heavy, and remarkably hard, and of a deep, strong, red colour. It grows both in the East and West Indies, but nowhere so plentifully as on the coast of the bay of Campeachy. *Hill's Mat. Med.*—To make a light purple, mingle ceruse with *logwood-water*. *Peachment*.

The use of logwood in dying was established in this country by 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11. before which time it was prohibited as a pernicious material. A considerable part of the soluble portion of the wood is taken up both by water and alcohol, but much more by the latter, and these menstrua become tinged by it of a deep purple-red or brown. If acids be added to the watery decoction, it is turned yellow; but alkalies give a very deep purple colour, without yielding any precipitate. Alum, added to the decoction of logwood, causes a violet precipitate, or lake; and the supernatant liquor also remains violet, and gives a fresh portion of lake on the effusion of an alkali. The salts of iron give an inky black with all the solutions of logwood, under the same circumstances as with galls, whence the presence of gallic acid in logwood is evinced. The solutions of tin form a very fine violet-coloured lake with the decoction of logwood, and wholly precipitate the colouring matter, so that the supernatant liquor is quite clear and colourless. In dying, logwood gives its own natural purple, with shades or variations according to the mordant used; or it heightens and improves the common black with iron and galls. In this latter way it gives



gives a peculiar gloss and lustre; on which account it is a very valuable dying material.

Logwood is used in miniature-painting to make a purple wash; which may be varied to a more red or blue colour by the addition or omission of Brazil-wood. The wash may be prepared by boiling an ounce of ground logwood in a pint of water, till one-half of the fluid be wasted; strain it then through flannel, while of a boiling heat; and add to it, when strained, about ten grains of pearl-ash. To make it more red, add half an ounce of Brazil-wood, or in proportion as the colour wanted may require; using in this case the pearl-ash very sparingly. This wood has a sweetish subastringent taste, but a remarkable smell. It gives a purplish-red tincture to watery and spirituous infusions, and tinges the stools, and sometimes the urine, of the same colour; but it does not appear to colour the bones of animals.

Besides its use among dyers, it is employed medicinally as an astringent and corroborant. In diarrhoeas it has been found peculiarly efficacious; also in the latter stages of dysentery, when the obstructing causes are removed, it serves to obviate that extreme laxity of the intestines usually superinduced by repeated dejections. *Extractum ligni campechensis* is ordered in the pharmacopoeias; and may be given in the dose of one scruple or two, repeated according to the urgency of the symptoms. The extract is obtained by inspissating the decoction. To promote the extraction, the wood should be reduced into a fine powder, which is to be boiled in the water, in the proportion of a pound to a gallon, till half the liquor is wasted. Some digest the powdered wood in as much spirit as will cover it to the height of about four inches, and afterwards boil it in water; the matters taken up by the watery and spirituous menstrua may be united into one extract, by inspissating the watery decoction to the consistence of honey, and then gradually stirring in the spirituous tincture.

The machines for reducing logwood, or other dying woods, to small chips or rasplings, that the colouring matter may be more readily extracted from them by the dyer, are of two kinds: One, by means of knives fixed to a large wheel, chips the wood across the grain into small fragments, which are afterwards reduced to a fine powder by grinding them beneath a pair of rolling stones; this is called a *chipping-engine*. The other kind operates by steel bars, with a great number of notches in the edge, which rasp and cuts the end of the wood into powder: this is called the *rasping-engine*. Both machines require an immense power to actuate them, and are generally worked by water-wheels or by steam-engines. A method of reducing logwood has been lately introduced by sawing it with a circular saw, which cuts off a flake from the end of a piece of wood, so that the jar of the saw shatters the flake all into powder. By this means at every cut the saw cuts away as much wood as its thickness in saw-dust, and the flake, which is as much more, is reduced at the same time; so that all the wood is reduced, though only one-half is cut; whereas, in the rasping-engine, every particle must be cut by the machine. This improvement merits the attention of the woollen manufacturers, whose numerous logwood-mills would be much improved by the adoption of this method.

**LOGWOOD COUNTRY**, a district of America, that lies north-west of the Mosquito shore, at the head of the bay of Honduras, and extends from Vera Paz to Yucatan, from lat. 15. to 18. N. The whole coast is overspread with islets, keys, and shoals; and the navigation is intricate.

**LOGWOOD LAGOON**, a bay or gulf on the north-east coast of Yucatan. Lat. 20. 57. N. lon. 88. 20. W.

**LOH**, a river of Silesia, which runs into the Oder five miles north-north-west of Breslau.

**LOHA**, a town of Algiers: twenty-eight miles east of El Callah.

**LOHARCA'NA**, a town of Nepal: ten miles south of Batgoa.

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**LOHARINAPAU'L**, a town of Nepal: fifteen miles south of Catmandu.

**LOHARCO'**, a town of Hindooistan, in Doob: ten miles north-west of Pattiary.

**LOHE**, a town of Austria: twelve miles west-south-west of Crems.

**LOHEAC'**, a town of France, in the department of the Ille and Vilaine: seventeen miles north of Redon, and seventeen south of Rennes.

**LOHEBECK**, a river in the duchy of Sleswick, which runs into the North Sea sixteen miles south of Ripen.

**LOHEI'A**, a town of Arabia, in the province of Yemen, on the coast of the Red Sea, founded near the tomb of an Arabian saint, about three centuries ago. The territory near it is dry and barren. The harbour is so indifferent, that even the smallest vessels are obliged to anchor at a great distance from the city; and, when the tide is at ebb, laden boats cannot approach. Notwithstanding this disadvantage, a considerable trade in coffee is carried on from Loheia; the coffee is brought from the neighbouring hills, and exposed in one large heap for sale: it is not repated to be so good as that which comes from Beit el Fakih, and is shipped at Mokha and Hodeida: but coffee is to be purchased here upon more reasonable terms; and the carriage to Jidda costs less: on this account several merchants from Cairo live at Loheia, and others come annually hither to make purchases of that commodity. Loheia, although without walls, is not entirely defenceless: twelve towers, guarded by soldiers, stand at equal distances round it: only one of these towers, and that newly built by emir Farhan, is such as to admit of being defended by cannon. Several of the houses in Loheia are built of stone; but the greatest part are huts constructed in the fashion which is common among the Arabs: i. e. the walls are of mud mixed with dung, and the roof is thatched with a sort of grass. The water at Loheia is very bad, and is brought from a distance. Within six miles of the city is a small hill, which affords considerable quantities of mineral salt. This place is 375 miles south-south-west of Mecca. Lat. 15. 42. N. lon. 42. 49. E. *Niebuhr*, vol. i.

**LOH'MEN**, a town of Saxony, in the margravate of Meissen: ten miles east-south-east of Dresden.

**LOHN**. See **ISERLOHN**, vol. xi. p. 400. and **LAHN**, vol. xii. p. 87.

**LOH'NIN**, a town of Brandenburg, in the Middle Mark: ten miles south-east of Brandenburg.

**LOH'NINGEN**, a town of Swisserland, in the county of Schaffhausen: five miles west-north-west of Schaffhausen.

**LOH'NSTEIN**. See **LAHNSTEIN**, in the preceding volume.

**LO'HOCK**, *f.*—*Lohock* is an Arabian name for those forms of medicines which are now commonly called eclemmas, lambatives, or linctuses. *Quincy*.

**LO'HOCK**, *f.* [Scotch.] A loch; a lake. *Scott*.

**LOHORPOU'R**, a town of Hindooistan, in Oude: twenty miles south of Mahomdy.

**LOHR**. See **LAHR**, vol. xii.

**LOHR**, a town of Germany, in the county of Rieneck, on the Maine: twenty-one miles north-west of Wurzburg, and thirty-five east-south-east of Frankfort on the Maine.

**LOHR**, a town of the duchy of Wurzburg: two miles north-west of Ebern.

**LOHR**, a river of Franconia, which runs into the Maine at the town of Lohr.

**LOHR**, a town of Bavaria, in the territory of Rothenburg: three miles south of Rothenburg.

**LOHR HAUPTON**, a town of Germany, in the county of Hanau Munzenburg: twenty-two miles east of Hanau.

**LOHRY**, a town of Hindooistan, in Behker, on the Sinde: fifteen miles south of Behker.

**LOH'TO**, a town of Sweden, in the government of Wafsa: eighteen miles north-east of Gamla Karleby.

K **LOHURDEGA**,



LOHURDE/GA, a town of Bengal, in the circar of Nagpou: twenty-two miles north-north-west of Doesa. Lat. 23. 20. N. lon. 84. 51. E.

LOHUR'SEY, a town of Bengal. Here is a pass across mountains: eighteen miles north-north-east of Palamow.

LO'JA. See LOXA.

LO'BERSTORFF, a town of Austria: fourteen miles south of Vienna.

LO'BERSTORFF, a town of Austria: ten miles south-west of St. Polten.

LO'BL, a range of mountains between Carinthia and Carniola.

LO'CH-FISH, *f.* A class of fish including the cod, ling, lob, and some others; mentioned in stat. 31 Edw. III.

LOIGNO'N, a river of France, which runs into the Loire about twenty-four miles below le Puy.

LOIMAJOKI, a town of Sweden, in the government of Abo: thirty-two miles north-north-east of Abo.

LOIMOG'RAPHY, *f.* [from the Gr. *λοσμος*, the plague, and *γραφω*, to write.] A writer on the plague.

LOIMOG'RAPHY, *f.* A treatise on the plague.

LOIMOS, *f.* [Greek.] The plague; the pestilence.

LOIN, *f.* [*Λωιν*, Welsh.] The back of an animal carved out by the butcher:

So have I seen in larder dark

Of veal a lucid loin,

Replete with many a brilliant spark,

As wife philosophers remark,

At once both sink and shine.

*Dorset.*

Loins; the reins:

My face I'll grime with filth,

Blanket my loins.

*Shakespeare's King Lear.*

Thou slander of thy heavy mother's womb!

Thou loathed issue of thy father's loins! *Shakespeare.*

LOIN, a river of France, which runs into the Seine a little below Moret.

LO'JO, a town of Sweden, in the province of Nyland: thirty miles west of Helsingfors.

LOJO'BI, a town of Servia: sixteen miles south-south-east of Passarowitz.

LO'PERSTORFF, a town of Austria, on the Rusbach: six miles east-north-east of Entzerstorff.

LOIR (Nicholas), a French painter, born at Paris in 1624, was the son of a goldsmith. He was placed as a pupil under Bourdon, but adopted the manner neither of that master nor of any other. He visited Rome in 1637, where he laid in a large stock of ideas, so strongly impressed upon his memory, that he could recall them at pleasure. A great abundance of thoughts upon any given subject was therefore his characteristic, which gave facility and variety to his works, though without any thing that indicated superior genius. As a proof of these qualities, it is related that he laid a wager with some brother-artists, that he would in one day design twelve holy families, in which not one figure should resemble another; and won his bet. He drew correctly, grouped his pieces with elegance, was a good colourist, and painted all parts of his subjects equally well; figures, landscapes, architecture, and ornaments. He particularly excelled in his women and children. On his return from Rome, he was much employed at Paris, and became professor and rector of the academy of painting. He painted several ceilings for the palaces of Louis XIV. in which he adopted that monarch's favourite allegorical emblem of the sun, and gained a pension for the adulation of his pencil. Many of his works were allegorical; but his invention in this walk does not seem to have soared very high, if we may judge from a piece in which, to illustrate the maxim "Sine Cerere & Baccho friget Venus," he painted Venus warming herself at a fire, and Ceres and Bacchus retiring. Loir made a number of etchings from his own designs; and about fourscore engravings from his works by dif-

ferent masters attest the reputation he once possessed. He died in 1679. *Pilkington.*

LOIR, a river of France, which rises about six miles north-north-west from Illiers, in the department of the Eure and Loir; passes by Bonneval, Châteaudun, Cloye, Morée, Freteval, Vendosme, Montoire, Chartres, Le Lude, La Flèche, Durtal, &c. and joins the Sarthe about five miles above Le Mans; soon after which they both together join the Mayenne.

LOIR AND CHER, a department of France, so called from the two rivers which cross it; the former in the southern part, the other in the north. It is bounded on the north by the department of the Eure and Loir, on the north-east by the Loiret, on the east and south-east by the Cher, on the south by the Indre, and on the west by the Indre and Loire, and Sarthe. It is about sixty-six miles in length, and from twenty-five to thirty broad. Blois is the capital.

LOIRE, a river of France, which rises about eighteen miles north-north-west from Aubenas, in the department of the Ardèche, passes by or near to Le Puy, Bas en Basset, Aurec, St. Rambert, Feurs, Roanne, Marcigny, Les Nonains, Digoïn, Décise, Nevers, Charité, Cosne, Châtillon sur Loire, Gien, Jargeau, Orleans, Beaugency, St. Die, Blois, Amboise, Tours, Langeais, Saumur, Rochefort, Châlonne, St. Florent, Ancenis, Nantes, &c. and runs into the sea about thirty miles west from Nantes, in lat. 47. 12. N. lon. 2. 10. W.

We have the following more particular account of this river in Monf. Millin's Voyage dans les Départemens Méridionaux de la France. "The Loire, of which the Romans have preserved the Celtic name, *Liger*, has its source in mount Gerbier-le-Joux, on the frontiers of Velay; after having flowed through le Forez, its bulk increases so as to render it navigable; it then traverses part of Burgundy and the Nivernais, where it receives the waters of the Allier; it runs from east to west, from Orleans to Nantes, where its bed is enlarged; and, eleven leagues lower down, it empties itself into the sea. The benefits which it renders to commerce and industry are incalculable; hence it is bordered by rich and populous cities, and its banks announce fertility and abundance. For a long time they who inhabit its shores have done all in their power to promote the safety of its navigation; but the quantity of loose sand which it carries down, with fragments of quartz and coal, which are often mixed together, renders its course uncertain and deceptive, especially from Orleans to the sea. To prevent the dangers which may arise from shoals, which shift with the frequent variations of the current, watermen are constantly employed in placing little branches of willows on these shoals, and in preceding large barges, which are commonly united to each other in numbers more or less considerable: a little boat always attends them, with a pilot to lay down the buoys. As its course, though sinuous, does not double on itself, the vessels ascending the river avail themselves of those days in which the wind blows from the sea, and fills their large sails; but the variableness of the winds precludes any calculation of the length of time which will be employed in this navigation. To confine this capacious river to its bed, a large dyke has been constructed on both its banks, from Blois to Angers; which immense work is called *les levées*, or the causeways. Its origin is traced back to the time of Charlemagne; and from that period care has been taken to keep it in repair. The height of these causeways is twenty-five feet, and their breadth is forty; the middle is paved or gravelled, and the sides are protected by parapets of earth, which are in several places sadly damaged. It is easy to perceive that a road so winding and narrow, continued to so great an extent, must be dangerous; and it often happens that melancholy accidents occur in dark nights, during thick fogs, when the horses are frightened, and when, among the multitude of drivers with which the causeway is covered,



vered, some will be careless, and others are inexpert or imprudent."

The scenery on the banks of the Loire is described in a very animated manner by Mr. Pinkney, the American traveller. "Mauves, near Nantes, is most romantically situated on a hill, which forms one of the banks of the Loire. The country about it, in the richness of its woods, and the verdure of its meadows, most strongly reminded me of England; but I know of no scenery in England, which, together with this richness and variety of woodland and meadow, has such a beautiful river as the Loire to complete it in all the qualities of landscape. On each side of this river, from Nantes, are hills, which are wooded to the summit; and there are very few of these wood-tufted hills, which have not their castle or ruined tower. From Mauves to Oudon the country is still very thickly wooded and inclosed; the properties evidently very small, and therefore innumerable cottages and small gardens. These cottages usually consist of only one floor, divided into two rooms, and a shed behind. They were generally situated in orchards, and fronted the Loire. They had invariably one or two large trees, which are decorated with ribbons at sunset, as the signal for the dance, which is invariably observed in this part of France. The Arno, as described by the Tuscan poets, for I have never seen it, must bear a strong resemblance to the Loire from Ancennis to Angers; nothing can be more beautiful than the natural distribution of lawn, wood, hill, and valley, whilst the river, which borders this scenery, is ever giving it a new form by its serpentine shape. The favourite images in the landscapes of the ancient painters here meet the eye almost every league. From the earliest times of the French monarchy, the rising grounds of the Loire have been selected for the sites of castles, monasteries, abbeys, and chateaux; and, as the possessors have superadded art to nature, this natural beauty of the grounds has been improving from age to age. The monks have been immemorially celebrated for their skill, as well in the choice of situations as in their improvement of natural advantages; their leisure, and their taste, improved by learning, have naturally been employed on the scenes of their residence, on their vineyards, and their gardens. Innumerable are the still-remaining vestiges of their taste and of their industry. Towns, windmills, steeples, ancient castles and abbeys, still entire, and others with nothing remaining but their lofty walls; hills covered with vines, and alternate woods and corn-fields; all together form a landscape, or rather a chain of landscapes, which remind one of a poem, and successively refresh, delight, animate, and exalt the imagination."

LOIRE (Lower), a department of France, bounded on the north by the departments of the Morbihan and Ille and Vilaine, on the east by the Mayne and Loire, on the south by the Vendée, and on the west by the sea; about fifty-five miles in length, and from thirty to forty-four in breadth. Nantes is the capital.

LOIRE (Upper), a department of France, bounded on the north by the department of the Puy de Dôme, on the north-east by the Rhône and Loire, on the south-east by Ardèche, on the south-west by the Lozere, and on the west by the Cantal; about fifty miles from east to west, and thirty-five from north to south. Le Puy is the capital.

LOIRET, a river of France, which runs into the Loire three miles below Orleans. It is small, but gives name to a department.

LOIRET, a department of France, bounded on the north by the departments of the Eure and Loire, Seine and Oise, and Seine and Marne; on the east by the department of the Yonne; on the south by the departments of the Nievre, Cher, and Loir and Cher; and on the west by the Loir and Cher; about sixty miles from east to west, and forty-five from north to south. Orleans is the capital.

LOIRO'N, a town of France, in the department of the Mayenne: six miles west of Laval, and twelve north of Craon.

LOIS, [Greek.] The name of a woman. *2 Tim.* i. 5.  
LOISON, a river of France, which runs into the Meuse near Montmedy.

LOI'SEY, a town of France, in the department of the Meuse: five miles east of Bar le Duc, and twelve west of Commercy.

LOI'SY, a town of France, in the department of the Marne: three miles north-west of Vitry le François.

To LOI'TER, *f.* [*loteren*, Dut.] To linger; to spend time carelessly; to idle.—If we have gone wrong, let us redeem the mistake; if we have *loitered*, let us quicken our pace, and make the most of the present opportunity. *Rogers.*

Whence this long delay?  
You *loiter*, while the spoils are thrown away. *Dryden.*

LOI'TERER, *f.* A lingerer; an idler; a lazy wretch; one who lives without business; one who is sluggish and dilatory.—The poor, by idleness or unthriftiness, are riotous spenders, vagabonds, and *loiterers*. *Hayward.*

Give gloves to thy reapers a largess to cry,  
And daily to *loiterers* have a good eye. *Tusser's Husbandry.*

LOI'TERING, *f.* The act of delaying on a journey.

LOI'TSCH, or LOG'ATEZ, a town of Upper Carniola: fifteen miles west of Laybach.

LOITOM'BA. See SAINT DOMINGO.

LOITZ, a town of Anterior Pomerania: twenty-four miles south of Stralsund, and sixteen north of Treptow. Lat. 53. 56. N. lon. 13. 5. E.

LOI'TZENDORF, a town of Austria: four miles north-west of Aggspach.

LO'KACZ, a town of Poland, in Volhynia: thirty miles west-south-west of Lucko.

LOK'ALAX, a town of Sweden, in the government of Abo: twenty-seven miles north-west of Abo.

LO'KE, in mythology, the name of one of the deities of the northern nations, answering to the Arimanius among the Persians, whom they represent as at enmity both with gods and men, and the author of all the evils which desolate the universe. Loke is described in the Edda as producing the great serpent which encircles the world; which seems to have been intended as an emblem of corruption or sin: he also gives birth to Hela, or death, the queen of the infernal regions; and also to the wolf Fenris, that monster who is to encounter the gods and destroy the world.

LOK'ET. See ELNBOGEN, vol. vi. p. 478.

LOK'MAN, surnamed *Al-Hakim*, or the Wise, a philosopher in high repute among the eastern nations, to whom is attributed a collection of maxims and fables, which convey no inelegant specimen of the moral doctrine of the ancient Arabians. Mahomet gave his name to the thirty-first chapter of the Alcoran, in which he introduces God as thus speaking: "We have given wisdom to Lokman." According to some, he was the nephew of Job, by his sister, or the son of his aunt, and consequently his cousin; but, according to others, he was the great nephew of Abraham. The greater number of the Mussulman doctors, however, deny his claim to so high an antiquity, and make him a contemporary with David and Solomon. The latter all agree, that he was a native of Ethiopia, or Nubia, and in a servile condition; his occupation being either that of a tailor, a carpenter, or a shepherd. They relate, that, after having been a slave in different countries, he was at length sold among the Israelites. His wisdom they ascribe to divine inspiration; and the account which they preserve of the manner in which he received that gift appears to have been borrowed from the scripture history of Solomon. The anecdotes which remain concerning the life of Lokman, are found scattered in the writings of several of the orientals, who have introduced them as ornaments to their poems and other works. From the selection of them made by d'Herbelot, and in the notice prefixed to Marcel's edition of Lokman's fables, we shall present our readers with some specimens, from which they



they will be able to form an idea of the wisdom attributed to this celebrated character in ancient story.

Lokman was one day seated in the midst of a circle of auditors, when a man of high rank among the Jews, observing the attention with which they listened to him, asked him if he was not that black slave whom he had seen attending the flocks of a person whom he named? Lokman said he was. The other then asked him, how, in that low condition, he had acquired the knowledge of a sage and philosopher? Lokman replied, "By following exactly these three precepts: always speak the truth, without disguise; keep, inviolably, the promises which you have made; and never meddle with what does not concern you." Being asked, at another time, from whom he had learned that wisdom and discernment, which made him shine so conspicuously on every subject, he answered, "From the blind, who will believe nothing but what they touch with their own hands." It was Lokman who first said, that "the tongue and the heart were both the best and the worst parts of men." A caravan, in which Lokman was present, having been pillaged by robbers, who could not be moved to pity by the tears and lamentations of the sufferers, one of the plundered merchants said to Lokman, "Thou shouldest have given to these robbers lessons of wisdom and good conduct; perhaps they might then have been diverted from their purpose by thy advice and remonstrances, and would have restored to us our goods, or, at least, in part repaired the heavy loss which they have occasioned us." "It would have been a much greater loss," replied Lokman, "to have thrown away lessons of wisdom on villains incapable of understanding or appreciating them. No file can polish the iron, when the rust has entirely consumed it." Being repeatedly asked whence he had drawn that treasure of virtue and wisdom, which he possessed in so eminent a degree, he answered, "From the foolish and wicked; by observing their actions, and comparing them with the dictates of my own conscience, I have learned what to perform, and what to shun." Lokman's master having one day given him a bitter melon, or coloquintida, to eat, he immediately ate it all, without showing the least repugnance. Surprised at his ready obedience, his master said to him, "How was it possible for you to eat a fruit so disagreeable to the taste?" Lokman replied, "I have received so many sweets from you, that it is not surprising I should have eaten the only bitter fruit which you have ever given me." This generous answer so forcibly struck his master, that he immediately gave him his liberty.

Some idea of the high sense which the orientals entertain of the wisdom of our philosopher, may be understood from their common use of the proverb, "To teach any thing to Lokman," which is employed to express something absolutely impossible. It is also worthy of notice, that Mahomet in the chapter of the Alcoran to which his name is prefixed, puts into Lokman's mouth these maxims concerning the unity of God, which are repeated in almost every page of that book: "And Lokman gave this lesson to his son: O my son! associate no name with that of God; for it is a very culpable error to suppose an equal to the Almighty." In this passage Mahomet uses the authority of Lokman as a support for his own opinions; which shows the high degree of esteem in which he was held by the Arabs, at the time when the koran was made public. This esteem is not in the least diminished at the present day; and several of the Mussulman doctors give him the title of saint and prophet. Some writers assert, that he embraced the Jewish religion, and entered into the service of king David, who entertained a high esteem for him; and the author of the Tarikh Montekleb informs us, that he died in Judea, at a very advanced age; and that in his time his tomb was still to be seen at Ramlah, a small town in Syria, not far from Jerusalem.

Marcel maintains, that the fables of Lokman, with those of Pilpay, may be considered as the only original pieces of composition of this species; and of which the fables of

Æsop, most of those of Phædrus, and even many of la Fontaine, are only translations and copies. "If it be true," says he, "that Æsop is not a mere fictitious personage, at least he must have existed long after Lokman. Plutarch, Suidas, and Pausanias, agree in placing Æsop about the time of Cæsus king of Lydia, and Solon legislator of the Athenians; that is to say, some time between the 46th and 55th Olympiad. Now all the oriental writers, both the Arabian and Persian, agree in placing Lokman 500 years prior to Æsop, at the same period with the reign of David over the Hebrews, and Kaykhusru over the Persians. In this case, Lokman would be the original from whom Æsop borrowed his apologues; as the latter might easily have come to the knowledge of the Arabian fabulist, during the residence which he is said to have made in the courts of different princes of Asia. But the opinion the most generally received, and which indeed is much more probable than the former, is, that Lokman is the same person, whom the Greeks, not knowing his real name, have called, in their own tongue, Αἰώπιος, or *Æsop*, a term derived from that of Αἰθίοπες, or *Ethiopian*, by a slight change, which often occurs in a word while passing from one dialect to another." And he conceives that the particulars concerning Lokman, already given from the oriental writers, many of which are also related of Æsop, serve to establish the identity between them. His hypothesis carries with it an air of plausibility; but is attended with chronological difficulties, on which we are incapable of deciding. We therefore leave it, together with the opinion of other critics, that the work attributed to Lokman seems rather to be a collection of ancient fables than the production of any one writer, to the judgment of those who may think it worthy of farther investigation. The scanty relics of the fables of Lokman were published by Erpenius, in Arabic and Latin, at the end of his Arabic grammar, in 1636 and 1656, in 4to. and Tannaquil Faber presented them to the public in elegant Latin verse. A French translation of them was published by Galland, together with those of Pilpay, in 1714, in 2 vols, 12mo. and in the year 1803, we saw announced a notice of a new edition of them, in the original Arabic, accompanied with a French translation, by citizen J. J. Marcel. *D'Herbelot's Bibl. Orient. Monthly Mag.* vol. xiv.

LOK'MAN, a town of the Arabian Irak, on the Tigris: sixteen miles north of Bagdad.

LO'KO, a small island, on the east side of the gulf of Bothnia. Lat. 60. 51. N. lon. 20. 59. E.

LOKOHA'R, a town of Hindoostan, in Bahar: thirty-six miles north-east of Durbunga.

LOKTE'VA, a town of Russia, in the government of Kolivan: thirty-six miles south-west of Kuznetzk.

LOLBAZA'R, a town of Beugal: seventeen miles south-west of Beyhar.

LOLBINIE'RE, a town of Canada, on the St. Lawrence: twenty-five miles south-west of Quebec.

LOLDONG', a town and fortress of Almora: fifty miles north-west of Collipour; and eighty-five miles north-north-east of Delhi. Lat. 29. 47. N. lon. 78. 36. E.

LOLGUN'GE, a town of Hindoostan, in Oude: sixteen miles north-east of Manickpour.

LOLGUN'GE, a town of Hindoostan, in Benares: twelve miles south-west of Merzapour.

LOLGUN'GE, a town of Hindoostan, in Oude: twenty miles south of Azemgur.

LO'LIUM, *f.* [of uncertain derivation.] DARNEL, or RAY-GRASS; in botany, a genus of the class triandria, order digynia, natural order of gramina, graminæ, or grasses. The generic characters are—Calyx: receptacle common elongated into a spike, pressing the flowers distichally spiked to the angle of the culm. Glume univalve; opposite the shaft, awl-shaped, permanent. Corolla: bivalve; valvule inferior narrow-laccolate, convolute, sharp-pointed, the length of the calyx: valve superior, shorter, linear, more obtuse, concave upwards. Nectary: two-leaved; leaflets ovate, obtuse, gibbous at the base. Stamina: filaments

three,



three, capillary, shorter than the corolla; anthers oblong. Pistillum: germ top-shaped; styles two, capillary, reflex; stigmas plumose. Pericarpium: none; corolla cherishes the seed, gapes, lets it fall. Seed: single, oblong, convex on one side, furrowed-flat on the other, compressed. The sessile spikes are placed in the same plane with the culm; hence the stem bears the office of a second calycine valve, (deficient and opposite.)—*Essential Character.* Calyx one-leaved, fixed, many-flowered.

*Species.* 1. *Lolium perenne*, perennial darnel, or ray-grass: spike awnless; spikelets compressed, longer than the calyx, and composed of several flowers. Root perennial, creeping. Stems several from the same root, prostrate or oblique at the base, but the flowering stem upright, smooth, from six inches to eighteen, twenty, and twenty-four, inches in height, according to the soil; they have several joints near the base, at a small distance from each other, but on the upper part only one or two. On a great number of plants of a middling size, three joints, and never more than four, were counted by Mr. Professor Martyn, the flowering stem running up from eleven to fourteen inches above the last joint. They are frequently russet-coloured at the joints. Leaves four or five inches long, and from two to four lines wide, lengthened out into a point; the leaf on the stem above twice as broad as those next the root and on the runners. The sheath covers the stem for several inches above the upper joint; both that and the leaves are smooth. The flowers are in a spike, which is from four to six or seven, and even nine, inches in length, composed of many (ten to eighteen) spikelets, ranged at a little distance from each other, in two rows alternately along the rachis or common receptacle. The spike is generally flat, but sometimes nearly cylindrical; and it sometimes shows a disposition to become branched, particularly towards the bottom. The rachis is flexuose, or changes its direction in a curve line from one spikelet to another; and each spikelet, being lodged at the base in a hollow of it, has no occasion for an inner valve to the calyx for protection, and therefore is not provided with one. The number of flowers in each spikelet varies from three or four to six, seven, or eight, and even sometimes nine, ten, and eleven; but six or seven is the most common number. The valve of the calyx tapers to a point; and the terminating calyx is two-leaved. The two inner husks, which are the valves of the corolla, are both of the same length, or nearly so. The germ is placed between the upper of these, and two small white semi-transparent substances, which Linnæus calls the *nectaries*. The seed easily quits the chaff.

There are many varieties of this grass, differing in size or colour of the stem and spike, as well as the number of flowers in each spikelet. The flowers are now and then found with awns or beards. The spikelets also are sometimes clustered, and sometimes branched.

Perennial darnel is common in most parts of Europe, by way-sides and in pastures, flowering in June. It is called in English *ray-grass*, from the French *ivraie*, (tare,) which is their name for *L. temulentum*; and they call this *fausse ivraie*. It is corruptly called by farmers *rye-grass*; but this grass bears no resemblance to rye; and that is a name appropriate to a very different grass, *Hordeum pratense*. Mr. Ray names our *ray-grass red darnel-grass*; in some places it is called *crap*; in Devonshire, *eaver*; in Norfolk, *white nonfuch*. In German it has many names; as *perennirende* or *dauernde lolch*, *winter lolch*, *fusser lolch*, &c. In Danish, *raigræs*; in Swedish, *renvepe*, *Engelmans rjegræs*; in Italian, *loglio vivace*. In Spanish *ballico*, *vallico*; in Portuguese, *joyo vivace*; in Russian, *pschanez*.

How long *ray-grass* may have been in cultivation, we are not able to ascertain. We may, however, venture to fix the introduction of it after the middle of the last century. For not only Gerard in 1597, his republisher Johnson in 1633, and Parkinson in 1640, give not the least hint of any use to which this grass is applied; but none

of the writers on husbandry before the restoration, as Sir Hugh Plat, Googe, Markham, Sir Richard Welton, Hartlib, Gabriel Plattes, Blieth, or Yarranton, say a word in its commendation, or even insinuate that this, or any particular species of grass, properly so called, was sown in laying down land. The first mention made of it for cultivation is in Dr. Plot's Oxfordshire, printed in 1677. "They have lately sown, says he, *ray-grass*, or the *gramen loliacum*, by which they improve any cold, soft, clay-weeping, ground, for which it is best; but good also for drier upland grounds, especially light stony or sandy land, which is unfit for saint foyn. It was first sown in the Chiltern parts of Oxfordshire, and since brought nearer Oxford by one Mr. Eustace, an ingenious husbandman of Ilip, who, though at first laughed at, has since been followed even by those very persons that scorned his experiment; it having precedence of all other grasses, in that it takes almost in all sorts of poor land, endures the drought of summer best, and in the spring is the earliest grass of any, and cannot at that time be overstocked, its being kept down making it sweeter and better-beloved by cattle than any other grass; nay sometimes they have been known to leave meadow-hay to feed on this; but of all other cattle it is best for horses, it being hard hay; and for sheep, if unsound, it having been known by experience to have worked good cures on them; and in other respects the best winter grass that grows." Ray, in his History, (1688,) relates, that it is sown in a few places, and that it is excellent for fattening bullocks. In the third volume of the Oxford History of Plants by Morison and Bobart, (1699,) it is said, that the seeds are gathered and sown in stiff and moist land; and that it is much esteemed under the name of *ray-grass*, as food for sheep and other cattle. According to Stillingfleet, "it makes a most excellent turf on sound rich land, where it will remain. Many, he adds, are tempted, by the facility of procuring the seed of this grass, to lay down grounds near their houses, where they want to have a fine turf with it; for which purpose, unless the soil be very rich, a worse grass cannot be sown, as it will certainly die off in a very few years entirely." This gentleman thinks that *ray-grass* does not feed good venison; and presumes from hence that it is not proper for sheep, having always observed that the same kind of ground which yields good venison, yields also good mutton. If it be the natural produce of very strong or wet lands, this is easily accounted for. In such situations it is by no means unprolific of leaves; but in dry upland pastures it runs much to stalks or bents. It is not well adapted to form a lawn, its foliage being of quick growth, and its flowering stems continually shooting forth. Mr. Miller says, that *ray-grass* will succeed better than any other sort in strong cold land, and is an earlier feed in the spring; but that it is a very coarse grass, becoming very hard and wiry unless it be cut early, so that few cattle care to eat it. He remarks, that it has few leaves, and runs much to stalk or bents, or, as it is called in some counties, *ben-net*. When this grass is fed, therefore, he recommends the bents to be mown off. He adds, that there is another species (variety) called red darnel, which is of a worse nature than the other; the stalks growing hard much sooner, and having narrower leaves. It is very common in most pasture grounds; for, as it comes early to flower, the seeds are generally ripe before the hay is cut. This variety is the produce chiefly of dry pastures, where *ray-grass* certainly produces little else besides stalks.

How this species came to be selected originally for cultivation, we cannot say. If it was not accident, it was perhaps because it is common, and the seeds easily collected. That it should now be the only sort of seed which is to be had in any quantity in the shops, is a disgrace to us, since the best sorts have been so repeatedly pointed out by Mr. Curtis and others, and premiums offered for collecting them, during so many years, by the



Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce. See the article GRASS, vol. viii. p. 796, 8, 9, and Plate II. fig. 9.

2. *Lolium tenue*, or small darnel: spike awnless, round; spikelets three-flowered. This is smaller than the preceding. It is distinguished by the tenuity of the culm and spike; which last is cylindrical and awnless; the spikelets are three-flowered. It is generally looked upon to be no more than a starved variety of *L. perenne*. Native of France and Germany.

3. *Lolium temulentum*, annual darnel, or bearded ray-grass: spike awned; spikelets compressed, many-flowered. Root annual. Stems or culms from two to three feet in height, upright, round, especially near the spike, rough when stroked upwards, having three, four, or five, joints. Leaves flat, pointed, from nine inches to a foot or more in length, and three or four lines in breadth; the upper surface rough when stroked upwards, the lower smooth.

Annual darnel is a native of most parts of Europe, Japan, the Cape of Good Hope, &c. Though there can be no doubt of its being a distinct species from the perennial darnel, yet we are at a loss for specific distinctions; for that has sometimes awns to the flowers, and this, not unfrequently, has none. This however is annual, taller and larger in every respect, and of a paler hue. Its place of growth is also different; for it is a weed among corn, especially wheat and barley, and also among flax. It flowers in July and August, later than *L. perenne*.

The flour of the seeds, mixed with wheat-flour, produces disorders in the human body, as vomiting, purging, and violent cholics; but it has not a sensible effect, unless taken in considerable quantity, or, according to Linnæus, unless it be eaten hot. The seed, malted with barley, soon occasions drunkenness; hence (some say) the French name *ivraie*, and by corruption our English *ray*. In Yorkshire it is called *droke*; and in Ireland, *sturdy*. In Germany, *Jakrige lolch*, *germaie lolch*, *somme lolch*, &c. in Denmark, *heyre*, *heyregras*, *swingel*, *dude*; in Sweden, *darrepe*; in Italy, *loglio*, *gioglio*, *zizania*; in Spain, *joyo*, *cizana*, *zizana*; in Portugal, *zizania bastarda*; in Russia, *kukol*.

Ovid unites it with *tribulus*, infesting wheat:

*Lolium tribulique fatigant*  
Triticeas messes inexpugnabile gramen. Met. l. 5.

Virgil joins it with the wild oat, as a weed among crops in general:

Interque nitentia culta  
*Infelix lolium* & steriles dominantur avenæ. Georg. i. 153.

The epithet *infelix* is probably given it not only from its deleterious qualities, and as being a weed amongst corn, but probably alluding to an idea, long prevalent, that corn was transformed into it. This opinion of the change of one kind of gramineous plant into another, as wheat into rye, rye into barley, barley into darnel, darnel into bromegrass; and of the latter, by becoming oats or rye, in a fertile soil, returning again to a more improved state—all this, however absurd, was so generally believed, that Linnæus thought proper to write a dissertation against it. See *Transmutatio Frumentorum*, Amoen. Acad. v. 5. 106. The fact is, that in very wet seasons, and among very bad husbandmen, darnel has so far prevailed as to suffocate the wheat, and to take its place.

There is a variety of this without awns, and with a smooth culm, which withering makes a distinct species, under the name of *L. arvense*, or white darnel.

4. *Lolium bromoides*, or sea-darnel: panicle simple, pointing one way; spikelets awned. Root annual. Culms several, from six inches to a foot in height, oblique, round, smooth, somewhat branched. Native of England, on the sea-coast, in loose sand; flowering in May and June.

5. *Lolium distachyon*, or double-spiked Indian darnel: spikes in pairs, calyxes one-flowered, corollas woolly. Culms decumbent, branched at the base; the flowering ones rising a foot high, filiform, narrow, even. Native of Malsbar. Observed by Kœnig.

*Propagation and Culture.* Ray-grass is usually sown with clover, upon such lands as are designed to be ploughed again in a few years; and the common method is to sow it with spring-corn; but from many repeated trials, it has been found, that by sowing these seeds in August, when there has happened a few showers to bring up the grass, that the crop has answered much better than any which has been sown in the common way; for the grass has often been so rank, as to afford a good feed the same autumn; and the following spring there has been a ton and a half of hay per acre mowed very early in the season; and this has been upon cold sour land; so that this seems to be the best season for sowing these grasses, though it will be very difficult to persuade those persons to alter their practice, who have been long wedded to old customs. The quantity of seed to an acre is about two bushels, and eight pounds of the common clover, which, together, will make as good plants upon the ground as can be desired; but this is not to be practised upon lands where the beauty of the verdure is principally regarded, but is fit only for those who have profit in view. When this grass is fed, mow off the bents in the beginning of June, otherwise they will dry upon the ground, and have the appearance of a stubble-field all the latter part of summer; and will not only be disagreeable to the sight, but troublesome to the cattle, who will not touch them. By permitting them to stand, the after-growth of the grass is greatly retarded, and the beautiful verdure lost for three or four months, so that it is good husbandry to mow the bents before they grow too dry, and rake them off the ground; if they are then made into hay, it will serve for cart-horses or dry cows in winter.

Dr. Anderson affirms, that ray-grass requires a deep open loose deafish soil, tending to dampness, to bring it to full perfection. On a soil of this sort he has measured several stalks above six feet in length. He observes that foot, which does not promote the growth of clover, has a surprising effect upon that of ray-grass. Mr. Kent says, that ray-grass is sown with clover at the rate of a quarter of a peck to an acre, or by itself at the rate of two pecks to an acre, or in the proportion of a gallon to an acre, with eight pounds of clean trefoil; that all cattle are particularly fond of it in the spring, but towards midsummer the stalks become dry, and cattle then refuse them; that therefore this grass should be kept down by being constantly fed. When mixed with clover and mowed for hay, it may however be spring-fed, and is even the better for it, because it would otherwise be ripe before the clover. When sown with clover, its greatest advantage is experienced in the second and third years; for, as the clover declines, this increases in proportion. When mixed with trefoil, it is a very good grass upon light land, designed to continue several years in sheep-pasture.

In Norfolk, the second year's lay of ray-grass and clover is invariably pastured; the spring-shoot being usually expended in finishing or topping-up turnip-fed bullocks; for which purpose no vegetable is perhaps superior to ray-grass. Store-cattle follow the bullocks, and keep possession of the lays till they are broken up for wheat, in July, August, September, or October. Next to saintfoin, ray-grass is in the highest esteem with the Cotswold farmers. Not only the green herbage, but the hay, is there considered as superiorly nutritious. Bullocks are finished with ordinary barley and ray-grass hay; that is, not with the straw of ray-grass, but with the herbage cut in a state of succulency, and properly made. If suffered to stand too long before it be mown, the hay will of course be ordinary. If suffered to run up in the spring before stock be turned upon it, much of it will be left uneaten. If the seed sown be foul, the herbage will be of a bad quality. Under bad management the succeeding wheat-crop will be unprofitable. The seed should be winnowed, and freed from the seeds of weeds, as carefully as the seed of wheat or other grain.

If ray-grass be intended for pasturage, it ought to be broken as early in spring as the land will bear stock, which



ought to be so proportioned, that it never can get above a moderate bite. If it be shut up for hay, it ought to be mown as soon as the seed-stems are fully formed, before the flowers come out. If it be intended for seed, it ought to stand until the flowers be fully blown; but it must not be expected, in this case, that the straw will prove hay.

As a spring-feed, ray-grass is preferable to every other grass; and in autumn it renews its nutritious bite. This property, added to its productiveness, and to the facility with which its seeds may be collected in quantity, give it a decided pre-eminence to every other blade-grass at present known. But this, like other early grasses, remains in a great measure unproductive during the summer-months. This renders it improper to be sown alone, for pasturage; and white clover, the trefoils, or other summer-herbage, should be cultivated with it. In general, where prejudices have arisen against ray-grass, it has been because bad seed has been sown, or because the soil is improper for it, or that the management has been faulty.

Annual dandelion is very injurious to a wheat-crop; but may easily be avoided, as it is sown along with the seed, from which it may be separated by the sieve; and, not being a root-weed, it is unparadonable to suffer it to increase to any considerable degree. See *AGROSTEMMA* and *CYNOSURUS*.

To LOLL, *v. n.* [Etymology not known: perhaps contemptuously derived from *Lollard*, a name of great reproach before the reformation; of whom one tenet was, that all trades not necessary to life are unlawful.] To lean idly; to rest lazily against any thing.—So hangs, and lolls, and weeps, upon me; so shakes and pulls me. *Shakespeare's Othello*.

A lazy *lolling* sort  
Of ever-listless loit'ners.

*Dunciad*.

To hang out: used of the tongue hanging out in weariness or play:

The triple porter of the Stygian feat  
With *lolling* tongue lay fawning at thy feet. *Dryden*.  
With harmless play amidst the bowls he pass'd,  
And with his *lolling* tongue assay'd the taste. *Dryden*.

To LOLL, *v. a.* To put out: used of the tongue extended:

All authors to their own defects are blind;  
Hadst thou but, Janus-like, a face behind,  
To see the people, when they play mouths they make,  
To mark their fingers pointed at thy back,  
Their tongues *loll'd* out a foot. *Dryden's Persius*.

LOLLARDS. Most ecclesiastical writers affirm, that the Lollards were a particular sect, who differed from the church of Rome in many religious points; and that Walter Lollhard, who was burnt in the fourteenth century for heresy, was their founder. Dr. Mosheim, however, has shown in the most satisfactory manner, that the term *Lollhard* was not a surname appropriate to any particular individual, but applied indifferently to various religious communities.

The monk of Canterbury derives the origin of the word Lollard among us, from *lolium*, a tare; as if the Lollards were the tares sown in Christ's vineyard. Abelly says, that the word Lollard signifies "praising God," from the German *loben*, to praise, and *herr*, Lord; because the Lollards employed themselves in travelling about from place to place, singing psalms and hymns. Others, much to the same purpose, derive *lollhard*, *lullhard*, *lollert*, or *lullert*, as it was written by the ancient Germans, from the old German word *lullen*, *lollen*, or *lallen*, and the termination *hard*, with which many of the High Dutch words end. *Lollen* signifies "to sing with a low voice," and therefore Lollard is a singer, or one who frequently sings; and in the vulgar tongue of the Germans it denotes a person who is continually praising God with a

song, or singing hymns to his honour. The Alexians, or Cellites, were called *Lollards*, because they were public singers who made it their business to enter the bodies of those who died of the plague, and sang a dirge over them in a mournful and indistinct tone as they carried them to the grave. The name was afterwards assumed by persons that dishonoured it; for we find that, among those Lollards who made extraordinary pretences to piety and religion, and spent the greatest part of their time in meditation, prayer, and such acts of piety, there were many abominable hypocrites, who entertained the most ridiculous opinions, and concealed the most enormous vices under the specious mask of this extraordinary profession. And many injurious aspersions were propagated against those who assumed this name by the priests and monks; so that, by degrees, any person who covered heresies or crimes under the appearance of piety, was called a *Lollard*. Thus the name was not used to denote any one particular sect, but was formerly common to all persons and all sects who were supposed to be guilty of impiety towards God or the church, under an external profession of extraordinary piety. However, many societies consisting both of men and women under the name of *Lollards*, were formed in most parts of Germany and Flanders, and were supported partly by their manual labour, and partly by the charitable donations of pious persons. The magistrates and inhabitants of the towns where these brethren and sisters resided, gave them particular marks of favour and protection, on account of their great usefulness to the sick and needy. They were thus supported against their malignant rivals, and obtained many papal constitutions, by which their institute was confirmed, their persons exempted from the cognizance of the inquisitors, and subjected entirely to the jurisdiction of the bishops; but, as these measures were insufficient to secure them from molestation, Charles duke of Burgundy, in the year 1472, obtained a solemn bull from pope Sixtus IV. ordering that the *Cellites*, or *Lollards*, should be ranked among the religious orders, and be delivered from the jurisdiction of the bishops; and pope Julius II. granted them yet greater privileges in the year 1506. Mosheim informs us that many societies of this kind are still subsisting at Cologne, and in the cities of Flanders, though they have evidently departed from their ancient rules.

Walter, who was burnt at Cologne, is by some called a *Beggard*, by others a *Lollard*, and by others a *Minorite*. This Walter was a Dutchman by birth, who was distinguished for his eloquence, and became the chief leader and champion of the Beggards upon the Rhine. Having been driven by persecution from Upper Germany, he removed from Mentz to Cologne, where he was arrested by the inquisition. Being tried for heresy, and refusing to renounce the opinions of the mystics which he had embraced, he was condemned to the flames. To this cruel punishment he submitted, with the fortitude and cheerfulness of a primitive martyr, in the year 1322. We are told that Walter the Lollard and his followers rejected the sacrifice of the mass, extreme unction, and penances for sin; arguing, that Christ's sufferings were sufficient. He is likewise said to have set aside baptism, as a thing of no effect; and repentance, as not absolutely necessary, &c.

In England, the followers of Wickliffe were called, by way of reproach, *Lollards*, from some affinity there was between some of their tenets; though others are of opinion that the English Lollards came from Germany. They were solemnly condemned by the archbishop of Canterbury and the council of Oxford.

LOLLARDY, *f.* The doctrine of Lollards.—*Lollardy* was made a temporal offence, and indictable in the king's courts. *Blackstone*.

LOLLGUN'GE, a town of Bengal: twenty miles east-north-east of Purneah.

LOLLIA PAULLINA, a beautiful woman, who married Caius Cæsar, and afterwards Caligula. She was divorced and put to death by means of Agrippina. *Tacitus*.

LOLLIANUS



LOLLIANUS SPURIUS, a Roman general, proclaimed emperor by his soldiers in Gaul, and soon after murdered.

LOLLJEE, a town of Thibet: 110 miles north of Gorah. Lat. 30. 15. N. lon. 84. 23. E.

LOLLING, *f.* The act of lounging or leaning.

LOLLIUS, a companion and tutor of C. Cæsar, the son-in-law of Tiberius. He was consul, and offended Augustus by his rapacity in the provinces. Horace has addressed two of his epistles to him.

LOLLONADO, a town of the island of Cuba: 146 miles south-west of Havanna.

LOLOS, the name of a particular people dispersed through the province of Yun-nan, in China, distinct from the Chinese. They were formerly governed by their own sovereigns; but, upon submitting to the emperor of China, they obtained peculiar privileges. These people are well made, and inured to labour. They have a peculiar language of their own, (as hinted under the article LANGUAGE, vol. xii. p. 174.) and a mode of writing which seems to be the same with that of the bonzes of Pegu and Ava. These cunning priests have acquired an influence over the Lolos in the western part of Yun-nan, and have introduced among them the worship and religious ceremonies of their country; and they have even induced them to build large temples of a different architecture from that of the Chinese. The princes of the Lolos are absolute masters of their subjects, and have a right of punishing them, even by death, without waiting for the answer of the viceroy. These princes have many officers and men under their command; and their militia is composed of cavalry and infantry, who are armed with bows and lances, and sometimes muskets. The iron and copper mines which are lodged in their mountains, enable them to make their own armour. These mountains also abound with mines of gold and silver. The dress of the Lolos consists of plain drawers, a vest of cotton hanging to their knees, and a straw hat; their legs are bare, and they wear only sandals. The women have a long robe, covering the whole body down to the feet, above which they tie a small cloak that reaches no further than the girdle. In this dress they appear on horseback, at marriage-ceremonies, or when they pay visits, accompanied by the females in their train, who are also on horseback, and by several domestics. *Grolier.*

LOLPOUR, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Jyenagur: fifteen miles south-south-east of Jyepour.

LOM, a river of European Turkey, which runs into the Danube near Lomgrad in Bulgaria.

LOM, a town on the east coast of the island of Gilolo. Lat. 0. 16. S. lon. 128. E.

LOM-PIN, a town of China, of the third rank, in the province of Pe-tche-li: twenty-five miles north-east of Chunte.

LOM'ABLEM, or LOM'BLEM, an island in the Eastern Indian Sea, about 120 miles in circumference. Lat. 8. 18. S. lon. 123. 56. E.

LO'MAN, a river of England, which rises in Somersetshire, and runs into the Ex at Tiverton in Devonshire.

LOMA'RIA, a town of France, on the island of Belle-Ile: three miles south-east of Le Palais.

LOMA'TIA, *f.* [from *λωμα*, Gr. a border; because the seeds are terminated by a bordered ring.] In botany, a genus of the class tetrandria, order monogynia, natural order proteaceæ. *Brown*, 389. The generic characters are—Calyx: none. Corolla: petals four, irregular, distinct, oblong, obliquely twisted toward one side; their summits dilated, concave, bearing the stamens. Nectary: three glands at one side of the base of the stalk supporting the germen. Stamina: filaments four, extremely short, in the hollows of the petals; antheræ roundish, sunk in the said hollows. Pistillum: germen superior, stalked, half-ovate, erect; style permanent, incurved; stigma oblique, dilated, roundish, nearly flat. Pericarpium: follicle stalked, half-ovate, coriaceous, crowned

with the style of one cell. Seeds: many, imbricated in two rows, elliptical, compressed, with a terminal bordered wing, whose disk is without veins.—*Essential Character.* Petals four, irregular, stamens sunk in the cavities of the limb; three glands, on one side, at the base of the stalk of the germen; stigma oblique, flattish; follicle coriaceous, of one cell; seeds many, with a terminal bordered wing. The genus is hardly distinguished from EMBOTHRUM, which see, vol. vi. p. 499, 500.

*Species.* 1. *Lomatia filifolia*, or cut-leaved lomatia. See EMBOTHRUM filifolium.

2. *Lomatia tinctoria*, or colouring lomatia: leaves once or twice pinnatifid, or undivided, smooth; segments pectinate, single-ribbed, almost veinless, bluntnish, pointed; clusters elongated, smooth, unbranched. Gathered by Labillardiere and Brown in hilly places and fields at Van Diemen's Land. The stem is six feet high. Leaves very various, usually very neatly pinnatifid, with numerous, parallel, linear-lanceolate, sometimes subdivided, segments; more rarely undivided, slightly notched at the tip. The sulphur-coloured powder which covers the seeds, is said by Labillardiere to give out a rose-coloured dye to water.

3. *Lomatia ferruginea*, or rusty lomatia: leaves doubly pinnatifid, downy; segments ovate or lanceolate; clusters shorter than the leaves. Gathered by Louis Née at St. Carlos de Chiloe, South America, in places occasionally overflowed by the sea, flowering in February. The stem is ten or twelve feet high, rarely straight; branches downy. Leaves doubly pinnatifid, acute; the down of the young ones rusty, of the old ones grey. Petals red within; yellowish-green without.

4. *Lomatia polymorpha*, or various-leaved lomatia: leaves linear lanceolate; entire, toothed, or pinnatifid; downy, like the branches and flower-stalks, beneath; clusters corymbose, terminal; corolla somewhat hairy; pistil very smooth. Gathered on the southern hills of Van Diemen's Land, by Mr. Brown, who conceives this species to have been confounded by Labillardiere under our second, when he says "the leaves of that are sometimes besprinkled at their back with short rusous down." Two varieties of *L. polymorpha* are indicated: one whose leaves are undivided, their downiness grey, and their seed-vessels but half an inch long; the other with generally cut or pinnatifid leaves, rusty underneath, and their seed-vessels near an inch in length.

5. *Lomatia ilicifolia*, or ilex-leaved lomatia: leaves oblong-ovate, acute, with fine spinous teeth, reticulated, quite smooth, as well as their footstalks; clusters elongated, terminal. Native of barren fields at the sides of hills on the southern coast of New Holland, near Port Phillip, where Mr. Brown gathered it, after the flowers were fallen.

6. *Lomatia longifolia*, or long-leaved lomatia: leaves linear-lanceolate, elongated, smooth, distantly serrated; clusters axillary; flower-stalks and corolla rather hairy; pistil very smooth. Gathered by Mr. David Burton, as well as Mr. Brown, on the stony banks of rivers and rivulets near Port Jackson. This is a branched bushy shrub, with angular young branches, clothed with rusty hairs, as are also the flower-stalks, bractes, and in some degree the flowers. The leaves are numerous, alternate, on short broadish stalks, lanceolate, acute, veiny, three or four inches long, about half an inch broad, smooth, except the lower portion of their rib at the upper side; sharply and distantly serrated upwards, tapering and mostly entire in their lower half.

7. *Lomatia dentata*, or toothed lomatia: leaves oval, with tooth-like serratures, smooth, as well as their footstalks; clusters lateral, short; corolla hairy; germen downy. Native of woods and groves in Chili.

8. *Lomatia obliqua*, or oblique lomatia: leaves ovate, serrated, smooth; clusters axillary; flower-stalks and corolla hairy; stigma deciduous. Found on hills in the provinces of Chili and Puchacay. *Linn. Transf.* vol. x.

LOMA'ZY,



LOMA'ZY, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Brzesc: thirty-six miles south-south-west of Brzesc.

LOMAZ'ZI (Giampaolo), an artist and writer, was a native of the Milanese, and born in 1538. He learned the art of painting from G. Battista della Cerra, and practised it with reputation in the branches of history, portrait, and landscape, at Milan, Piacenza, and other cities. He is, however, chiefly known for his work on painting, composed after he had the misfortune to lose his sight in his thirty-third year. It was printed at Milan, in 1584, with the title of *Trattato dell' Arte della Pittura*; to which in the following year was added in the title-page, *Scoltura ed Architetture*, though he says nothing of these two arts. Upon painting he has collected every thing belonging to the subject, both historical and preceptive; and his work still retains the reputation it first acquired. He wrote likewise, upon the same topic, *Idea del Tempio della Pittura*, and a work *Della Forma delle Muse*. Lomazzi had likewise a talent for poetry, and published seven books of *Rime*. He was fond of that kind of jocular verse, which at Milan is called *lingua facchinesca*, and was at the head of an academy formed for cultivating it, named Della Valle di Bregno. He appears to have been in good circumstances, since he is said to have had in his house a collection of four thousand pieces of the first painters. When he died is uncertain. Two medals struck in his honour are extant. *Tiraboschi*.

LOM'BA, *f.* in botany. See PIPER.

LOMBARD (Peter), a celebrated bishop of Paris in the twelfth century, and known among the scholastics by the title of *Master of the Sentences*, was a native of Novara in Lombardy, from which country he derived his surname. He commenced his academical studies at Bologna, where there was at that time a famous university, particularly noted for its eminent professors of civil law. But, as the French universities were in higher repute for their professors of divinity, which was principally the object of Peter's attention, he came to a determination to pursue his theological studies in that country. In this design he was encouraged by the bishop of Lucca, from whom he received a letter of recommendation to St. Bernard, who furnished him with the means of support while he studied at Rheims; and, when he afterwards removed to Paris, St. Bernard obtained for him the patronage of Gildin, abbot of St. Victor, who took the same care of his maintenance. In this university he soon acquired a high reputation for his learning as a divine, and was nominated to the chair of that faculty. He is also styled president of the university by contemporary writers. The first promotion which he obtained in the church was a canonry of Chartres; which was followed by his elevation to the episcopal dignity, for which he was indebted to the regard entertained for him by an illustrious pupil, Philip, son of king Louis the Gros. That prince, who was educated an ecclesiastic, and filled the post of arch-deacon of Paris in the year 1159, when a vacancy took place in the see of that city, was elected bishop by the chapter. With singular disinterestedness, however, Philip declined that dignity in favour of his old master, both out of respect for his extraordinary learning, and as a mark of his great personal regard for him. This dignity our prelate enjoyed but for a short period, since he died in the year 1164.

Lombard's celebrity for ages in the schools, and the title by which we have already seen he was distinguished, were derived from a work, entitled *Sententiarum Lib. IV.* in which, after the method of Augustine, he has endeavoured to illustrate the doctrines of the church, by a collection of sentences and passages drawn from the fathers, whose manifold contradictions he has attempted to reconcile. It may be considered as a complete body of divinity, according to that scholastic system of sophistry and chicanery, which had just before been introduced by the subtle Peter Abelard, and which perplexed and obscured the divine doctrines and precepts of the Gospel by a mul-

titude of vain questions and idle speculations. However, it was perfectly adapted to the taste of the dark age in which it made its appearance; and was not only received with almost universal applause, but acquired also such a high degree of authority, as induced the most learned doctors in all places to employ their labours in illustrating and expounding it: the abbé Fleury makes the number of commentators on it amount to two hundred and forty-four. The first edition of this work was published at Venice in 1477, in folio; and it afterwards underwent a multitude of impressions at different places. Cave observes, that John of Cornwall, a disciple of Peter Lombard, says that the latter was not a little indebted to the books of sentences of Peter Abelard, in compiling his work. And others add, that he made a very free use of the writings of Bandinus, an obscure and almost unknown divine, author of *Sententiarum Theologicarum Lib. IV.* published at Vienna in 1519. There certainly is a very striking resemblance between the two performances, the principal difference consisting in the greater prolixity of Lombard's work; but it is impossible to ascertain which of the two authors was the copyist of the other. Those who have any curiosity to examine this point, are recommended to consult Thomasius, *De Plagio Literario*, § 493—502. Peter Lombard was also the author of, 2. *Glossæ*, seu *Commentarius in Psalmos Davidis*, published at Paris, in 1551, folio; and, 3. *Collectanea in omnes Divi Pauli Epistolæ*, ex Ambrosio, Hieronymo, Augustino, aliisque *Scriptoribus contexta*, published at the same place in 1535, folio: in both which he has adopted the same method as in his book of sentences. *Maclaine's Mosheim. Cave's Hist. Lit.*

LOMBARDS, [or rather LANGOBARDS, which was their original name, deduced from the peculiar length and fashion of their beards.] A tribe of people who arose from an obscure and small beginning to occupy a considerable rank in Europe. The Scandinavian origin of these people is maintained by Paul the Deacon, contested by Cluverius, and defended by Grotius. It would be tedious, and also unsatisfactory to the reader, if we were to make an attempt at pursuing the migrations of the Lombards through unknown regions and marvellous adventures. About the time of Augustus and Trajan these fierce people were discovered between the Elbe and the Oder. They were fierce beyond the example of the Germans; and they took pleasure in propagating the tremendous belief, that their heads were formed like the heads of dogs, and that they drank the blood of their enemies whom they vanquished in battle. From the north they gradually descended towards the south and the Danube; and, after an interval of 400 years, they again appeared with their ancient valour and renown.

A nation called the *Lombards* is mentioned by Tacitus, Strabo, and Ptolemy; but these are different from the Lombards who afterwards settled in Italy, and are reckoned to be the same with the Gepidæ, whom the Italian Lombards almost exterminated. The Lombards who settled in Italy are first mentioned by Prosper Aquitanus, bishop of Rhegium in the year 379. That writer tells us, that about this time the Lombards, abandoning the most distant coasts of the ocean, and their native country Scandinavia, and seeking for new settlements, as they were overstocked with people at home, first attacked and overcame the Vandals in Germany. They were then headed by two chiefs, Iboreus and Aion; who, dying about the year 389, were succeeded by Agilmund, who is commonly reckoned the first king of the Lombards.

Before the time of Odoacer, the Lombard history affords nothing remarkable; in his time, however, they settled on the Danube, in the country of the Rugians, whom Odoacer had almost totally exterminated or carried into captivity. During their stay in this country, they rendered themselves formidable to the neighbouring nations, and carried on successful wars with the Heruli and Gepidæ. In 526, they were allowed by the emperor Justi-



nian to settle in Pannonia; and here they made war a second time with the Gepidæ. Alboinus, the Lombard king, killed the king of the Gepidæ with his own hand, put his army to the rout, and cut such numbers of them in pieces, that they ceased from that time to be a nation. Having caused the deceased king's head to be cut off, he made a cup of his skull, which he made use of in all public entertainments. However, having taken, among many other captives of great distinction, the late king's daughter, by name Rosamunda, he married her after the death of his former wife Clodisvinta, the daughter of Clotaire king of France.

By this victory Alboinus gained such reputation, that his friendship was courted by Justinian; and, in consequence of the emperor's application, a body of 6000 Lombards were sent to the assistance of Narfes against the Goths. The success of the Romans in this expedition has been detailed in the history of the GOTHs, vol. viii. p. 736, 7. and the invasion of Italy by the Lombards, and their successes in that country, under ITALY, vol. xi. p. 453. At last Alboinus, having made himself master of Venetia, Liguria, Æmilia, Hetruria, and Umbria, was slain by the treachery of his wife, in the year 575, the fourth of his reign. This princess was the daughter of the king of the Gepidæ, whom Alboinus had killed in battle, and made a cup of his skull, as above related. As he was one day feasting at Verona, with his chief favourites and principal officers, in the height of his mirth he sent for the queen, and, filling the detested cup, commanded her to drink merrily with her father. Rosamund, struck with horror, hurried out of the room; and, highly incensed against her husband for thus barbarously triumphing over the misfortunes of her family, resolved, at all events, to make him pay dear for such an inhuman and affronting conduct. Accordingly, she discovered her intention to Helmichild the king's shield-bearer, a youth of great boldness and intrepidity. Helmichild peremptorily refused to imbrue his hands in the blood of his sovereign, or to be any way accessory to his death; and in this resolution he persisted, till he was, by a shameful stratagem, forced by the queen to a compliance: for she, knowing that he carried on an intrigue with one of her ladies, placed herself one night in her bed, and, receiving the youth, indulged him as if she had been his own mistress in his amorous desires; which she had no sooner done, than, discovering herself to the deceived lover, she told him that he must now either put the king to death, or be put to death by him. Helmichild, well apprised, that, after what had happened, his safety depended upon the death of the king, engaged in the treason which he otherwise abhorred. One day, therefore, while Alboinus was reposing in his chamber after dinner, Helmichild, with some others whom he had made privy to his design, breaking in unexpectedly, fell upon the king with their daggers. Alboinus, starting up at their first coming in, laid hold of his sword, which he had always by him; but having in vain attempted to draw it, as the queen had before-hand fastened it in the scabbard, he defended himself for some time with a footstool; but was in the end overpowered, and dispatched with many wounds.

Rosamund had promised to Helmichild, that, as soon as he had dispatched the king, she would marry him, and, with her person, bestow upon him the kingdom of the Lombards. The first part of her promise she immediately performed; but was so far from being able to bestow the crown upon him, that both of them were obliged to save themselves by flight. They fled to Longinus the exarch of Ravenna, taking with them all the jewels and treasure of the late king. Longinus received her with the greatest marks of friendship and kindness, and assured her of his protection. She had not been long in Ravenna, however, before the exarch, judging that a favourable opportunity now offered of making himself king of Italy by her means, imparted his design to her, and declared his intention to marry her, provided, by some means or other, she dis-

patched Helmichild. Rosamund, highly pleased with the proposal, resolved to satisfy her ambition by getting rid of the person whom she had married in order to gratify her revenge. Accordingly, having prepared a strong poison, she mixed it with wine, and gave it to her husband as he came out of the bath, and called for drink, according to his custom. Helmichild had not half emptied the cup, when, by the sudden and strange operation which he felt in his frame, he concluded what it was; and, with his sword pointed at the queen's breast, compelled her to drink the rest. The poison had the same effect on both; for they died in a few hours. Longinus, on the death of the queen, laid aside all thoughts of making himself king of Italy, and sent the king's treasure to Constantinople, together with Albisinda, the daughter of Alboinus by Rosamund, whom she had brought with her.

After the death of Alboinus, the Lombards chose Clephis, one of the nobility, for their king. He was murdered after a short reign of eighteen months; upon which ensued an interregnum of ten years. During this time, they extended their conquests in Italy; but at last the Romans, jealous of their progress, resolved to put a stop to their victories; and, if possible, to drive them quite out. For this purpose, they designed not only to employ their own force, but entered into alliance with the Franks; which so alarmed the Lombards, that they re-established the monarchical form of government among themselves, and chose Autharis, the son of Clephis, for their king. This monarch, considering that the power of the *dukes*, who had governed Lombardy for the space of ten years, was during that length of time very much established, and that they would not probably be willing to part with the authority which they had so long enjoyed, allowed them to continue in their government; but obliged them to contribute one moiety of their revenues towards the maintenance and support of his royal dignity, suffering them to dispose of the other as they thought proper. He reserved to himself the supreme dominion and authority; and took an oath of the dukes, that, in time of war, they would assist him to the utmost of their power. Though he could remove the dukes at pleasure, yet he deprived none of them of their dukedoms, except in cases of treason; nor gave them to others, except when their male issue failed: and this was the origin of fiefs in Italy. Some, indeed, have imagined that fiefs were first introduced by the Lombards, and from them adopted by other nations; but it appears that fiefs had been introduced into Gaul by the Franks some years before the reign of Autharis, who first established them in Italy. All the customs and laws which were afterwards introduced and published concerning fiefs, are owing to the Lombards, who gave them a certain and regular form; so that, among all other nations, successions, acquisitions, investitures, and every thing else relating to fiefs, were regulated by the customs and laws of the Lombards. Hereupon a new body of laws sprang up, which were called *feudal laws*, and which continued in some provinces of Italy, and particularly in the kingdom of Naples, to be the chief part of the jurisprudence. Autharis, having settled matters with the dukes in the manner now mentioned, enacted several reasonable and salutary laws against theft, rapine, murder, adultery, and other crimes which at that time prevailed among his subjects. He was also the first of the Lombard kings, who, renouncing Paganism, embraced the Christian religion; and his example was followed by most of his subjects.

Autharis attained the strength and reputation of a warrior, as well as of a legislator. Under the standard of their new king, the Lombards withstood three successive invasions, one of which was led by Childebert, the last of the Merovingian race who descended from the Alps. The first expedition was defeated by the jealous animosity of the Franks and Alemanni. In the second they were vanquished in a bloody battle, with more loss and dishonour than they had sustained since the foundation of their monarchy.



archy. Impatient for revenge, they returned a third time with accumulated force; and Autharis yielded to the fury of the torrent. The troops and treasures of the Lombards were distributed in the walled towns between the Alps and the Apennine. A nation, less sensible of danger than of fatigue and delay, soon murmured against the folly of their twenty commanders; and the hot vapours of an Italian sun infected with disease those tramontane bodies which had already suffered the vicissitudes of intemperance and famine. The powers that were inadequate to the conquest, were more than sufficient for the desolation, of the country; nor could the trembling natives distinguish between their enemies and their deliverers. If the junction of the Merovingian and Imperial forces had been effected in the neighbourhood of Milan, perhaps they might have subverted the throne of the Lombards; but the Franks awaited six days the signal of a flaming village; and the arms of the Greeks were idly employed in the reduction of Modena and Parma, which were torn from them after the retreat of their transalpine allies. The victorious Autharis asserted his claim to the dominion of Italy. At the foot of the Rhetian Alps, he subdued the resistance, and rifled the hidden treasures, of a sequestered island in the lake of Comum. At the extreme point of Calabria, he touched with his spear a column on the sea-shore of Rhegium; proclaiming that ancient land-mark to stand the immoveable boundary of his kingdom. The *Columna Rhegina*, in the narrowest part of the Faro of Messina, one hundred stadia from Rhegium itself, is frequently mentioned in ancient geography.

From scenes of blood, we turn with pleasure to the adventurous gallantry of Autharis, which breathes the true spirit of chivalry and romance. After the loss of his promised bride, a Merovingian princess, he sought in marriage the daughter of the king of Bavaria; and Garibald accepted the alliance of the Italian monarch. Impatient of the slow progress of negotiation, the ardent lover escaped from his palace, and visited the court of Bavaria in the train of his own embassy. At the public audience, the unknown stranger advanced to the throne, and informed Garibald, that the ambassador was indeed the minister of state, but that he alone was the friend of Autharis, who had trusted him with the delicate commission of making a faithful report of the charms of his spouse. Theudelinda was summoned to undergo this important examination; and, after a pause of silent rapture, he hailed her as the queen of Italy, and humbly requested, that, according to the custom of the nation, she would present a cup of wine to the first of her new subjects. By the command of her father, she obeyed: Autharis received the cup in his turn, and, in restoring it to the princess, he secretly touched her hand, and drew his own finger over his face and lips. In the evening, Theudelinda imparted to her nurse the indiscreet familiarity of the stranger; and was comforted by the assurance, that such boldness could proceed only from the king her husband, who, by his beauty and courage, appeared worthy of her love. The ambassadors were dismissed: no sooner did they reach the confines of Italy, than Autharis, raising himself on his horse, darted his battle-axe against a tree with incomparable strength and dexterity: "Such," said he to the astonished Bavarians, "such are the strokes of the king of the Lombards." On the approach of a French army, Garibald and his daughter took refuge in the dominions of their ally; and the marriage was consummated in the palace of Verona. At the end of one year, it was dissolved by the death of Autharis, A. D. 590. but the virtues of Theudelinda had endeared her to the nation, and she was permitted to bestow, with her hand, the sceptre of the Italian kingdom.

These she gave to Agilulf, of whom we know little more than that he renounced the opinions of Arius, which had been countenanced by Autharis, and embraced the orthodox catholic faith. Agilulf was succeeded, A. D. 615, by his son Adalulf; who, being deposed, had for his suc-

cessor Ariovald, under whose government the Lombards enjoyed tranquillity both at home and abroad. Upon his death, A. D. 636, Rotharis ascended the throne, who is the first that gave *written laws* to the Lombards. Before his time they had been governed only by tradition; but Rotharis, in imitation of the Romans and Goths, undertook the publishing of written laws; and to those which he enacted, many were added by the succeeding princes. Grotius prefers the method which the Lombards followed in making laws, to that which was practised by the Romans themselves. Among the latter, the emperor was the sole lawgiver; so that whatever pleased him had the force of a law: but the Lombard kings did not assume that power to themselves, since their laws were enacted in public assemblies, convened for that purpose, after they had been maturely examined and approved of by all the lords of the kingdom: but from these assemblies were excluded the ecclesiastical order and the people; so that the legislative power was lodged in the king and nobles alone.

The reign of Rotharis is remarkable, not only for his introducing written laws among his subjects, but for the conquests he made, and the successful wars carried on with the exarch of Ravenna, whom he totally defeated in several engagements, and made himself master of some part of his territories. This monarch died in 652; and the affairs of the Lombards went on prosperously, till the ambition of Liutprand, or Luitprand, laid the foundation of the total ruin of his kingdom. He ascended the throne of Lombardy in 711, and watched all opportunities of enlarging his dominions at the expense of the emperor's. Of this, a fair opportunity offered in 716; for the emperor Leo Isauricus, who at that time reigned in the east, having by his famous edict, forbidden the worship of images, and ordered them to be every-where pulled down, the people were so provoked at this innovation, that, in several places, they openly revolted, and, falling upon the emperor's officers, drove them out of the cities. In the east, Germanus, patriarch of Constantinople, opposed the emperor's design with great warmth; but Leo caused him to be deposed, and Anastasius to be raised to that see in his room, ordering at the same time all the images in the imperial city to be pulled down and publicly burnt. He strictly enjoined his officers in the west, especially the exarch of Ravenna, to see his edict punctually obeyed in their respective governments. In compliance with these orders, Scholasticus, then exarch, began to pull down the images in all the churches and public places in Ravenna; which incensed the superstitious multitude to such a degree, that, taking arms, they openly declared they would rather renounce their allegiance to the emperor than the worship of images.

Thus a kind of civil war being kindled in the city, Luitprand thought he had now a favourable opportunity of making himself master of the seat of the exarch, not doubting but the conquest of such an important place would be followed by that of the whole exarchate. Having therefore drawn together all his forces, he unexpectedly appeared before Ravenna, and closely besieged it. The exarch little expected such a surprise, as a friendly correspondence had been maintained for many years between the exarchs and the Lombard kings. However, he defended the place with such courage and resolution, that Luitprand, despairing of success, broke up the siege, and led his army against Classis, at a small distance from Ravenna, which he took, plundered, and levelled with the ground. The loss of this place, and the severe treatment the inhabitants met with from the king, threw the citizens of Ravenna into the utmost consternation; which Luitprand being informed of, he resolved to take advantage of their fears, and, returning before Ravenna while the inhabitants were thus disheartened, to attempt once more the reduction of that place. Accordingly he led his whole army against it, and, by frequent attacks, tired the inhabitants and garrison to such a degree, that the exarch, finding they could hold out no longer, and despairing of relief,



relief, privately withdrew. Luitprand, informed of his retreat, attacked the town with more violence than ever; and, having carried it by storm, gave it to be plundered by his soldiers, who found in it an immense booty, as it had been for a long time the seat of the Roman emperors, of the Gothic kings, and the exarchs. The king stripped it of most of its valuable monuments of antiquity, and caused, among the rest, an equestrian statue of an emperor, of wonderful workmanship, to be conveyed to Pavia, where it is to be seen to this day. The reduction of Ravenna was followed by the surrender of several cities of the exarchate, which Luitprand reduced to a dukedom; appointing Hildebrand his grandson to govern it with the title of duke; and giving him, as he was yet an infant, Peredeus duke of Vicenza for his guardian.

The conquest of Ravenna and the greater part of the exarchate did not a little alarm Gregory II. bishop of Rome. He was then at variance with the emperor, whose edict against the worshipping of images he had opposed with all his might, and by that means provoked Leo to such a degree, that he had threatened to drive him from the see, and send him into exile. However, the pope, no less jealous of the power of the Lombards than all his predecessors had been, resolved, by some means or other, to put a stop to their conquests. The only prince in Italy to whom he could have recourse was Ursus duke of Venice, the Venetians making already no inconsiderable figure. To him accordingly he wrote a very pressing letter; conjuring him to assist his worthy son the exarch, and, for the love of the holy faith, to attempt with him the recovery of the exarchate, which the wicked nation of the Lombards had unjustly taken possession of. Ursus and the Venetians, moved with the pope's letter, and at the same time greatly alarmed at the growth of so powerful a neighbour, promised to assist the exarch with the whole strength of their republic; and accordingly fitted out a considerable fleet, pretending it was designed for the service of the emperor against the Saracens. At the same time the exarch, who had taken refuge in Venice, abandoning that place, as it were in despair of bringing the duke over to his party, raised, in the places still subject to the emperor, what forces he was able; and, having got together a considerable body, he marched with them towards Imola, giving out that he designed to besiege that city; but turning on a sudden towards Ravenna, as had been agreed on between him and the Venetians, he laid siege to it by land, while they invested it almost at the same instant by sea. Peredeus defended the town for some time with great courage and resolution; obliging all those who were able to bear arms to repair to the walls. But the Venetians having, in spite of all opposition, forced open one of the gates on the side of the sea, the city was taken, and Peredeus slain, while he was attempting, at the head of a choice body, to drive the enemy from the posts they had seized. As for Hildebrand, he fell into the hands of the Venetians; who, having thus recovered Ravenna to the emperor, returned home, leaving the exarch in possession of the city. Luitprand was then at Pavia; but the town was taken before he could assemble his troops to relieve it.

And now Gregory bishop of Rome, to whom the recovery of Ravenna was chiefly owing, persuading himself, that the emperor would, out of gratitude, give ear to his remonstrances and admonitions, began to solicit him with more pressing letters than ever to revoke his edict against the worship of images; but Leo, well apprised that the bishop, in all the measures he had taken, had been more influenced by a regard to his own interest than to that of the empire, instead of hearkening to his remonstrances, was still more provoked against him for thus obstinately opposing the execution of his edict. Being, therefore, resolved at all events to have it observed in Rome itself, and, on the other hand, not doubting but the pope would oppose it to the last with all his might; in order to remove all obstacles, he sent three officers to Rome, with private

orders, either to kill the pope, or to take him prisoner and convey him to Constantinople. At the same time, he wrote to Mauritus duke of Rome, secretly enjoining him to assist his three officers in their undertaking; but, no favourable opportunity offering to put their design in execution, the emperor, in the year 725, recalled Scholasticus, and sent Paul, a patrician, into Italy, to govern in his room, with private instructions to encourage the above-mentioned officers with the promise of great rewards, and to assure them of his protection.

But in the mean time the plot was discovered; and two of the conspirators were apprehended by the citizens of Rome, and put to death; the third having escaped into a monastery, where he took the monastic habit, and ended his days. Hereupon the exarch, in compliance with the emperor's orders, resolved to proceed no longer by secret plots, but by open force. Accordingly, he drew together a considerable body of troops, and set out at the head of them on his march to Rome, with a design to seize on the pope, and send him, as he had engaged to do, in chains to Constantinople. But, on this occasion, Luitprand, though highly provoked against Gregory for having stirred up the Venetians against him, yet resolved to assist him and the citizens of Rome against the exarch, in order to keep the balance even between them, and, by assisting sometimes the one and sometimes the other, to weaken both. Pursuant to this resolution, he ordered the Lombards of Tuscany, and those of the dukedom of Spoleto, to join the pope and the inhabitants of Rome; who, being by this reinforcement far superior in strength and number to the exarch, obliged him to return to Ravenna, and give over all thoughts of any further attempt on the person of the pope.

In the mean time, Leo, persisting in his former resolution of suppressing throughout his dominions the worship of images, sent fresh orders to the exarch Paul, strictly enjoining him to cause his edict to be put in execution in all the cities of Italy under his empire, especially in Rome. At the same time, he wrote to the pope, promising him his favour and protection if he complied with the edict; and declaring him, if he continued to oppose it, a rebel, and no longer vested with the papal dignity. But Gregory was so far from yielding to the emperor's threats or promises, that, on the contrary, he solemnly excommunicated the exarch for attempting to put the imperial edict in execution; and at the same time wrote circular letters to the Venetians, to king Luitprand, to the Lombard dukes, and to all the chief cities of the empire, exhorting them to continue steadfast in the catholic faith, and to oppose with all their might such a detestable innovation. These letters made such an impression on the minds of the people in Italy, that, though of different interests, and often at war with one another, they all united; protesting they would defend the catholic faith, and the life of the pope, in so glorious a cause, at the expense of their own; nay, the citizens of Rome, and the inhabitants of Pentapolis, now the Marche of Ancona, not contenting themselves with such a protestation, openly revolted from the emperor; and, pulling down his statues, they elected, by their own authority, magistrates to govern them during the interregnum.

However, the exarch Paul, having gained a considerable party in Ravenna, began, pursuant to the repeated orders of the emperor, to remove the images, as so many idols, out of the churches. Hereupon the adverse party, supported and encouraged by the pope, flew to arms; and, falling upon the *iconoclasts*, or image-breakers, as they styled them, commenced a civil war within the walls of Ravenna. Great numbers were killed on both sides; but, those who were for the worship of images prevailing in the end, a dreadful slaughter was made of the opposite party; and, among the rest, the exarch himself was murdered. However, the city of Ravenna continued faithful to the emperor; but most of the cities of Romagna belonging to the exarchate, and all those of Pentapolis, abhorring the emperor



emperor as an heretic, submitted to Luitprand king of the Lombards; who, pretending a zeal for the catholic religion, took care to improve the discontent of the people to his advantage, by representing to them, that they could never maintain their religious rights under a prince, who was not only an heretic, but a persecutor of the orthodox.

In Naples, Exhilaratus, duke of that city, having received peremptory orders from the emperor to cause his edict to be put in execution, did all that lay in his power to persuade the people to receive it; but finding all his endeavours thwarted by the bishop of Rome, for whom the Neapolitans had a great veneration, he hired assassins to murder him. But the plot being discovered, though carried on with great secrecy, the Neapolitans, highly provoked against the duke, tore both him and his son to pieces, and likewise put to death one of his chief officers, who had composed a libel against the pope. Luitprand, and Gregory at that time duke of Benevento, laying hold of so favourable an opportunity to make themselves masters of the dukedom of Naples, made joint endeavours to induce the Neapolitans quietly to submit to them. But the Neapolitans, bearing an irreconcilable hatred to the Lombards, with whom they had been constantly at variance, rejected every overture of that nature with the utmost indignation; and, continuing steadfast in their allegiance to Leo, received from Constantinople one Peter, who was sent to govern them in the room of Exhilaratus. Some writers suppose the Neapolitans, in this general revolt of the cities of Italy, to have shaken off the yoke with the rest, and to have appointed magistrates of their own election to govern them, in the room of the officers hitherto sent from Constantinople, or named by the exarch; but they are certainly mistaken; it being manifest from history that Peter succeeded Exhilaratus in that dukedom, and that the Neapolitans continued to live under the emperors, till they were conquered many years after by the Normans.

In the mean time, Leo, hearing of the murder of the exarch, and the general revolt of the cities, and not doubting but the pope was the chief author of so much mischief, sent the eunuch Euty chius into Italy, with the title and authority of exarch, strictly enjoining him to get the pope dispatched by some means or other, since his death was absolutely necessary for the tranquillity of Italy. The exarch spared no pains to get the pope into his power; but a messenger, whom he had sent to Rome, being apprehended by the citizens, and an order from the emperor being found upon him to all his officers in that city, commanding them to put the pope to death at all events, the pope's friends thenceforth guarded him with such care, that the exarch's emissaries could never find an opportunity of executing their design. As for the messenger, the Romans were for putting him to death; but the pope interposed, contenting himself with excommunicating the exarch.

And now the Romans, provoked more than ever against Leo, and, on the other hand, unwilling to live under the Lombards, resolved to revolt from the emperor, and appoint their own magistrates, keeping themselves united under the pope, yet not as their prince, but only as their head. This they did accordingly; and from these slender beginnings the sovereignty of the popes in Italy took its rise, though they did not then, as is commonly supposed by historians, but many years after, become sovereign lords of Rome.

Euty chius failed in his design upon the life of the pope; but, having brought with him from Constantinople a good number of troops, he easily quelled the rebellion in Ravenna, and severely punished the authors of the late disturbances. As for the rebellious Romans, he was well apprised he could never reduce them, so long as they were supported by the king of the Lombards; and therefore he employed all his art and policy to take off that prince from the party of the Romans, and bring him over to his own. Luitprand, for some time, withstood all his offers;

but, Thrasimund duke of Spoleto revolting at this very juncture, the exarch, laying hold of that opportunity, offered to assist the king with all his strength against the rebellious duke, provided he would, in like manner, assist him against the pope and the Romans. With this proposal Luitprand readily closed; and, a league being concluded upon these terms between him and the exarch, the two armies joined, and began their march towards Spoleto. At their approach, the duke, despairing of being able to resist two such powers, came out with a small attendance to meet them, and, throwing himself at the king's feet, sued, in that humble posture, for pardon; which Luitprand not only granted him, but confirmed him in the dukedom, after he had obliged him to take a new oath of allegiance, and give hostages for his fidelity in time to come. From Spoleto, the two armies marched, in pursuance of the treaty, to Rome; and encamped in the meadows of Nero, between the Tiber and the Vatican.

Gregory had caused the city of Rome to be fortified in the best manner he could; but, being sensible that the Romans alone could not long hold out against two such armies, and reflecting on the kind treatment the duke of Spoleto had met with upon his submitting to the king, he resolved to follow his example; and accordingly, taking with him some of the clergy, and the principal inhabitants of the city, he went to wait on the king in his camp; and there, with a pathetic speech, as he was a great master of eloquence, softened Luitprand to such a degree, that, throwing himself at his feet in the presence of the whole army, he begged pardon for entering into an alliance against him; and, assuring him of his protection for the future, he went with them to the church of St. Peter; and there, disarming himself in the presence of his chief officers, he laid his girdle, his sword, and his gauntlet, with his royal mantle, his crown of gold, and cross of silver, on the apostle's sepulchre. After this, he reconciled the pope with the exarch, who was thereupon received into the city, where he continued for some time, maintaining a friendly correspondence with the pope. At this time an impostor, taking the name of *Tiberius*, and pretending to be descended from the emperors, seduced a great many people in Tuscany, and was by them proclaimed emperor. The exarch resolved to march against him; but, as he had not sufficient forces to oppose the rebels, Gregory, who let no opportunity slip of obliging Leo, persuaded the Romans to attend the exarch in this expedition; by which means the usurper being taken in a castle, his head was sent to the emperor, and the rebellion utterly suppressed.

Luitprand died in the year 743. He was succeeded by Hildebrand, his grandson, who reigned only seven months; and from him the sceptre passed to Rachi duke of Friuli, who reigned in peace about as many years; but his successor Alolphus declared himself the equal enemy of the emperor and the pope. Ravenna was again subdued by force or treachery; and this final conquest (A. D. 752.) extinguished the series of the exarchs, who had reigned with a subordinate power since the time of Justinian and the ruin of the Gothic kingdom. Rome was next summoned to acknowledge the victorious Lombard as her lawful sovereign; the annual tribute of a piece of gold was fixed as the ransom of each citizen, and the sword of destruction was unsheathed to exact the penalty of her disobedience. The Romans hesitated; they entreated; they complained; and the threatening barbarians were checked by arms and negotiations, till the popes had engaged the friendship of an ally and avenger beyond the Alps.

In his distress, Gregory III. had implored the aid of the hero of the age, of Charles Martel, who governed the French monarchy with the humble title of mayor or duke; and who, by his signal victory over the Saracens, had saved his country, and perhaps Europe, from the Mahometan yoke. The ambassadors of the pope were received by Charles with decent reverence; but the greatness of his occupations, and the shortness of his life, prevented his



interference in the affairs of Italy, except by a friendly and ineffectual mediation. His son Pepin, the heir of his power and virtues, assumed the office of champion of the Roman church; and the zeal of the French prince appears to have been prompted by the love of glory and religion. But the danger was on the banks of the Tiber, the succour on those of the Seine; and our sympathy is cold to the relation of distant misery. Amidst the tears of the city, Stephen III. embraced the generous resolution of visiting in person the courts of Lombardy and France, to deprecate the injustice of his enemy, or to excite the pity and indignation of his friend. After soothing the public despair by litanies and orations, he undertook this laborious journey with the ambassadors of the French monarch and the Greek emperor. The king of the Lombards was inexorable; but his threats could not silence the complaints, nor retard the speed, of the Roman pontiff, who traversed the Pennine Alps, reposed in the abbey of St. Maurice, and hastened to grasp the right-hand of his protector, a hand which was never lifted in vain, either in war or friendship. Stephen was entertained as the visible successor of the apostle; at the next assembly, the field of March or of May, (A. D. 754.) his injuries were exposed to a devout and warlike nation; and he repassed the Alps, not as a suppliant, but like a conqueror, at the head of a French army, which was led by the king in person. The Lombards, after a weak resistance, obtained an ignominious peace, and swore to restore the possessions, and to respect the sanctity, of the Roman church. But no sooner was Astolphus delivered from the presence of the French arms, than he forgot his promise, and resented his disgrace. Rome was again encompassed by his arms; and Stephen, apprehensive of fatiguing the zeal of his transalpine allies, enforced his complaint and request by an eloquent letter in the name and person of St. Peter himself. The apostle is made to assure his adoptive sons, the king, the clergy, and the nobles, of France, that, dead in the flesh, he is still alive in the spirit; that they now hear, and must obey, the voice of the founder and guardian of the Roman church; that the virgin, the angels, the saints, and the martyrs, and all the host of heaven, unanimously urge the request, and will confess the obligation; that riches, victory, and paradise, will crown their pious enterprise; and that eternal damnation will be the penalty of their neglect, if they suffer his tomb, his temple, and his people, to fall into the hands of the perfidious Lombards. The second expedition of Pepin was not less rapid and fortunate than the first: St. Peter was satisfied, Rome was again saved, and Astolphus was taught the lessons of justice and sincerity by the scourge of a foreign master.

After this double chastisement, the Lombards continued about twenty years in a state of languor and decay. But their minds were not yet humbled to their condition; and, instead of affecting the pacific virtues of the feeble, they peevishly harassed the Romans with a repetition of claims, invasions, and inroads, which they undertook without reflection, and terminated without glory. On one side, their expiring monarchy was pressed by the zeal and prudence of pope Adrian I. on the other, by the genius, the fortune, and the greatness, of Charlemagne, the son of Pepin. These heroes of the church and state were united in public and domestic friendship; and, while they trampled on the prostrate, they varnished their proceedings with the fairest colours of equity and moderation. The passes of the Alps, and the walls of Pavia, were the only defence of the Lombards; the former were surprised, the latter were invested, by the son of Pepin; and, after a blockade of two years, Desiderius, the last of their native princes, surrendered his sceptre and his capital, (A. D. 774.) to Charlemagne, who had married and repudiated his daughter. *Gibbon*, ch. xlv. xlix.—See the article FRANCE, vol. vii. p. 654.

Thus ended the kingdom of the Lombards in Italy, after they had possessed that country for 206 years. Un-

der the dominion of a foreign king, but in the possession of their national laws, the Lombards became the brethren, rather than the subjects, of the Franks; who derived their blood, and manners and language, from the same Germanic origin.

During a period of two hundred years Italy had been divided between the kingdom of the Lombards and the exarchate of Ravenna. From Pavia, the royal seat, the kingdom of the Lombards was extended to the east, the north, and the west, as far as the confines of the Avars, the Bavarians, and the Franks of *Austrasia* and *Burgundy*. In the language of modern geography, it is now represented by the Terra Firma of the Venetian territory, Tyrol, the Milanese, Piedmont, the coast of Genoa, Mantua, Parma, Modena, Tuscany, and a large portion of the ecclesiastical state from Perugia to the Adriatic. The dukes, and at length the princes, of Beneventum, survived the monarchy, and propagated the name, of the Lombards. From Capua to Tarentum, they reigned near 500 years over the greatest part of the present kingdom of Naples. In process of time, the disposition and manners of the Lombards underwent a very important change. So rapid, indeed, was the influence of climate and example, that the Lombards of the fourth generation surveyed with curiosity and affright the portraits of their savage forefathers. The government of the Lombards was an elective monarchy; and the public revenues arose from the produce of land and the profits of justice. The Lombards were at first a cruel and barbarous people; but divesting themselves, by degrees, of their native ferocity and barbarity, especially after they had embraced the Christian religion, they governed with such equity and mildness, that most other nations envied the happiness of those who lived under their administration.

As they had no other kingdom nor dominions, Italy became their own country; whence the natives esteemed their kings as their natural princes, not thinking themselves governed, much less kept in slavery, by a foreign nation, as it happened to them afterwards, when, by frequent changes, they groaned under the heavy yoke, sometimes of one nation, and sometimes of another. "Under the government of the Lombards," says Paulus Diaconus, "no violence was committed, no one unjustly dispossessed of his property, none oppressed with taxes; theft, robberies, murder, and adultery, were seldom heard of; every one went, without the least apprehension of danger, whither he pleased." And indeed their many wholesome laws, restraining and severely punishing all sorts of crimes; the magnificent churches, and rich monasteries, with which they filled that part of Italy which was subject to them; the many bishoprics which they erected; the towns and cities which they either built or repaired, in most provinces of Italy; their generosity even to the bishop of Rome, their avowed enemy; and, finally, the great number of persons among them, whose sanctity and eminent virtues have been acknowledged by the popes themselves; must convince every impartial reader, that the Lombards were not such a savage, barbarous, and inhuman nation, as they are described by some of the popes, especially by Adrian, the chief author of the ruin of their kingdom. They were the only power in Italy capable of defeating the ambitious views of the bishops of Rome; and hence arose the inveterate hatred which the popes bore them, and could not help betraying in all their writings. But their laws are convincing proofs of their justice, humanity, and wisdom, and, at the same time, a full confutation of the many calumnies, with which the popes, and their partisans, have endeavoured to asperse them. Their laws were found so just and equitable, that they were retained in Italy, and observed some ages after their kingdom was at an end.

L O M B A R D Y, a country in the northern part of Italy, very much corresponding with the Cisalpine Gaul of the Romans. It derived its name from the L O M B A R D S, (see the preceding article,) who founded the kingdom in the middle



middle of the sixth century. This country was divided into several states, subject to the house of Austria, the republic of Venice, and the king of Sardinia: such as the duchies of Milan and Mantua, called Austrian Lombardy; —the Paduan, Veronese, Vicentin, Bressan, Comasco, and Bergamasco, belonging to Venice;—Montferrat and Nice, annexed to Piedmont, subject to the king of Sardinia;—together with many others, as the duchies of Modena, Reggio, Parma, Piacenza, Mirandola, and several smaller principalities and states. The vicissitudes which Lombardy has undergone, and more especially those which have occurred to it since the French revolution, are briefly detailed under CISALPINE REPUBLIC, vol. iv. HETRURIA, vol. ix. and ITALY, vol. xi. p. 464, 5.

LOM'BERS, a town of France, in the department of the Tarn: nine miles south of Alby.

LOM'BES, a town of France, and seat of a tribunal, in the department of the Gers; before the revolution the see of a bishop: ten miles south-west of Pisle en Jourdain, and sixteen south-east of Auch.

LOM'BOK, an island in the Eastern Indian Sea, about forty miles from north to south, and from eighteen to thirty broad, chiefly inhabited by Gentoos. Between this island and Cumbava is a passage, called the *Straits of Lombok*. Lat. 8. 30. S. lon. 116. E.

LOM'BOK, a town on the east coast of the island so called. Lat. 8. 42. S. lon. 116. 2. E.

LOMBUZ'SKOI, a small island in the Frozen Ocean, near the coast of Russia: 180 miles east of Kola. Lat. 67. 55. N. lon. 40. 14. E.

LOM'BY, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic: twenty miles north-west of Tiagar.

LOME'IR (John), a learned Dutch protestant divine in the seventeenth century, concerning whose life we have seen no other particulars, than that he was pastor of the church of Dotekum, in Zutphen. He was the author of a curious little work, abounding in erudition and close research, in which he has undertaken to give an historical and critical notice of the most celebrated libraries in ancient and modern times. It is entitled, *De Bibliothecis Liber Singularis*, 12mo. 1669; and is divided into fifteen chapters. The first is preliminary; and the subsequent ones treat of preserving the memory of events before the time of Moses; of the libraries of the Hebrews; those of the Chaldeans, Arabians, Phenicians, Egyptians, &c. those of the Greeks and Romans; the libraries of the Christians before the dark ages; the state of libraries during the long night of barbarism; of libraries after the revival of letters; the most celebrated libraries in Europe; of the libraries in various other nations; of particular books in certain collections; of the keepers of libraries; of the proper situation, disposition, and ornaments, of libraries; and of the enemies to libraries. Under these heads the scholar will meet with much interesting and entertaining matter, though not clothed in a chaste style, and notwithstanding that the author will sometimes be found to have admitted small private collections into his list of important libraries. The author's plan afterwards gave rise to a larger work on the same subject, by Joachim-John Maderus, a learned German, who published at Helmstadt a treatise *De Bibliothecis*, in two volumes 4to. 1702 and 1705, in which he has inserted our author's piece. *Lomeri De Bibl.*

LOM'ELIN (Adrian), an engraver, was born at Amiens in 1637; but studied his art at Antwerp, where he lived till his death. He worked with the graver only, and handled it but indifferently; yet some of his portraits after Vandyke are not without merit, especially that of John-Baptista de Bithoven, a Jesuit of Antwerp.

LO'MENT, *f.* in botany, an oblong seed-vessel, not opening longitudinally like a legume, but separated by transverse partitions, and containing a single seed in each joint.

LOMONTACE'ZE, *f.* in botany, the name of the fifty-sixth order in Linnæus's Fragments; and of the thirty-

third in his Natural Orders. See the article BOTANY, vol. iii. p. 297.

LOMONTA'CEOUS, *adj.* in botany, belonging to plants with jointed seed-vessels.

LOMONTUM, *f.* [Latin.] A word used by the old writers on medicine to express a meal made of beans, or bread made of this meal, and used as a wash. Others have applied it to the French chalk, or morochthus, used by the scowerers of clothes, which is brought over in large cakes, resembling loaves or cakes of bread.

LOM'GRAD, a town of Bulgaria, at the conflux of the Lom and Danube: twenty miles south-south-east of Viddin.

LO'MI, a town of Russia, in the government of Irkutsk, on the Amur: sixteen miles north of Stretensk.

LOM'MATSCH, or LUMTSZCH, a town of Saxony, in the margravate of Meissen: seven miles north-west of Meissen, and twenty north-west of Dresden. Lat. 51. 11. N. lon. 13. 13. E.

LOM'MERSUM, a village and citadel of France, in the department of the Roer. This place with Kerpen formed a county, possessed by the count of Scaberg, which paid twelve florins for a Roman month. It is nine miles west-north-west of Bonne.

LOM'MIUS, or VAN LOM (Jodocus), a medical writer of reputation, was a native of Buren in Guelderland. His father, who was the town-clerk, caused him to be carefully educated; and he was master of the learned languages when he turned his studies to physic. Paris was the school from which he principally derived his professional knowledge. He was pensionary-physician to the city of Tournay in 1557; and settled at Brussels in 1560, when he was advanced in years. He was living in 1562, beyond which time there is no record of him. The works of Lommius, which are written in a pure, elegant, and clear style, and have been much read and esteemed, are the following: 1. *Commentarii de Sanitate Tuenda in primum librum C. Celsi*; Lovan, 1558: this is an ample commentary upon Celsus, entirely taken from the ancients. 2. *Observationum Medicinalium Lib. III.* Antw. 1560; many times reprinted and translated; this consists of analytic histories of diseases, with their signs and prognostics, and contains much accurate and useful observation. 3. *De Curandis Febris Continuis*; Antw. 1563; often reprinted and translated. *Halleri Bibl. Med.*

LOM'NITZ, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Kouingratz: six miles north of Gitschin.

LOM'NITZ, a river of Silesia, which rises in the principality of Jauer, and runs into the Bober three miles east-south-east of Hirschberg.

LOM'NITZ, a town of Moravia, in the circle of Brunn: fifteen miles north-north-west of Brunn. Lat. 49. 24. N. lon. 16. 18. E.

LOM'OND. See BEN LOMOND, vol. ii. and LOCH LOMOND, vol. xii. p. 863.

LOMOND HILL'S, two beautiful conical hills situated in the county of Fife, Scotland. The Eastern one is by far the most beautiful, and rises 1650 feet above the level of the town of Falkland, which is placed at a short distance from its base. It appears to have been the seat of a fort in ancient times. On the very summit is a small lake, which has probably been the crater of an extinct volcano. On this hill a mine of lead has been lately opened, with good prospect of success to the proprietors. It likewise contains coal and limestone in considerable abundance; but neither of them are wrought. The other hill, which is called Western Lomond, from its situation with respect to the former, is much higher, and perhaps commands a more extensive view. On the top is one of those heaps or tumuli of stones which are denominated *cairns*.

LOMON'OZOF, a distinguished person in the scanty catalogue of Russian literati, and accounted the father of Russian poetry, was born in 1711, at Kolinogori, where



his father was a dealer in fish. He had the advantage, at that time unusual, of learning to read his native language; and he early caught a flame of poetical inspiration by perusing a translation of Solomon's Song into rude verse by Polotiki. His love for letters induced him to escape from his father, who wished him to marry, and take refuge in a monastery at Moscow. He there acquired the rudiments of Greek and Latin, and displayed such a promise of abilities, that he was chosen by the Imperial Academy of Sciences, in 1636, to be sent at its expense for improvement to the German university of Marburg. He continued there four years studying philosophy and rhetoric under Wolff, and other branches of science under the other professors. Of chemistry, which he pursued with great ardour, he obtained further knowledge under Kunkel, at Freyberg in Saxony. On his return to Russia he was elected adjunct, and the next year member, of the Imperial Academy, and professor of chemistry. In 1760 he was appointed inspector to the seminary attached to the academy; in 1764 he was honoured with the title of counsellor of state. His death took place in the same year. The reputation of Lomonozof in his own country is founded chiefly on his poetical compositions, which are numerous and various in their kinds. His odes are particularly admired for their spirit, variety, and sublimity, in which qualities he is said to rival Pindar himself. That they should have a mixture of turgidity and extravagance was to be expected in a country and language as yet so little disciplined by taste. In these and in his other poems he was the creator of various measures new to Russian verse, so that he justly ranks as its greatest benefactor. Among his poetical pieces are tragedies, idylls, epistles, and a fragment of an epic poem on Peter the Great. In prose he enriched Russian oratory with many translations from the Greek and Latin, and some original pieces. He likewise published some chemical and philosophical tracts, and two short works on the history of his country. *New Biogr. Dict.* 1798.

LOM'PAR, a small island in the Baltic, near the south-east coast of Aland. Lat. 60. 10. N. lon. 20. 9. E.

LOM'PRE, a town of France, in the department of the Forets: twelve miles east of Givet.

LOM'ZA, a town of the duchy of Warsaw, situated on the Narew: eighty miles north-east of Warsaw, and 120 south-east of Königsberg. Lat. 53. N. lon. 22. 40. E.

LON, or LOHN. See ISERLOHN, vol. xi. p. 400.

LON-CHAN-TCHING', a town of China, in Chan-tong: five miles east of Tci-nan.

LON-GAN', a town of China, of the third rank, in Kiang-si: forty-seven miles west-south-west of Kien-tchang.

LON-GAN', a town of China, of the third rank, in Chan-tong: twenty-two miles north-north-west of Toin-theou.

LON-YN', a city of China, of the second rank, in Quang-si: 1160 miles south-south-west of Pe-king. Lat. 22. 57. N. lon. 106. 39. E.

LONAS, *f.* in botany. See ATHANASIA annua, vol. ii. p. 463.

LONA'TO, or LONADO, a town of Italy, in the department of the Benaco; twelve miles east-south-east of Bressia. This town was taken by the French the latter end of June, 1796. Bonaparte, in the account of the battle of Castiglione della Stivera, says, 4000 Austrians soon after invested the town of Lonado, in which there were only 1200 French troops. Immediately on his arrival at that place, the Austrian commander sent a messenger to demand the surrender of the town. Bonaparte's answer to the summons was, that, if the Austrian general had the effrontery to take the commander-in-chief of the army of Italy, he had only to advance: that he ought to know, that the republican army was at that place, and that all the general officers belonging to the division should be responsible for the personal insult he had been guilty of towards him; and that, if his division did not, in the

space of eight minutes, lay down their arms, he would not show mercy to one of them. This answer produced the desired effect, and the whole column immediately surrendered.

LONCAR'TY. See LUNCARTY.

LON'CHAMP. See LONGCHAMP.

LONCHAUMOIS, a town of France, in the department of Jura: five miles north-north-east of St. Claude, and thirteen east of Orgelet.

LONCHITES, *f.* in astronomy, a kind of comet resembling a spear. *Astr.*

LONCHITIS, *f.* [from *λογχη*, Gr. a spear.] In botany, a genus of the class cryptogamia, order filices, natural order of filices, or ferns. The generic character is—the capsules disposed in lunulated lines lying under the sinuses of the frond.

*Species.* 1. *Lonchitis hirsuta*, hairy lonchitis, or rough spleenwort: fronds pinnatifid, blunt, quite entire; shoots branched, hirsute. This fern rises commonly to the height of four or five feet. Native of South America and Jamaica.

2. *Lonchitis aurita*, or eared lonchitis: fronds pinnate, the lowest pinnae two-parted; shoots undivided, prickly.

3. *Lonchitis repens*, or creeping lonchitis: fronds pinnate; pinnae alternate, sinuate; shoots branched prickly. Natives of South America.

4. *Lonchitis pedata*, or footed lonchitis: fronds pedate; pinnae pinnatifid, ferrulate. This fern rises by a simple stalk to the height of two or three feet, and then divides into three parts, whereof the middle is simple, but each of the lateral divisions is again parted into three simple branches of a proportionate length. Native of Jamaica, in the mountains of New Liguane.

5. *Lonchitis tenuifolia*, or thin-leaved lonchitis: arborescent; fronds decomposed; leaves pinnate; pinnae linear-oblong, ferrate; the lowest pinnatifid. Native of the isle of Tanna, in the South Seas.

*Propagation and Culture.* These ferns, being natives of very hot climates, must be planted in pots, and plunged into the bark-pit. They may be increased by parting the roots. In summer they should have plenty of free air, and be frequently watered. See ACROSTICHUM, ADIANTUM, ASPLENIUM, BLECHNUM, OPHIOGLOSSUM, OSMUNDA, POLYPODIUM, and PTERIS.

LONCHIURUS, *f.* [Gr. *lancet-tail.*] In ichthyology, the name of a genus of fish instituted by Bloch, but consisting of a single species, and now included among the surmulletts. See MULLUS lonchirus.

LON'DERSEEL, LONDERSEIL, or LONDERSEL (John), an engraver of some celebrity in the Low Countries, was born at Bruges in the year 1580. He worked entirely with the graver, in a stiff dry style, greatly resembling that of Nicholas de Bruin, whose disciple he probably was. However, his prints are not without some share of merit; and are sought after by connoisseurs. The following are the most worthy of the attention of the collector: 1. Faith, Hope, and Charity, personified by female figures, with a landscape back-ground. 2. The Five Senses characterised by figures, seated in a landscape. 3. A woody landscape with hunters. 4. The fable of Apollo and Daphne. 5. The disobedient Prophet devoured by a Lion. 6. Tobit journeying with the Angel. 7. Jacob tending the Flocks of Laban. 8. St. John in the Wilderness. 9. The good Samaritan. 10. The blind Warrior. 11. The Woman with the Hæmorrhage. 12. Abraham sacrificing Isaac. 13. Interior of the church of St. John de Lateran at Rome. 14. Saul anointed King of the Hebrews. 15. The Rape of Tamar. 16. The Prophet foretelling to Jeroboam the Division of his Kingdom. 17. Susannah and the Elders. 18. The Temptation in the Wilderness. 19. The Saviour praying on the Mount of Olives. 20. The Maries approaching the Holy Sepulchre. 21. Diana and Actæon. 22. The Pleasures of Summer. The latter is a meritorious landscape; and they are all of large folio sizes. His plates are marked sometimes *J. Lond.* or *J. Londer fec.*



and sometimes with his initials combined as in the first of the following ciphers.



LON'DERSEL, or LAND'FELD (Ahasuerus), an engraver, who, though not of first-rate talent, has been celebrated under two names. He appears to have been a native of Holland, born about the middle of the sixteenth century, and to have been chiefly engaged in the execution of letter-press engravings, in a neat and delicate style, and which are marked sometimes with one and at other times with the other of the two last monograms above. And it is not unlikely that these *two* marks may have given rise to the separation of his works into those of Ahasuerus Landfeld, and Ahasuerus Londerfel. That he was related to John Londerfel, the subject of the preceding article, is highly probable. From the smallness of his productions, of which the greater number adorn the books that were published at Antwerp about this period, he is classed among *the little masters*, but his engraving of the Last Supper is on a larger scale. Among the books which he thus decorated, are the 4to. edition, in the French language, of the Travels of Nicholas de Nicolay into Turkey, printed at Antwerp in 1576; and the large Herbal of Matthias de Lobel.

LONDINIE'RES, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Seine: seven miles north of Neuschâtel, and fifteen east-south-east of Dieppe.

LON'DON, the metropolis of Great Britain, is situated in  $51^{\circ} 31'$  N. latitude, and in longitude  $5^{\circ} 37'$  W. of Greenwich, where the royal national observatory is established, and from whence the longitude is taken in all our charts, maps, &c. The distance of London from the principal cities in Europe is as follows: from Amsterdam, 190 miles W. Paris, 225 N.N.W. Dublin, 338 S.E. Edinburgh, 395 S. Berlin, 540 W. Copenhagen, 610 S.W. Stockholm, 750 S.W. Vienna, 820 N.W. Lisbon, 850 N.E. by N. Madrid, 860 N.E. by E. Rome, 950 N.N.W. Peterburgh, 1140 S.W. Constantinople, 1660 W.N.W. Moscow, 1660 W.S.W.

#### INTRODUCTION.

If a traveller, setting out in search of antiquities, with a mind fraught with classical knowledge, feels elated with self-satisfaction, and thinks his labours well repaid, by the personal gratification he enjoys, when, after long investigations and assiduous inquiries, he finds a handful of coins, some remains of ancient architecture, fragments of columns, broken parcels of statues, and the slightest vestiges of long-forgotten towns; what ought not to be the astonishment and the feelings of a foreigner, when, entering this noble city, the most populous, the largest, the most commercial, and the richest, in the world, he finds it not only decorated with handsome buildings, aired by numerous and elegant squares, intersected by wide and convenient streets, watered every where, and nearly to the roofs of the houses, by subterraneous canals, but also animated by a most industrious and busy spirit of trade, and enlivened by citizens who, in both sexes, may boast of being without competition the handsomest in the world? He may assert, that, in the course of his travels, he has found, in several parts of the continent, *some* of these advantages in a high state of perfection; and his assertions cannot be denied. The cleanliness of the Flemish and Dutch; the spiritedness and vivacity of the French; the liveliness and mirth of the Italians; the departed wealth of Venice; the mouldering grandeur of Rome; the plodding quays of Amsterdam; recur powerfully to his mind: but no where did he find *all these* so happily combined and concentrated on a single spot, and brought to such an astonishing degree of perfection, that he may fairly be allowed to doubt whether he really sees what moves before his eyes, or does not indulge

in the delirium of an accidental dream. Ere the French revolution burst out like a most tremendous volcano, and not only broke all the ties of that monarchy, but shook afar the most distant nations; commerce, sciences, and the liberal arts, were thriving in other countries, and bringing wealth, comfort, and ornaments, to other towns and communities; but, since England remained the only state that had not caught the contagion of the new principles of destructive levelling, LONDON, the centre, the heart, the focus, of that life which animates the whole of the united kingdom, becoming consequently the refuge of the oppressed, shines at this moment the emporium of the world, and the safest and wealthiest point of the universe.

After these general considerations and comprehensive views, it must appear difficult indeed to give an adequate idea of the subject in contemplation. Pennant, in his usual interesting and pithy style, says, "He must be a Briareus in literature who would dare to attempt a history of our capital, on the great, the liberal, the elegant, plan which it merits." Although a great deal of respect is owing to an author who has gleaned so successfully on the Londonian field, it must be confessed that it is rather extraordinary that a complete and even voluminous description of London, decorated with all that typography and chalcography united can produce, has never been attempted according to that gigantic scheme; for it is beyond doubt that this wonderful city has fulfilled what an ancient poet of Great Britain has prematurely said:

Urbes terrarum facile Londonia vincit  
Ornatu, spatio, tempore, divitiis.

That is: "In ancienty, in extent, in beauty, and in wealth, London surpasses all the cities of the world." However, as far as the limits of our plan will allow, this article shall obtain that degree of fulness which its importance requires, and of attention and correctness which the best authorities and the strictest care are able to procure.

ETYMOLOGY.—It happens with famous cities as with ancient noble families; they seem to conceal their venerable heads in the clouds, or behind the veil of antiquity, with such obstinacy and reluctance against being brought to light, that the keenest and most industrious heralds and antiquaries generally find their labours and lucubrations lost in fruitless and tiresome searches, without arriving at the desired object of their enquiries. The fact is, that populous and trading towns, in countries whose histories have not been recorded by the able hands of contemporary writers, having often changed their governors, their inhabitants, and their language, as is the case with LONDON, have undergone in their denominations the most material changes. And hence the name of this metropolis has exercised the skill and imagination of numerous antiquaries, from the earliest ages of Christianity to the present. Some assert that it originated, and most probably it did so, from the Celtic language, supposed to have been spoken by part of Gallia and the whole of Great Britain, and now preserved among the Welch and the inhabitants of Low Britanny in France. *Lhongdin*, in that tongue, signifies "a town of ships;" and the correspondence of sounds, united to the situation of this city, militates considerably in favour of this derivation. The learned Camden brings, in its support, the words *Lhong* and *Dinas*, which he translates "the city of ships." Others propose *Lhaon*, full, and *Dyn*, man, "a city full of men;" but as this last denomination bears no characteristic analogy to the place in question, it does not deserve much credit, although it may be respected on account of the ingenuity of its authors. It is certain that the word *Don*, contracted from *Dowon*, and that of *Towon*, arising from the second and compressed into the first, (which the Romans, after their arrival in this country, rendered generally, or attempted to represent, by *Dunum*,) are of great antiquity in this land, and mean invariably a low place; that is, a situation between two or more hills, whose streams are naturally running. Water being one of the first necessities of life, as soon as men



met in society, and built places to reside in, their choice most prudently led to the sides or banks of rivers; and they therefore erected their simple and unadorned mansions in vales, or downs. The word *Lud*, which signified a Lord, or Prince, may have furnished the first syllable; and, indeed, it seems that, independently of being the name of an ancient king of the Britons, preserved in the denomination of some places still existing, as *Ludgate*, &c. the title of the chieftain of the Franks was *Lud*. *Clovis* was *Clodoveus*; and it is well known that the C or K<sup>l</sup> was not pronounced in this word, since that of *Ludovicus* or *Ludoix* arose from it. The testimony of ancient writers proves that London was the chief town of the Trinobantes, and most likely peculiarly favoured or inhabited by the king, or *lord*, of the nation. This ingenious etymon seems to carry with it a great deal of probability, and may satisfy the antiquarian, since no other brings more light on the subject. *Lud-down* might have easily been softened into *London*, "the City of *Lud*;" that is, the place mostly resorted to by the chief of the nation of the Trinobantes. The ancient Britons and Welch still call it *Lundayn*; the ancient Saxons, *Londonceaster*, or *Castrum Londini*. Tacitus, Ptolemy, and Antoninus, called it *Londinium*; Ammianus, *Lundinum*; Stephanus, *Lindonion*; Bede, *Lundonia*; and *Civitas Lundonia*. The name of *Augusta* was also conferred on this city, according to Ammianus Marcellinus; very probably on account of the traditional report that it was surrounded with walls by Constantine the Great, whose mother was styled *Helena Augusta*. The French have unaccountably added *res* to the first syllable, and pronounce it *Londres*; the Spaniards, *Londra*; the Portuguese, *Londre*; and the Dutch *Lunden*.

#### GENERAL VIEW OF LONDON, AND ITS DIFFERENT APPROACHES.

If we give credit to ancient writers, (and certainly many of them ought to be believed, since their relations perfectly agree with the ruins and vestiges of the places they describe,) the approach of Athens and Corinth, of Agrigentum and of Rome, besides several others, must have wrought a very lively impression on the mind of the traveller.—The distant aspect of the Athenian city, that for many centuries ranked among the most important of the states existing at that time; the proud Acropolis, crowned with the unparalleled Temple of Minerva, the famous Parthenion, overlooking the whole of Achaia, down to the celebrated isthmus, and the neighbouring hills fludded with white marble edifices, rising in amphitheatres above sacred groves of laurels and cypress; the entrance into the *Bimarem Corinthum*, situated between two gulfs, upon that narrow tongue of land dividing Greece from the Peloponnesus, with a distant view of the grey heights of Mount Athos, that courted and defied the wrath of the mighty kings of Persia; the entrance into that wonderful city, where the immense number of statues in marble, in stone, in ivory, and in bronze, were calculated to favour the strange surmise, that, at some distant period of time, all the inhabitants had been suddenly transformed into those works of art;—the avenue to the Sicilian Agrigentum, backed with the burning peak of Etna, and decorated with the tombs and cenotaphs of the worthies, and the venerable fanes of the gods;—the *Via Appia* leading to Rome through an interrupted line of elegant villas, sepulchres, and funeral monuments erected to the memory of emperors, dictators, vestals, consuls, and heroes; and, among a crowd of columns and obelisks, the distant view of the domineering Capitol, frowning from the brow of the Tarpeian rock, upon the conquered nations of Latium:—The remembrance of all this *past* splendour and magnificence vanishes at once before the *present* aspect of the British metropolis.—This assertion may seem, at first, bold and hyperbolic; but yet it is grounded upon truth, palpable evidence, and daily conviction; for, indeed, from whatever point of the compass we reach London,

the eye meets with a scene equally grand, interesting, and magnificent.

The entrance from the western counties, is enriched by an innumerable quantity of gentlemen's mansions, the neatness and elegance of which, raise a first idea of the wealth and splendour of the metropolis.—*Sion house*, the seat of the duke of Northumberland; the gardens and elysian groves of Richmond and Kew, on one side; the stateliness of the trees in Kensington Gardens, and the expanse of Hyde Park, on the other;—the view of St. James's and the Green Park, from the wide opening of Piccadilly, embracing Buckingham-house and the architectural wonder of Westminster-abbey, by the side of which the undulating screen of the Surrey hills binds the view; present an admirable prospect, animated by the rapid and fluctuating ingress and egress of equipages of the most fashionable form, resorting to the rides mostly frequented by the nobility of the west end of the town.

From the north, from the heights of Islington, resounding with the lowing of cattle, the bleatings of sheep, pacing slowly the sloping paths towards the populous cities they are doomed to feed; from those hills where tea-gardens and Sadler's Wells yield to the influence of the goddess of mirth, fast by the artificial stream of a New River;—the united cities of London and Westminster, with their extensive appendages, display themselves in astonishing and awful majesty, centred by the magnificent pile of St. Paul's, which, in gigantic mood, rises above a forest of spires, towers, and steeples, standing, seemingly in a line, from Shooter's Hill in Kent to Primrose Hill in the neighbourhood of Hampstead.

If the business of the traveller directs him to come up to London by water, his arrival from the east will be attended with still greater cause for curiosity and astonishment.—After he has saluted that monument of national gratitude towards the naval defenders of our rights on the seas, he will dash through an immense forest of ships of all shapes, forms, and sizes, decorated with the flying colours of all nations from the four quarters of the world, brought to the noble bosom of the Thames, by the hands of industry and trade, and lying there safe under the wings of protection and confidence. He will pass under the ancient walls of the Tower, whose origin is supposed to precede the Christian era; and the contents of which, he has been told, are most interesting and precious. He will gaze at the busy quays, at the stream covered with boats, craft, collier-vessels, wherries, and barges, above calculation, yielding willingly and cheerfully to the impulse of interest or pleasure, and crossing each other in all directions. He will reach, at last, the venerable pile of London-bridge, that divides two counties, and sits mightily on the swelling tide; and on the left side of which the Monument raises its lofty head to the skies. There he will forget all he has been told of the famous ports of the Phœnicians of old; Tyre and Sydon must dwindle in his mind into mere insignificance, whilst he heaves a sigh of generous pity for the departed glory of Amsterdam and Venice.

But if the foreigner, in his perambulations, chances to find his way to the metropolis by the southern road, then what pleasure, what enjoyment, what astonishment, will swell and delight his heart! In case he should not obtain a glance of Greenwich, however, the road on both sides will present, all along, such an admirable scenery, gliding swiftly before his sight; such a quantity of country boxes, seats, and villas, crowning the hills, dispersed in the valleys, peeping through the willow and poplar groves; so many seminaries and schools, backed by meadows rich with cattle, and by gardens and nurseries exhaling the aromatic perfumes of the east; that he will think of nothing but fairy visions and romantic enchantments.—He will meet, on his left, an admirable Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb, that will speak to his heart and rouse his nicest feelings; whilst it is contrasted by the loud and busy scene



at the Bricklayer's Arms on the right, a most frequented rendezvous for stages and coaches between London and the western cities, boroughs, and villages of Suffex and Kent. Perhaps he may see at a distance the verdant tops of the festive groves belonging to Vauxhall, where the eye is delightfully pleased with the glow of artificial and coloured lights; and soon he will meet the Hospital lately established for the Blind, just by the Philanthropic School. The Asylum for Unprotected Women, the stately building destined for the Lunatics, rising in majestic simplicity on his left; the Free Masons' Schools; the Magdalen, where lost virtue learns to blush again; and the Surrey Theatre, where vice, as in other playhouses, is very gently upbraided, whilst its votaries circulate, without any blushes, at the backs of the seats: all these will meet his exploring eyes in successive exhibitions. But the pen is incompetent to describe the feelings of the stranger, when, after walking or riding along the noble and wide "Surrey Road," he arrives at the foot of "Blackfriars Bridge," on the south side of the city.—All then is astonishment and enthusiasm:—the view displays itself in magnificent grandeur from Whitehall to the Tower, in an immense range of buildings and wharfs, adorned by Somerset House, the Temple Gardens, numerous extensive warehouses, the whole crowned by a forest of steeples and towers, in the centre of which the basilica of St. Paul, erected on the highest ground of the city, seems to raise the majesty of its dome above the clouds. This, perhaps, is the most interesting scene that may ever be circumscribed within the orbit of the human eye. The breadth and elegance of the bridge, the neatness of Albion and Chatham Places, the immense concourse of people, of horses, of carriages of all descriptions, must certainly fill the mind of the traveller with wonder, and make him surmise that he is on the threshold of the metropolis, not only of Great Britain, but of the whole world.

The Romans, who knew as well and perhaps (let it be said without disparagement to our modern patriots) better than we do how to fire the public mind, how to kindle the torch of enthusiasm, and bring into public and profitable action that which might have appeared to others merely private and trifling; the inhabitants of Rome, and their neighbours, made a goddess of their own city.—Indeed a form of worship was established in her honour; fanes were erected and temples dedicated to her name, not only on the banks of the Tiber, but also in conquered provinces, where, surely, the worship must have been as hypocritical as obsequious. We are not so far gone, in point of superstition, it is true; but the sacred and inextinguishable flame of our love for our city of London, the concern which her commerce, the veneration which her antiquity, inspire, will apologize for the poet who personified her in the following fragment:

— See how Augusta fits,  
 Britannia's eldest daughter, and her pride,  
 Fast by the wealthy banks of busy Thames  
 Magnificent—her temple-crowned brow  
 Elate, and half conceal'd in wond'ring clouds;  
 The bidden tributes of both hemispheres  
 Brought and unfurled at her silver feet;  
 Her feet, which, from the bosom of the main,  
 In swelling tides approaching twice a-day,  
 Old Ocean fondly kisses, and retires;  
 Whilst Industry and Trade, in sacred bands  
 United, fill her ample zone with gold,  
 And all the riches of the east and west,  
 Subservient to the brav'ry of her sons.  
 For her, proud Liban, in his scented groves,  
 Gives shelter to the silk-entombed worm,  
 And citron-forests breathe their sweets.—For her  
 Wild Africa works smooth the milk-white tusks  
 Of giant quadrupeds.—For her the canes  
 Ambrosial, press'd in fair Columbia's isles,  
 Profusely yield their nectar.—For her sake  
 The quick-ey'd Chinese plucks the emerald leaf

Of nice perfume, to grace the breakfast-board  
 In flow'ry cups his platic hands had form'd.—  
 For her the ruddy vintager has trod  
 The purple grapes whose juice high Teneriffe,  
 Or Burgundy, or Lusitania, sends,  
 Stores inexhaustible, to London marts;  
 The blessed spring of mirth, of quarrels oft;  
 Yet fraught with seeds of harmony and love.  
 By her the muses all the garlands weave  
 That genius, sciences, and wit, deserve,  
 And twist them round Augusta's lofty throne.  
 Meanwhile the Graces with her daughters play;  
 Fair Hebe knits the finews of her sons;  
 And, as a queen, she stoutly holds and wields  
 Her potent shield and sceptre o'er the world! Z.

INTROSPECTION OF LONDON.—Having been favoured with the perusal of a manuscript intended to give a complete view of the interior of the metropolis in the form of an itinerary, in order to enable every one to conceive a just and adequate idea of this immense bee-hive, we have obtained leave to extract some part of it, which may prove not only amusing, but interesting and useful, to our readers. The itinerant supposes himself at the top of Ludgate-street, ready to start for a perambulatory jaunt towards Temple Bar.

"Having carefully surveyed the whole of St. Paul's church-yard, I now stand upon the highest or nearly (if we attach any credit to the basso relievo and inscription in Panier-alley) the highest summit of the hill which gently rises on the north side of the Thames between *Walbrook* and *Fleet-ditch*, two rivulets which were originally the confined boundaries of Londinium; the first running on the east fast by the walls, the other rushing with great *fleetness*, from the western height where modern Holborn stands, down to the noble river. In this situation, looking toward the west, my view darts down to the bottom of the hill, as well, at least, as the serpentine windings of Ludgate hill and street accidentally permit. The first and most powerful impression which is then made on my mind is that numerous and clattering assemblage of carriages, chariots, chaises, hackney-coaches, stages, carts, and waggons, of all shapes, sizes, and descriptions, ascending and descending the hill, bustling and jostling against each other, struggling to pass; and flanked on both sides by a thick cloud of foot-passengers, running busily up and down on the *trottoirs* of the street, or walking leisurely and gazing at the shop-windows as they crawl along. Among these passengers I remark several who seem to have made a point of regulating their watches upon the oracular face of the metropolitan clock;—and there you will catch a most curious fund of entertainment. The clerk or stopman who has overslept himself looks up to the dial with wrinkled brows, then to his watch, and runs; the neat and correct man, who finds that his watch is right, gives but a glance, and slides along with a smile; whilst the plodding tradesman or lounging quality hardly takes notice of the finger of time. To stand a few minutes, and look at the various impressions wrought on the features of people, by the ever-moving hand of the clock, with respect to their corresponding concerns, would afford matter for a Theophrastes or a Lavater to write volumes upon.—The impatience of expectation, the impetuosity of desire, the indifference of idleness, the frown of disappointment, the smile of satisfaction, all regulated by the *silent teller* of the hours, pass so rapidly from one face to the other, that the whole scene assumes the appearance of a magic exhibition.

"The first house on the right in Ludgate-street, (anciently called *Bowyer Rowe*, says Stow, "on account of bowyers dwelling there in old time, but now worne out by mercers and others;") forming the north-west corner of the church-yard, presents the Juvenile Library, united with the Medicinal Repository, (so long known and accustomed under the name of Newbery;) a happy compound, which seems to imply at once the improving of the health



health of the mind as well as of the body. On the other side, the lively exhibition of carpets and other articles of upholstery makes a cheerful appearance; and leads the eye to the gay and elegant lottery-office a few houses below, which is set out with a great deal of taste, and consequently of expense. Nearly opposite on the right-hand, turning round by the pastry-cook's shop, opens *Ave-Maria-lane*, leading to *Warwick-lane*.—The names of this and several others about St. Paul's seem to have been adopted on account of the canons and prebendaries of the church, who most likely had their dwellings there, and recited those short prayers in their way to the church through those streets. Stow, however, starts an opinion somewhat different; for he says, speaking of *Paternoster-row*, the houses of which were first built by Henry Walleis, mayor in 1282; "This street is now called *Paternoster-rowe*, because of stationers or text-writers, that dwelled there, who wrote and sold all sorts of bookes then in use; namely, ABC, with the Paternoster, Ave, Creed, Grace, &c. There dwelled also turners of beads; and they were called *Paternoster-makers*, (the chaplet or rosary is composed of beads, upon which *Paters* and *aves* are recited,) as I read in a record of one Robert Nikke, Paternoster-maker, and citizen, in the reign of Henry IV. and so of other. At the end of this Paternoster-rowe is *Ave-Maria-lane*, so called upon the like occasion of text-writers and bead-makers then dwelling there."—*Creed-lane*, on the opposite side of Ludgate-hill, obtained its denomination from either of the causes above stated; but was previously called *Spurriers' Row*, from the number of spur-makers which were anciently the principal inhabitants of this narrow winding street. About eighteen years ago, the pavement of Great Carter-lane having been for a long period of time out of repair, Creed-lane was constantly filled with coal-waggon, drays, and other carriages, ascending from Blackfriars-bridge through St. Andrew's hill; but is now generally avoided, on account of its narrowness. A little below, on the same side of the way, may be seen the curious contrivance of the speaking-pipes, through which a constant and easy communication may be kept by words throughout all the apartments of a large house; a contrivance which at once explains the principle of the speaking figures with which the town has been occasionally amused and astonished. Opposite again, the church of St. Martin, Ludgate, makes an agreeable appearance; the steeple is of a curious form, stands on a square stone tower, and ends in a sharp spear, with a gallery at the bottom, the whole from the tower being covered with lead: over the door still remains the wingless head of a cherub, carved in stone, which retains some vestiges of good workmanship: the poor thing was clipped close about ten years since, and seems to bear on its melancholy visage marks of the sorrow occasioned by such treatment. Several most elegant shops of linen-draper, mercers, and silver-smiths, attract the attention of the itinerant on both sides of the way. Next to this church stands the London Coffee-house, one of the best of this kind, and generally frequented by the best company: the premises are most extensive, and the roof of the house stands on a level with that of St. Paul's below the dome. An archway on the other side leads to the Broadway in Blackfriars, and thence through Water-lane, or Union-street, to the bridge. This archway is called *Pilgrim-passage*; and from this point, whereabout the ancient Lud-gate stood, the view displays itself, and becomes more interesting.

"A side-glance a little lower down on the right takes in the whole of the Old Bailey, a distant view of Smithfield, the eastern part of St. Sepulchre's church, the pump, the Compter, Newgate, and the Sessions-house; but the traveller cannot help heaving a deep and melancholy sigh at the sad recollection of how many malefactors have from that quarter been "launched into eternity."

"If the traveller happens to come down the hill on a Sunday or Thursday night, or on the whole of Monday

or Friday, he will find his way considerably impeded by the rencontre of thousands of sheep and oxen going to and coming from Smithfield-market: the barking of dogs, lowing of cattle, bawling of drovers and butchers, and the screams of frightened females, will assault his ears with a most unharmonious concert; and he will hasten from a scene not only attended with danger, but also with regret at beholding so many victims doomed to bleed for our sustenance. But to this he will soon perhaps reconcile himself, when he reflects, that necessity here commands the destruction of animals for the subsistence of millions of men, whilst armies of our fellow-creatures are sacrificed to the ambition of a few.

"From these conflicting thoughts the mind will be diverted by the moving group of Cyprians who generally ply at the entrance of *Cock-court*, (exactly opposite the Old Bailey,) which leads also on the left to the Broadway, and on the right to a passage which seems to have been accidentally perforated through the ancient city-walls. The exhibition of prints and drawings at the corner window will interest the mind of the passenger, and gratify his taste.

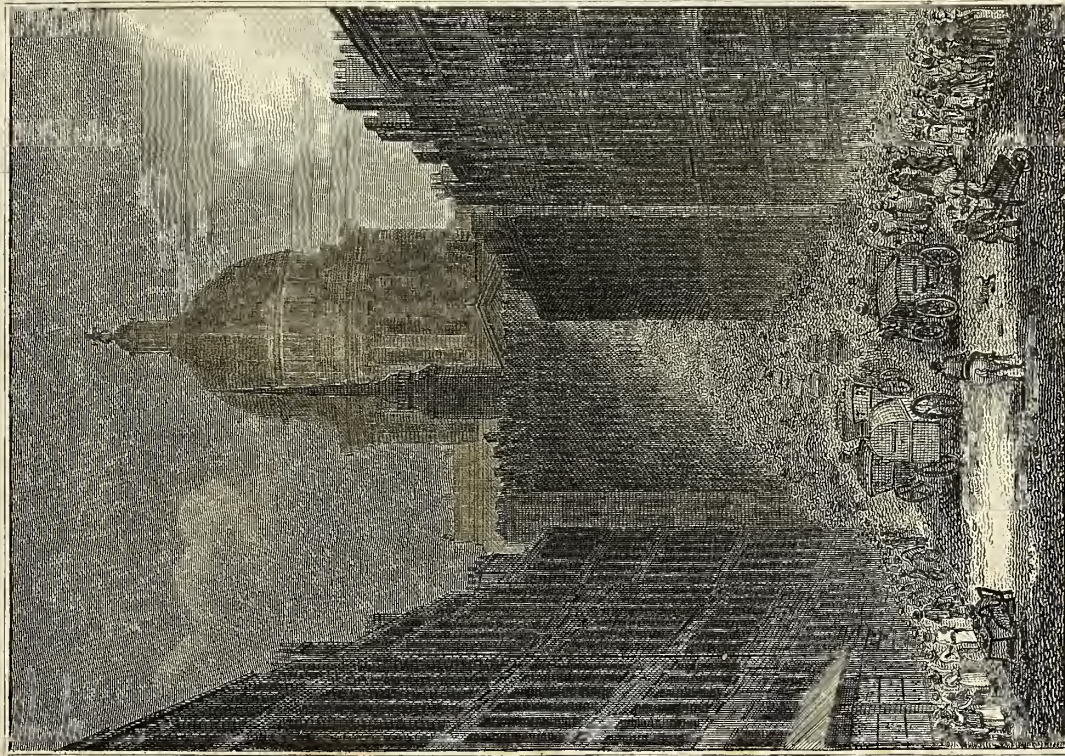
"The same stream of elegance, richness, and splendour, which I have noticed before, runs down the hill, in the appearance of the houses, the fitting-up of the shops, and the exhibition of articles of sale. On the left side, *Dolphin-court*, leading to a public house which has borne this name for many centuries, will take you to a small lane running parallel with Ludgate-hill; and next to the court, the attention is called to the Hope Insurance-Office. A large stone figure of this second of the theological virtues; rather too short for its bulk, is placed over the main entrance, and has a good effect; her right hand points to heaven, and her left rests upon the anchor, an emblem of the business transacted in the house. Opposite is *Naked-boy-court*, the meaning of which I cannot easily ascertain or guess; unless I refer it to the unnatural act of exposing children, which, being perhaps less frequent and seen with more horror in ancient times than it is now, was deemed sufficient to stigmatize the place,

————— Where, with averted looks,  
And furtive hands, the guilty mother drops  
Th' unaction'd pledge of an illicit love,  
Her new-born, guiltless babe;—and leaves it bare  
To face the less inclement sky; till Heaven  
Sends gentle Pity down, to take it safe,  
And place it on the lap of Charity. Z.

"From this spot the view extends up to Fleet-street nearly as far as St. Dunstan's church. But, if we turn round just at this point, how grand, how majestic, is the appearance of St. Paul's on the brow of the hill! Although the fulness of the aspect is often intercepted by the elbowing and irregular south side of the hill, and the steeple of St. Martin, on the left, intersecting perpendicularly, but not precluding, the view of the splendid metropolitan Basilica; the grandeur of the edifice impresses upon the mind a strong sense of veneration and of awe.—Indeed, is there any thing equal to it? When, from their low and dirty streets, the Roman tribunes called up the attention of the deluded citizens to the venerable Capitol, had they such an object in view? St. Peter itself, the *chef d'œuvre* of Bramante, though built upon a much larger scale, yields to St. Paul's in point of situation and external appearance; and, when the silver rays of the moon, playing around the dome, dart, in a torrent of light, down the hill, and project on the greatest part of Ludgate-street the lengthened shadow of this noble edifice, the scene assumes such a solemnity, that I never can witness it without the liveliest emotions of devotion and respect.

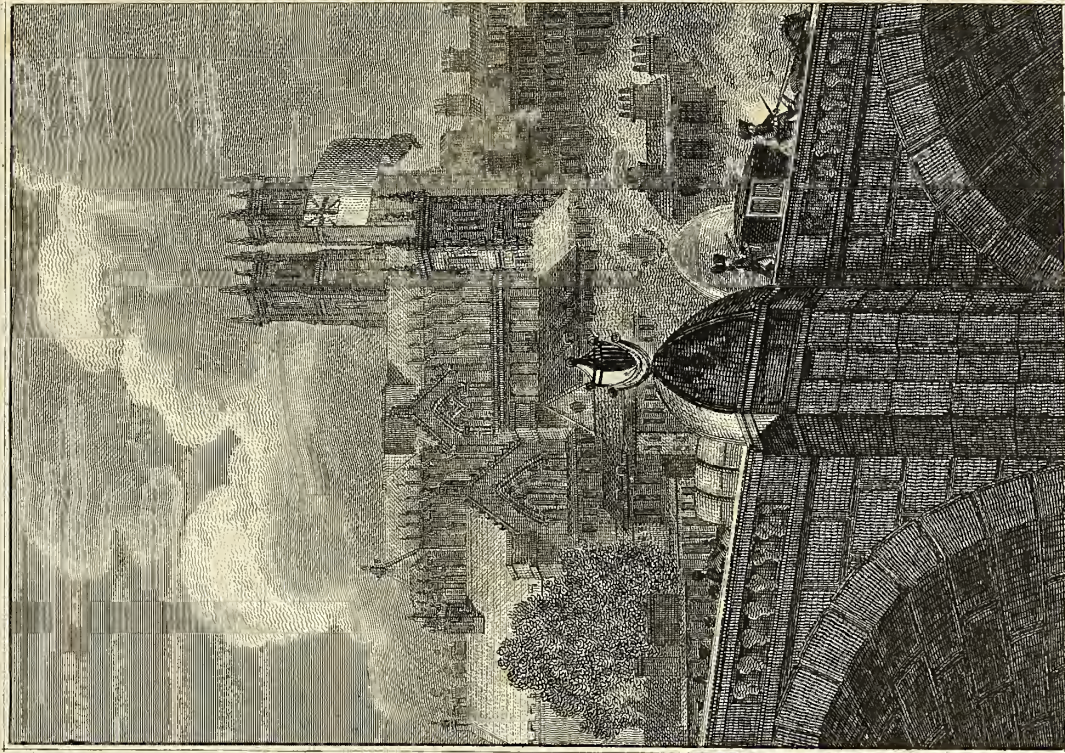
"To return to my description; I must point out on one side at the bottom the elegant *Insurance-office* of the *Albion*, its neat and classical portico in Bridge-street, and the animated group of the far-famed knight *Monsieur St. George* slaying





ADM. Quin 43.

*View of St. Paul's Church, from Fleet Street.*  
*"How grand, how majestic, is the appearance*  
*of St. Paul's, on the brow of the hill."* See, p. 52.



J. Chapman sc.

*View of Westminster Abbey, and St. Margaret's*  
*Church, from Westminster Bridge.*







slaying the dragon, spiritedly executed in stone; and facing the *Hand-in-Hand* office, a noble building erected for the same purposes on the opposite side.

"Arrived at the Obelisk, if the number of carriages, horse and foot passengers, droves of cattle, &c. and the impetuosity of the street-sweepers, allow me, I will stand a few minutes, and contemplate the noble bridge riding stately on the breadth of the river; the simple but elegant Chatham-place, with its nursery-maids and children; the Crescent; the façade of Bridewell newly repaired; and the street intersected in the middle by a long line of hackney-coaches; the whole contrasted, on the other hand, by the longitudinal view of Fleet-market, of the campanile and clock in the centre, and of the spacious wall of the prison, armed with chevaux-de-frise; and terminated, a few months ago, by the cloud-capt summit of the *Commercial Hall*, now in ashes!"

As it does not enter in our plan to follow the keen observer through all his perambulations, we must leave him here.

#### SITUATION AND EXTENT OF LONDON.

London is situated on a gentle slope on the north side of the Thames; where this grand estuary, by the diurnal oscillations of the immense body of its water, facilitates the reciprocal going up and down of the trading vessels from the wharfs to the sea, and at that precise point where the two banks of this noble stream could be first united by a bridge. Considered in the aggregate, London comprises the city and its liberties, together with the city and liberties of Westminster, the borough of Southwark on the southern bank of the river, and nearly thirty contiguous villages in Middlesex and Surry, which are now so connected with London, by an uninterrupted chain of houses and streets, that they appear to make inseparable parts of it.

The extent of London, from west to east, or from Knightbridge to Poplar, is full seven miles and a half; whilst its breadth, from north to south, or from Newington Butts to Islington, is nearly five miles. The circumference of the whole, allowing for various inequalities in the extension of streets, &c. at the extremities, cannot be less than thirty miles. Hence it may be fairly estimated, that the buildings of this metropolis cover at least eighteen square miles, or 11,520 square acres. Out of this must be deducted the space occupied by the river Thames, which extends about seven miles, or 12,320 yards, in length, by one quarter of a mile, or 400 yards, in width; making 1120 square acres.

Independently of various local and civil divisions, London may be said to consist of five distinguishing parts, or popular portions; viz. the west end of the town, the city, the east end of the town, Westminster, and the Borough. The "west end of the town," extending from Charing-Cross to Hyde-park, and from St. James's park to Paddington, is considered the best and most fashionable part; and is laid out in the two great thoroughfares, called Oxford-road and Piccadilly, with various handsome squares and streets, which are chiefly occupied by the town-houses of the nobility and gentry, and the most fashionable shops. The "city" includes the central part, and most ancient division of the metropolis. This is the emporium of commerce, trade, and business; and is occupied by shops, warehouses, public offices, and houses of tradesmen and others connected with business. The "east end of the town," and its inhabitants, are devoted to commerce, to ship-building, and to every collateral branch connected with merchandise. This division of London has assumed a novel character since the commencement of the present century, by the vast commercial docks and warehouses that have been formed and constructed here. The southern bank of the Thames, from Deptford to Lambeth, bears some resemblance to the east end of the town; being occupied by persons engaged in commercial and maritime concerns; docks, wharfs, and warehouses, being abundant. But this part

of London has one distinguishing feature from any other, as it abounds with numerous and various manufactories; iron-foundries, glass-houses, soap-boilers, dye-houses, boat-builders, shot and hat manufactories, &c. and many other similar establishments. From the great number of fires employed in these houses, and offensive effluvia arising from some of the works, this district is rendered extremely unpleasant, if not unhealthful; it is therefore mostly inhabited by workmen, labourers, and the lower classes of society. Many improvements have lately been made, and several respectable houses erected, in St. George's fields. In Westminster are the houses of lords and commons, the courts of justice, and many offices belonging to government. Another part of the metropolis, not hitherto noticed, but which may be considered as the last enlargement, and the most regular and systematic in its arrangement of squares, streets, &c. is the northern side of the town; comprehending a large mass of new buildings between Holborn and Somers-town, and in the parishes of Marybone and Paddington. The Regent's Park, a grand and most extensive conception, calculated to give a pleasing recess from business to men of trade, or a wholesome shelter to the gentry and nobility from the thicker atmosphere of the town, is now forming under the hands of the workmen, and will extend this part of London to the very foot of the well-known Primrose-hill and Hampstead. Nothing shows the increased and increasing growth of the English metropolis more decisively than the vast number of new squares, streets, rows, and places, that have been recently erected, and are now in the progress of building, all round the metropolis. London is computed to contain nearly 70 squares, and 8000 streets, lanes, rows, courts, &c. According to a census obtained in the year 1811, the population of London, Westminster, and their suburbs, was 1,099,104 persons; being an increase of 133,139 within the course of ten years. We may however assert that it is almost impossible to give a proper account of the extent of London; as every year, every month, every week, new edifices spring out of the earth as if by magic; and, from the good taste and elegance of their architecture, seem to be exotic plants transported from the gardens of Athens and Rome, and pullulating on British soil.

The lively fancy of ancient writers was curiously at work upon the general appearance of the city of London, including Westminster and the suburbs, when they conceived that it had the shape of a large fish: and, of course, the whale was the first, and the only one that could yield any thing like a simile, to depict the vast and increasing bulk of the metropolis. The winding of the river, from east to west, and by a sharp elbow from north to south, presented to their fantastic imagination, the embowed form of a large cetaceous monster laid on the strand. The head was supposed to be the city of Westminster; the mouth in St. James's park; the under jaw lying at Chelsea, the upper on the extensive streets of Marybone; the radiating eye was placed at the Seven Dials; the back at Bloomsbury-square; the indented prominences of the dorsal fin at the advancing buildings in the duke of Bedford's grounds; and the body in the city. With a modern stretch upon the same allusion, we might, and indeed ought to, place the heart at the Bank, the liver at the Stock Exchange, and the vent at the Tower. The intestines will naturally contain the whole of Wapping, and the London docks, and the tail spread itself towards the East and West India docks as far as the Isle of Dogs. Although this sort of hieroglyphical representation may at first appear caricatured, and perhaps (to some grave critics) ridiculous, yet, as it has been given out long before our era by the Londonographers, we have thought it not amiss to present an idea of it to our readers. It may, moreover, assist the memory of those who have visited London but once, and furnish those who never saw it with a topographic delineation of its tout-ensemble.

Some other authors have seen in the city of London and Westminster the shape of a laurel-leaf; and one of



them has expressed himself in the following quaint distich :  
 London is like a laurel-leaf ; may she  
 Be verdant still, and flourish like the tree.

*New View of Lond.* 1708.

This civic and patriotic wish has been accomplished in its fulness ; and, in spite of the demon of war, London will continue to flourish down to the end of time.

#### GENERAL HISTORICAL ACCOUNT.

It appears by Julius Cæsar's own words, in his Commentaries, lib. 5, that London was the *chief lieu*, or "seigneurie," of the Trinobantes ; but he does not expressly mention *London*, as he does *Lutetia*, the ancient name of Paris ; and his silence amounts nearly to a proof that he did not cross the river Thames. It appears also, that it was in the eighth year of the reign of Cassibelanus, uncle to Androgeus and Theomantius, sons of king *Lud*, that the landing of Julius Cæsar took place ; but as for the reveries of some fanciful historians, at the head of whom we may place Geoffrey of Monmouth, (who tells us a great deal about the dynasties of the British kings before the period just mentioned,) it would be loss of time to entertain our readers with them. The very names of the pretended heirs of Lud, being of Greek origin, are *prima facie* evidence against such statements. Indeed the whole of the events that took place before the second landing of the Romans under Claudius, are involved in such mists of obscurity, that the very situation of our town at that time is become little less than an insoluble problem.

By Ptolemy, and some other ancient writers of good authority, indeed, *Londinium* is placed in Cantium, or Kent, on the south side of the Thames ; and it is the opinion of some moderns, that the Romans probably had a station there, to secure their conquests on that side of the river, before they reduced the Trinobantes. The place fixed upon for this station is St. George's Fields, a large plat of ground situated between Lambeth and Southwark, where many Roman coins, bricks, and chequered pavements, have been found. Three Roman ways from Kent, Surry, and Middlesex, intersected each other in this place : this therefore is supposed to be the original *Londinium*, which it is thought became neglected after the Romans reduced the Trinobantes, and settled on the other side of the Thames ; and the name was transferred to the new city.

The situation of this city, as Mr. Pennant observes, was just such as the people would select according to the rule established among the Britons. An immense forest originally extended to the river-side, and even as late as the reign of Henry II. covered the northern neighbourhood of the city, and was filled with various species of beasts of chase. It was defended naturally by fosses ; one formed by the creek which ran along Fleet-ditch, the other afterwards known by that of Walbrook : the south side was guarded by the Thames : the north they might think sufficiently protected by the adjacent forest.

The Romans possessed themselves of London, on their second invasion in the reign of Claudius, about 105 years after their first landing under Cæsar. They had begun with Camalodunum, the present Malden in Essex ; and having taken it, planted there a colony consisting of veterans of the 14th legion. London and Verulam were next taken possession of about the same time. Camalodunum was made a *colonia*, or place governed entirely by Roman laws and customs ; Verulam (on the site of which St. Alban's now stands) a *municipium*, in which the natives were honoured with the privileges of Roman citizens, and enjoyed their own laws and constitutions ; and Londinium only a *præfectura*, the inhabitants, a mixture of Romans and Britons, being suffered to enjoy no more than the name of citizens of Rome, being governed by præfects sent annually from thence, without having either their own laws or magistrates. "It was even then of such concourse (says Mr. Pennant), and such vast trade, that the wise conquerors did not think fit to trust the in-

habitants with the same privileges as other places of which they had less reason to be jealous." But others observe ; that this is a mistake ; and that the Romans, in order to secure their conquest, and to gain the affections of those Britons who had already submitted to their authority, made London equally a municipium or free city with Verulamium.

It has been placed beyond doubt that the Phœnicians, and perhaps the Carthaginians, (and why not also the Massilienses, a colony of the Phœnicians, on the south of France, well known by the modern name of Marseilles ?) used to frequent the shores of Cornwall, whence they transported to several parts of the continent the *tin* which that country produces in abundance, a commodity so useful, and yet so scarce in other parts of the world. But it is not easy to ascertain what were the particular articles of trade between foreign nations and London at the period of the landing of Julius Cæsar. Strabo says, (lib. iv. p. 265.) Britain produceth corn, cattle, gold, silver, and iron ; besides which, skins, slaves, and dogs, (naturally excellent hunters,) are exported from that island. The two first, corn and cattle, were most probably exported from London, as well as slaves, skins, and dogs. The same author mentions also (ib. p. 309.) salt, earthen-ware, and works in brass ; polished bits of bones emulating ivory, horse-collars, toys of amber, glasses, and other articles of the same materials. But it does not appear that those traders ever went round the island at that period ; and, indeed, under the reign of Augustus, Great Britain was so little known, that it was supposed entirely separated from the continent, not by so narrow a channel as now exists between Calais and Dover, but by some larger expanse of the ocean—or else Virgil would not have said (Ecl. i. 67.)

Et penitus toto divisos orbe Britannos.

This ignorance of the Romans, or their neglect of Britain, causes a chasm in the history of London of ninety years duration. At length, in the year 43, they made a more effectual invasion in the reign of the emperor Claudius, who, in the year following, coming in person, vanquished and took Cinobellinus prisoner, in his residence of Camalodunum, or Malden, in Essex.

The first Roman historian who notices London appears to have been Tacitus, who lived some time in it, about fifty years after this invasion. He calls it *Londinium, copia negotiatorum et comæatu maxime celeberrimum* ; "London, famous for its many merchants, and the abundance of its provisions." This indicates that London was at that time of some antiquity as a trading town.

About the year 64, Suetonius Paulinus, the Roman general, being employed in the conquest of the Isle of Anglesea, in North Wales, received intelligence of the revolt of the Britons, who had flocked in great numbers from all parts to join Boadicea, queen of the Iceni, who inhabited the counties of Suffolk, Norfolk, Huntingdon, and Cambridge. He advanced with all speed to London ; but, finding himself unequal to its defence with his small army, he evacuated it to the fury of the enemy, after reinforcing his troops with all the natives who were fit to serve. The enraged Boadicea destroyed all who remained behind, without regard to age or sex, and burnt the place. Camalodunum had previously shared the same fate ; and Verulam speedily followed. In these three places seventy thousand of the inhabitants, Romans and Britons, are stated to have perished ; of which number, Mr. Maitland, on account of the great commerce of London, estimates one-half as belonging to it. In support of this opinion, he observes, "that the mighty Romans, its founders, upon their settling a colony, municipium, or emporium, brought together great numbers of their own citizens, for whom they erected houses ; and, by endowing the place with ample privileges and immunities, encouraged the natives, as well as confederate foreigners, to settle therein ; so that it is not in the least to be wondered at, especially with such an advantageous situation, that London should, in so short a space of time, become so populous."



It was not long before London recovered from this dreadful catastrophe, and increased so much, that Herodian, in his life of the emperor Severus, who reigned from 193 to 211, calls it "a great and wealthy city."

When the Romans became masters of London, they enlarged the precincts and altered their form. It extended, east and west, from Ludgate to Tower-hill; and in breadth, north and south, from the causeway near Cheapside to the river. Its northern boundary was accidentally discovered by sir Christopher Wren, in digging for the new foundation of St. Mary-le-bow, after the great fire in 1666, the steeple of which now stands upon an old Roman causeway, of four feet in thickness, formed of rough stone close and well rammed with Roman brick and rubbish at the bottom, for a foundation, and all firmly cemented. That its western extremity did not extend beyond Ludgate, may be inferred from a sepulchral monument having been dug up, about the same time, on the spot where Ludgate church is situated, of which sir Christopher Wren gives the following account: "On the west side of the causeway was situated the praetorian camp, which was also walled into Ludgate, in the vallum of which was dug up, near the gate, after the fire, a stone, with an inscription and figure of a Roman soldier; a sepulchral monument, dedicated to the memory of Vivius Mancianus, a soldier of the second legion, styled Augusta, by his wife, Januaria Matrina." This stone is still preserved at the theatre of Oxford. From this circumstance little doubt can remain with respect to the western boundary, since, by the tenth table of the Roman law, it is expressly forbidden to bury in cities, in these words, "Let no body be interred or burnt within the city;" and, it is admitted by all writers on the manners of the Romans, that this law was observed with great strictness. However we can hardly believe that the Londoners did not extend their structures down the hill to the brook which, at the bottom, ran rapidly to the river at low water, and felt the impression of the tide, when flowing as far as Holborn-bridge. Besides, although the laws of the Twelve Tables were in full force at Rome, it does not follow that they were so strictly observed in municipia and colonies; and the stone found, as stated above, might have made part of a cenotaph erected to the memory of a warrior who perhaps had been killed and buried at a great distance, or was drowned in the Thames.

It is also nearly impossible to fix the exact period when the walls were built. The Latin word *vallum*, which means merely an entrenchment barricaded with pieces of wood, a sort of strong palisades, with which the ancient Britons used to surround their strong holds, is perhaps derived from the more ancient word "wall;" and, if taken in that sense, we can easily suppose that London, or the place where it now stands, was *walled*, or entrenched, as soon as the natives chose to settle there. As for *stone-walls*, Maitland ascribes the building of them to Theodosius, governor of Britain in 369. But Dr. Woodward and Mr. Pennant, with more probability, suppose that Constantine the Great was the founder of them; and this seems to be confirmed by the number of coins of his mother Helena, which have been discovered under them, having been placed there by him in compliment to her.

From some of the coins of this emperor, it is evident that he had established a mint in London; and it is supposed by many, that he also erected it into a bishop's see, because it appears that the bishops of London and York, and another English bishop, probably of Caerleon, now Chester, were at a council held at Arles, in the year 314, against the schism of the Donatists. But there can be no doubt of its having been a bishop's see much earlier, since Camden, in treating of the division of Britain, says, "Whereas, therefore, Britaine had, in old time, three archbishops, to wit, of London, of York, and Caerleon in South Wales; I suppose that the province, which now we call of Canterbury (for thither the see of London was translated), made *Britannia Prima*; Wales, under the cite of Caerlon (Chester), was *Britannia Secunda*; and the province of York, which then reached unto the limit or bor-

ders, made *Maxima Caesariensis*." Now Lucias, on whose authority he grounds this fact, was pope in 252 and 253. It is therefore certain, that Christianity was introduced into Britain much earlier than the time of Augustine the monk, who converted the Saxons, and is said by Maitland and others to have constituted Mellitus the first bishop of the East Saxons, whose capital London at that time was, though perhaps, during the period in which the provincial Britons were overrun and almost extirpated by the Scots and Picts, it might have fallen into decay, from which it was not likely to recover, during the domination of the Saxons previous to their conversion in 600; a period of one hundred and fifty years.

We labour under the same difficulty, in endeavouring to discover at what precise time the Romans abandoned Britain, and consequently left the metropolis to its own government; but their recession seems to have happened between the year 422 and 448.

The ancient course of the wall was as follows: It began with a fort near the present site of the Tower; was continued along the Minories and the back of Houndsditch, across Bishopsgate-street, in a straight line by the street now called London-wall, to Cripplegate; then returned southward by Crowder's-Well Alley, (where several remnants of lofty towers were lately to be seen,) to Aldergate; thence along the back of Bull-and-Mouth street to Newgate, and again along the back of the houses in the Old Bailey to Ludgate; soon after which it probably finished with another fort, where the house, late the king's printing house, in Black Friars, now stands; from hence another wall ran near the river-side, along Thames-street, quite to the fort on the eastern extremity. The walls were three miles a hundred and sixty-five feet in circumference, guarded at proper distances on the land side with fifteen lofty towers; some of them were remaining within these few years. Maitland mentions one twenty-six feet high, near Gravel-lane, on the west side of Houndsditch; another, about eighty paces south-east towards Aldgate; and the bases of another, supporting a modern house, at the lower end of the street called the Vinegar-yard, south of Aldgate. The walls, when perfect, are supposed to have been twenty-two feet high, the towers forty. These, with the remnants of the wall, proved the Roman structure, by the tiles and disposition of the masonry. London-wall, near Moorfields, is now the most entire part left of that ancient precinct. And, on a small passage, leading from the Broadway, Blackfriars, to Bridge-street, there is at this moment a most venerable specimen of this ancient manner of building. It is a curious remnant, in which one may easily observe that the cement which was employed to bind the stones, has, by length of time and the nature of its intrinsic composition, acquired a greater degree of hardness than the very stones it was intended to unite together.

The gates, which received the great military roads, were four. The Praetorian Way, the Saxon *Walling-street*, passed under one, on the site of the late Newgate; vestiges having been discovered of the road in digging above Holborn-bridge; it turned down to Dowgate, or more properly *Dow-gate*, or *Water-gate*, where there was a *trajectus*, or ferry, to join it to the Walling-street, which was continued to Dover. The Hermin-street passed under Cripplegate; and a vicinal way went under Aldgate by Bethnal-green, towards Old Ford, a pass over the river Lee to Duroleiton, the modern Layton in Essex.

The influx of northern nations in Italy having forced the Romans to leave Britain, the Saxons, under their leaders Hengist and Horsa, landed in 448, having been invited over by the natives, as auxiliaries, to defend them against the Scots and Picts. They were received as friends; but, says Bede, "they minded to destroy the country as enemies; for, after they had driven out the Scots and Picts, they also drove the Britains, some over the seas, some into the waste mountains of Wales and Cornwall, and divided the country into divers kingdoms among themselves." *Stow's Survey*. 1633.

London fell into the hands of these invaders about the  
year



year 457; and became the chief city of the Saxon-kingdom in Essex. It suffered much in the wars carried on between the Britons and Saxons; but it soon recovered; so that Bede calls it a *princely mart-town*, under the government of a chief magistrate, whose title of *portgrave*, or *portreeve*, (for we find him called by both names,) conveys a grand idea of the mercantile state of London in these early ages, that required a governor or guardian of the port.

On the conversion of a considerable number of the Saxons to Christianity, Augustine, the monk, by order of pope Gregory, was ordained archbishop of England, in the year 600, by Etherius archbishop of Arles in France; he ordained Mellitus bishop of the East Saxons, who, in 610, had a cathedral church, dedicated to St. Paul, erected for him in London, the capital of East Saxony, by Ethelbert king of Kent. At this time the city of Canterbury, as being the residence of Ethelbert, to whom all the southern nations of the Saxons were vassals, appears to have been dignified with the title of the metropolis.

In the year 605, or, according to other authors, in 610, Sebert, king of the East Saxons, built a church or minister in the island of Thorney, situated to the west of London, which, at the desire of bishop Mellitus, was dedicated to St. Peter; but, according to Stow, it was founded in 614, by Mellitus, with the assistance of king Ethelbert. It was, however, destroyed soon after by the Danes.

Sebert was succeeded by his three sons, Sexred, Seward, and Sigbert, who, during the life of their father, professed themselves Christians; but, after his death, which happened about 616, they publicly returned to paganism, and expelled Mellitus their dominions; and, though the conversion of Eadbald king of Kent, their sovereign, obtained that good bishop's recall to his see, the Londoners, who chose to live in their pagan superstition, would not admit him.

During the heptarchy, the civil history of this country is so very defective, that no mention of the city of London is made from the year 616 to 764, a chasm of nearly a century and an half; but, the history of the church being recorded by the monks, who, in those ages of darkness, were the only men who could write or read, we are enabled to supply the defect, and fill these *lacunæ*.

After the expulsion of Mellitus, the see of London remained without a bishop till the year 653, when, Sigbert king of the East Saxons embracing the Christian religion, Cedda, or Chad, was advanced to the bishopric of this city. In 666, Wulpher, who acted as he pleased in the kingdom of Essex, gave the first instance of simony in England, by selling the bishopric of London to Wina, who had been driven from Winchester. He governed the church of Essex till his death, in 675. After the decease of Wina, the bishopric of this city was given to Erkenwald, son of Offa, king of the East Angles, who had been educated under Mellitus, the first bishop of London. Erkenwald was so distinguished by the sanctity of his life, and by several religious foundations, that, after his death, which happened at Barking, in Essex, the canons of St. Paul's and the monks of Chertsey, or, according to Rapin, of Barking, disputed the possession of his body; but the inhabitants of London, espousing the side of the canons, took away the remains of the bishop, and caused them to be honourably interred in his own cathedral, the revenues of which he had augmented, and enlarged its buildings. Erkenwald was succeeded by Walter, or Waldhere, in the reign of king Sebbi, who, being wearied with the cares of a crown, acquainted the bishop with his resolution to abdicate, and to assume the monastic life; he accordingly passed through the forms of a recluse; and, having received the habit from Waldhere, he gave that ecclesiastic a considerable sum of money, to be applied to the purposes of charity, and continued the monastic life to his death.

In the year 764 London suffered very considerably by fire; some time after which, in 798, it was almost wholly burnt down; and, the streets being very narrow, and the houses built of wood, numbers of its inhabitants perished

in the flames; nor was it rebuilt before many of the new houses were destroyed by a third conflagration, which happened in 801.

During the civil wars of the Saxons with each other, the Londoners had always the address to keep themselves neuter; and, about the year 819, when the seven Saxon kingdoms fell under the power of Egbert, London appears to have become the metropolis of England, which it has ever since continued; but Mr. Pennant says that it was made the capital of all England by Alfred.

In the year 833, Egbert king of the West Saxons, Ethelwulf his son, Witlaf king of Mercia, together with most of the bishops, and other great men of the realm, assembled at London, where they held a *witenagemot*, or parliament, in which they deliberated on the most effectual measures to be pursued, to prevent the invasions of the piratical Danes. Notwithstanding all their precautions, it was not long before London severely felt the effects of Danish cruelty; for, arriving with a large fleet of ships on the coast of Kent, they landed, and, having destroyed Rochester and Canterbury, they marched to this city, which they sacked, and, with a horrid rage of barbarity, murdered most of its inhabitants. This happened in the year 839. Flushed with the success of this and several other attempts, the Danes entertained serious thoughts of making a complete conquest of the whole island. With this view, they, in 851, shipped a large army on-board a fleet of three hundred and fifty sail; landed near London, which they soon reduced and plundered; and, thinking it a proper fortress from which they might make incursions into the kingdom of the West Saxons, they placed a large garrison therein; and, notwithstanding the most solemn oaths and treaties with king Alfred, they made perpetual inroads among the neighbouring states, which they robbed and harassed with the most unrelenting rage of diabolical fury.

There is not any certainty respecting the time or cause of the separation of London from the kingdom of Essex. Rapin notices, that in 872 it was in subjection to Mercia, where it has continued ever since, as part of Middlesex.

In 879, the Danes, notwithstanding they had concluded a peace with Alfred, made preparations for further inroads; to accomplish which, a Danish fleet came up the Thames, under one Hæsten, and wintered at Fulham; but, being disappointed of the assistance they expected, they returned in the following spring. Alfred, resolved to punish these infractors of the most solemn treaties, repaired all his old fortresses, erected new ones, and, in 884, laying siege to London, attacked that city with so much bravery, that the Danes were glad to capitulate, after a very faint resistance.

As soon as Alfred had thus possessed himself of London, he began to rebuild its walls, towers, and gates, which had been almost destroyed by the Danes; and, having driven out the Danish inhabitants who had settled there, he bestowed the government of the city on Ethelred duke of Mercia, who had married his daughter Ethelfleda, in hopes that it would afford him a secure retreat against both his foreign and domestic enemies. It appears that Ethelred was vested with powers superior to those of an ordinary governor; and it is probable that he held this city *in fee*, because, on his decease, Ethelfleda delivered it, with the city of Oxford, up to her brother, which, if her husband had been only an ordinary governor, she need not have done, since they would of course have fallen to her brother Edward, as heir to his father Alfred.

The ambition of conquering this kingdom still predominating in the breasts of the Danes, they were perpetually hovering about the coast of England; and at length, under the conduct of their general, Hæsten, landed in considerable numbers on the coast of Essex, a little below Tilbury; and, having erected a fort or castle at Beamfleete, now Southbemfleete, near the Isle of Canvey, they made perpetual excursions into the adjacent country, committing



ting great depredations wherever they went. Hereupon Alfred dispatched Ethelred, the governor of London, with a number of regular troops, which, being joined by a large body of the citizens, drove the ravaging Danes back to the castle, to which they laid siege, and took it and a very rich booty, at the same time taking prisoners the wife and sons of the Danish general Hæsten, whom they conducted to London. On this occasion the citizens distinguished themselves in such a manner as evinced at once their great courage and loyalty.

This part of the history of our celebrated metropolis being little known, on account of the causes stated before, we have been more prolix perhaps than other publications of the same kind; but, when we consider the interest which every one feels for ancient records concerning the origin of places, and the events locally connected with them, we are sure to have acquitted ourselves of a pleasing duty.

About the year 886, it appears that Alfred, having completely expugned the Danes, and forced them to retreat, caused many ships to be built, and let them, and money also, out to merchants, who traded to the East Indies, and brought from thence precious stones, &c. some of which remain still in the most ancient crown wherewith Alfred and his successors were wont to be crowned. But this traffic, says Rapin, could be no farther than the Levant; in which it is more than probable he judges right. Others say, that those ships sailed to Alexandria, and from thence their people, passing over the Isthmus, went down the Red Sea, to the coasts of Persia, &c. and this opinion seems to be countenanced by what William of Malmesbury relates of Sighelm bishop of Sherborn, who, being sent by Alfred to Rome with presents for the pope, afterwards travelled as far as the town of St. Thomas, in India, now called Meliapour, with gifts for the Christians there from that king, to whom he brought precious stones and spices; some of which remained in the cathedral church of Sherborne in Dorsetshire at the time in which he wrote.

Thus in the reign of Alfred, London began to recover from its ruinous state. In 893, however, he had the mortification to see his capital reduced to ashes by an accidental fire, which, from the houses being at that time built of wood, could not be extinguished; but the walls, being constructed of incombustible materials, withstood the destructive element. In the same year the Danes made another attempt upon London, by sending one division of their fleet up the Thames, while a descent was made in Kent by another; but, Alfred having built vessels longer, and higher out of the water, than those of the Danes, some of which had forty oars, and a kind of half-deck, they were discomfited, and compelled to retire.

At this time the city appears to have received for the first time a form of government for the better protection of the citizens, and the execution of the social laws, which, as the town increased, it became more necessary to enforce. According to several ancient chroniclers, Alfred instituted the important office of sheriff, or, as it was called in the Saxon language, *shire-reeve*; but there is no record remaining by which this fact can be ascertained with regard to the sheriff of London. It was also about this period that the inhabitants, having considerably suffered by fire, on account of the combustible materials of which their houses were composed, and being incited by the example of their king, Alfred, who had built several palaces of brick and stone, began to admit these more solid materials into the composition of their mansions.

King Ethelred, who began his reign in 979, and died in 1016, made laws, at Wantage, for the regulation of the customs on ships and merchandise, to be paid at *Blynesgate*, or *Billinggate*, in the port of London, then the only quay. They were as follows:

1. A small vessel arriving there was to pay one half-penny for toll.

2. If a greater one, bearing sails, one penny.

3. For a keele, or hulk, being a long and large capacious sort of a vessel, four pence.

4. Out of a ship laden with wood, one piece for toll.

5. A boat with fish, one halfpenny; and a bigger boat, one penny.

6. Those of Rouen, in Normandy, that came with wine, or *grampois*, (large pease,) and those of Flanders and Ponthieu, and others from Normandy and France, were wont to open their wares, and free them from toll; (i. e. I suppose, to pay toll.) Such traders as came from Liege and other places, travelling by land, opened their wares, and paid toll. The emperor's men, (i. e. Germans of the Steel-yard,) coming with their ships, were accounted worthy of good laws, and might buy in their ships; but it was not lawful for them to foretell the markets from the burghers of London. They were to pay toll, and, at Christmas, two grey cloths, and one brown one; with ten pounds of pepper, five pair of gloves, and two vessels of vinegar; and as many at Easter.

7. Bread to pay toll thrice a-week, viz. Sunday, Tuesday, and Thursday. Each pannier with hens to pay one hen for toll.

8. Butter and cheese traded in fourteen days before Christmas, one penny for toll, and another penny seven days after Christmas." *Howell's Hist. of the World.*

As the German merchants of the Steel-yard in London were very early settled there as a commercial society, it seems at least probable, that the tolls here named to be paid by the *emperor's men*, as they are called, at the two most solemn festivals, point that society out to us. For it must be meant of persons constantly or usually residing in London; and there never was any other society of German merchants resident in London, but those of the Steel-yard society. Fitzstephen, a monk of Canterbury, who wrote in the time of king Stephen, says, that merchants of all nations had, in his time, their distinct quays and wharfs in London. The Dutch had the Steel-yard; the French, for their wines, the Vintry, &c.

In 982, the Danes laid siege to London, and greatly damaged it, but could not make themselves masters of it. There were at this time but few houses within the walls of London, and those were scattered about in a very irregular manner: the greater number of buildings being to the west of Ludgate.

In the year 992, the Danes returned again to the coast of England; upon which king Ethelred, to hinder their landing, fitted out a very large fleet in the port of London, the command of which he gave to the ealdermen Thorod and Ealfric, and to the bishops Efstane and Ecurige. The English fleet coming up with that of the Danes, the traitor Ealfric, on the evening of the intended engagement, deserted with his ship to the enemy; but, as soon as this was known, a signal was made to pursue, and the English, coming up with the rear of the Danes, took one of their ships; and, a squadron of the Londoners falling in with one of the enemy's squadrons, a desperate engagement ensued, in which several thousands lost their lives, and the treacherous Ealfric narrowly escaped being taken.

In the year 994, Anlaf and Sweyn, kings of Norway and Denmark, attacked London with a fleet of ninety-four ships; but the valiant citizens gave them so warm a reception, that they were glad to raise the siege; but, full of revenge for the loss they had sustained, they committed the most dreadful outrages in Middlesex, Essex, Suffex, Kent, and Hampshire, murdering all that fell in their way, and burning their habitations to the ground.

The Danes, in the year 1009, having made an incursion as far as Oxford, burnt that city, and in their return committed the most shocking devastations on each side of the river Thames; but, being informed that an army of Londoners was marching to attack them, those on the north side of the Thames crossed over to Staines, and, both parties being united, they hastened through the county of Surry to their ships on the coast of Kent; and, having



refitted their vessels, they wintered in the Thames, and made frequent attacks on the city of London, but were constantly repulsed by the valour and military skill of the citizens.

But the tranquillity which their bravery had obtained for the city did not last long. In the year 1015, Canute king of Denmark, having invaded and plundered the counties of Dorset, Somerset, and Wilts, sailed up the Thames with two hundred ships, and laid siege to the city. The citizens continued faithful, notwithstanding the defection of the greatest part of the kingdom; and made such a brave resistance, that Canute thought fit to withdraw his army, leaving only his fleet to blockade the city by water, that, when he found a fair opportunity, he might renew the siege with better success. At last, however, being defeated in several battles by Edmund Ironside, he was obliged to call off his ships to cover his own army in case of necessity. In the compromise, however, which was afterwards made between Edmund and Canute, the city of London was given to the latter, and owned him for its lawful sovereign. We have a strong proof of the opulence of London even at this time, from the tax laid upon it by Canute in order to pay his army; this being no less than 10,500*l.* while the rest of the nation was at the same time taxed only at 72,000*l.*

Under the reign of Canute, a cut or canal was caused to be dug up on the south side of the river, of a depth and breadth sufficient to admit his ships to pass to the west side of the bridge. Authors are not agreed as to the extent of this canal. It is allowed on all hands that it began at Rotherhithe, or Redriff; but some fix its western extremity at the lower end of Chelsea Reach, while others assert that it returned into the Thames at St. Saviour's Dock. Mr. Pennant, whose discernment is well known, says, "Evidences of this great work were found in the place called the Dock-head at Redriff, where it began. Fascines of hazels, and other brush-wood, fastened down with stakes, were discovered in digging that dock in 1694; and in other parts of its course have been met with, in ditching, large oaken planks, and numbers of piles."

If Maitland is correct in describing the other parts of its course, it must have had a very circuitous and apparently unnecessary extension. He says, "Its outflux from the river Thames was where the great wet dock below Rotherhithe is situate; whence, running due west by the Seven Houses in Rotherhithe-fields, it continues its course by a gentle winding to the drain-windmill; and, with a west-north-west course, passing St. Thomas of Watering's, by an easy turning it crosses the Deptford-road a little to the southward of the Lock Hospital, at the lower end of Kent-street; and, proceeding to Newington Butts, intersects the road a little south of the turnpike; whence continuing its course by the Black Prince, in Lambeth-road, on the north of Kennington, it runs west and by south through the Spring-garden at Vauxhall, to its influx into the Thames, at the lower end of Chelsea Reach."

The first instance on record of the Londoners sending representatives to a parliament, or meeting of the great men of the nation, (for the term *parliament* does not occur, according to sir Robert Cotton's opinion, before the sixth year of king John,) happened in the year 1036, in settling the important and difficult succession to the throne after Canute's death. The English, in general, declared for Edward, son of Ethelred; or, if that could not be carried, for Hardicanute, son of Canute by queen Emma, and then absent in Denmark. The city of London espoused the interest of Harold Harefoot, also son of Canute, by queen Elgiva of Northampton. Edward's party soon declined; and the Londoners agreed, for the peace of the realm, that the two brothers should divide the kingdom between them; but, as Hardicanute did not return in time to England, a wittenagemote was held at Oxford, where earl Leofric, and most of the thanes on the north side of the Thames, with the *lidromen* of London, chose Harold for their king. Here, by *lidromen*, we must un-

derstand the directors, magistrates, or *leader-men*, of the city, and not the *mariners*, as it is rendered by the translator of the Annals; and this manifestly shows, that London was then of such consequence, that no important national business was transacted without the consent of its inhabitants; for in this case the Saxon Annals assure us, that "none were admitted into the assembly of election but the nobility, and the *lidromen* of London."

In 1041, prince Edward, afterwards surnamed the Confessor, was recalled from Normandy, to succeed Hardicanute, whose cruelty and inhumanity towards the remains of his brother Harold had entirely disgusted the citizens of London; and he was chosen king of England, in this metropolis, by the general and universal voice of the nation. Thus the Saxon line was restored to the British throne. It will be seen in the course of this article that the rebuilding of Westminster-abbey was among the last acts of his reign.

Floating upon the stream of time, that runs from us at every instant, ancient events recede from our sight, and, becoming less distinct, are consequently less easy to be ascertained; but, when we get hold of written records, then we stop the flight of time in a certain degree, and feel more steady on the ground we have to walk upon. The conquest of Great Britain by the Normans under the direction and command of their duke William, is one of those epochs, which in the history of our nation seem to take the lead; it is a sort of point d'appuy, or *fulcrum*, upon which the rest of our national events seem to lean, and a kind of new era, which throws light on the way of historiographers and antiquaries.

The Conqueror's pretensions to the crown of England, and his success in supporting them, are fully detailed in another part of this work. (See the article ENGLAND, vol. vi. p. 557.) It is therefore sufficient in this place to observe, that, on the death of Edward the Confessor, which happened in January 1066, Harold, son of earl Godwin, took possession of the throne; but lost it and his life in the battle that gave William the crown.

At this period, Edward and Morcar, who had escaped from the field of battle, proposed to the Londoners to place the crown upon the head of Edgar Atheling, as the most effectual method of saving the kingdom from falling a prey to the Norman conqueror. This proposal was adopted by the majority, and it was determined to defend the city against the duke of Normandy. William had, however, marched to prevent them from putting their design in execution; and was actually arrived in Southwark, when the Londoners sallied out upon him, and fought so resolutely, that, though they were repulsed by five hundred of the Norman horse, yet William was convinced that they would not be easily frightened into a submission. Thinking, therefore, that the winter season, which was now advanced, was an improper time to besiege a place of so much importance, he laid Southwark in ashes, and marched to reduce the western counties, having first prevailed on the clergy to espouse his cause, and to endeavour to engage the people in his interest. This scheme of William is a proof of his adroitness in managing his affairs; for indeed the influence of the clergy was so great, so powerful on the mind of the people, that they soon prevailed on the citizens to submit to the conqueror.

As soon as this defection was known to Edwin and Morcar, those noblemen consulted their own safety by retiring into the north of England; while the successful William began his march towards this city, into which he was received by the magistrates and principal citizens, who delivered to him the keys of the city-gates, acknowledged him their sovereign, and, in conjunction with the nobility and gentry, entreated his acceptance of the crown. The example of the capital was followed by the rest of the kingdom, so that in a short time William was in peaceable possession of the throne. Preparations were now made for the coronation of the new king, which was solemnized



temnized in Westminster-abbey, on Christmas-day, in the year 1066, by Aldred, archbishop of York. Having thus gained possession of London, he caused a strong fortress to be built, which he garrisoned with his best troops, in order to secure it and overawe the citizens; yet, when he made his public entry into the city soon after, he was received with the greatest acclamations and external signs of joy.

The conqueror soon after set out to visit his Norman dominions; and at his return from thence, in the second year of his reign, was received into London with a solemn procession; in return for which, and at the intercession of William (the Norman) bishop of London, he granted a charter to the citizens in their own language; a mighty favour at that time, when the French tongue began to prevail over all. This charter consists of four lines and a quarter, beautifully written in the Saxon character, on a slip of parchment of the length of six inches, and breadth of one, which is preserved in the city-archives as a very great curiosity. The seal is of white wax; and, being broken into divers pieces, they are sewed up and carefully preserved in an orange-coloured silken bag. On one side is the conqueror on horseback; and, on the reverse, he is sitting in a chair of state; the rim of the seal being almost gone, the only letters remaining are, M. WILL. But the writing of the charter being very fair, the following is an exact copy of it, as printed in Stow's Survey.

"William King greeteth William Bishop and Godfrey Portgrave and all the Burgesses within London, French and English: and I grant that they bee all their law worth, that they were in Edwardis dayes the King; and I will that each child bee his father's heire; and I will not suffer that any man doe you wrong. And God you keepe."

Some time after, the conqueror granted to the citizens of London another charter in the Saxon language, consisting of three lines finely written on a slip of parchment, of the length of six inches and a half, and breadth of three quarters of an inch, which is carefully preserved in the same round wooden box with the first charter above specified. The small seal of this charter is of white wax, like the former; but, being broken into divers pieces, they are sewed up and preserved in a silken bag. It is so much defaced, that all that can be made of the impression it bore, is something resembling a gate with some steeples or spires. However, the writing of the charter is very fair, and the contents as follow: "William the King greets William the Bishop, and Swegen the Sheriff, and all my Thanes (or Nobles) in East Saxony; whom I hereby acquaint, that, pursuant to an Agreement, I have granted to the People my Servants the Hide of Land at Gyddedune. And also, that I will not suffer either the French or the English to hurt them in any Thing."—It seems that, by the words "the people my servants," we are to understand the Londoners, who keep this deed, and got possession of the land at Gyddedune, or Godsdan, in Hertfordshire, by virtue thereof; though it is a most notorious example of the inadvertency of those days, to make a grant to any people, without a particular specification of their capacity and name; or so much as the date of the year, or of the king's reign, in either of these charters.

As a curious part of the ecclesiastical history of London answering exactly to this period of time, we must state, that in the year of our Lord 1075 there was a national council of bishops and abbots, where many other of the clergy were present, convened at London; in which was regulated the precedency of episcopal sees; and it was ordained, that every prelate should rank according to the priority of his consecration, excepting those, who, by ancient custom, had particular privileges annexed to their sees; and that the archbishop of York should be seated at the right hand of the archbishop of Canterbury; the bishop of London at his left; and the bishop of Winchester next to the archbishop of York. It was further ordained, that no bishop's sees should for the future be placed in villages or small towns, And accordingly, Her-

man, bishop of Shereburn, was ordered to remove his chair to Salisbury; Stigand to remove from Selsey to Chichester; and Peter of Lichfield to Chester. And it was further ordained, that no person, under the dignity of a bishop and abbot, should speak in the council, without leave from the metropolitan.

In the same year, the king promoted Hugo de Orivalle to the see of London, who had the reputation of a person of great abilities. For which reason, the conqueror joined him in commission with Aldred archbishop of York; who, with the assistance of twelve of the most sufficient and best-qualified in each county, were ordered to make search for a body of the old laws of England, called the Laws of St. Edward the Confessor. These two were appointed to receive the report of the twelve men in each county, and to set down in writing what they should deliver upon oath.

The Londoners held their deceased bishop, William, in such esteem, for the favours he did for them with the king, amongst which was their charter, procured by his interest at court, that they instituted an anniversary solemnity to his memory; for, being sumptuously entombed in St. Paul's cathedral, the magistrates of London used to go in procession to his tomb once a-year. From this ancient religious custom originates, perhaps, the several visits which the lord mayor, the sheriffs, and the court of aldermen, make yearly to the same church.

In the year 1077 happened the greatest casual fire, that till this time ever beset the city; whereby the major part of it was laid in ashes. About two years after, the conqueror caused the present great white square Tower of London to be erected (in the place where it is supposed he built his fort above-mentioned), for the more effectually keeping the citizens in obedience, whose fidelity at this time, it seems, he had some reason to suspect. The surveyor of the work was Gundulph bishop of Rochester; which effectually destroys the idle and absurd story of Fitzstephen the monk, who reports it to have been erected by Julius Cæsar.

In 1086, another very dreadful fire happened, which began at Ludgate, and consumed the greatest and best part of the city, with the cathedral of St. Paul; which, however, was soon rebuilt more magnificently than before.

In the reign of William Rufus also, London suffered considerably by fires, inundations, and hurricanes; and seems to have been greatly depressed by the tyranny of that prince. It is asserted by William of Malmesbury, that, having received very rich presents from the Jews of this city, who were brought from Rouen by his father, and settled in the place to this day called the Old Jewry; he was so transported with joy, as to encourage them to dispute with the Christians concerning their respective faiths; assuring them, that, if they obtained the victory, he would himself become one of their religion; but history does not inform us whether the debate was ever held.

All the historiographers of London agree, that a violent tempest happened in November of the year 1091, in which many churches, and upwards of six hundred houses, were blown down, and the Tower much damaged; but the most extraordinary circumstance is, that four of the rafters of the roof of the church of St. Mary-le-Bow, which was blown off, were pitched so deep into the ground of the street, that, although they were twenty-six feet in length, scarcely four feet remained above ground; "for," says James Howell, in particular, "the city of London was not paved, but a moorish ground." This inelegance was not peculiar to London in those times, but was common to many cities in foreign countries. A considerable part of this city was again destroyed by fire, in the year 1093, and this calamity was succeeded by a great scarcity of corn, and almost all the necessaries of life.

In the year 1097, William Rufus imposed grievous taxes on his subjects throughout the kingdom, to defray the charges of rebuilding London-bridge (which had carried away by a flood), of erecting a strong wall round the Tower of London, and building Westminster-hall



as it now stands. In the year 1099, the river Thames, by an extraordinary swelling of the sea, was driven westward with such violence, that it overflowed its banks in many places, by which several towns and villages were laid under water, many of the inhabitants were drowned, and the large estate of Godwin earl of Kent was encroached on by the sea, so that it could never afterwards be drained, but forms what is called, to this day, the Godwin Sands.

Since nothing can be more interesting to the citizens of any part of this kingdom, than to see the origin of their privileges, and the grounds upon which the monuments of their liberties were erected, the following charter granted by Henry I. to the Londoners ought to obtain a place here; it was given for the purpose of obtaining the assistance of the citizens of London to secure Henry upon the throne, of which he had unjustly deprived his eldest brother Robert; and consequently it was made peculiarly beneficial to them. The following is a faithful translation of it.

“Henry, by the grace of God, king of England, to the bishop of Canterbury, and to the bishops and abbots, earls and barons, justices and sheriffs, and to all his faithful subjects of England, French and English, greeting. Know ye, that I have granted to my citizens of London, to hold Middlesex to farm for three hundred pounds, upon account to them and their heirs; so that the said citizens shall place as sheriff whom they will of themselves; and shall place whomsoever, or such a one, as they will of themselves, for keeping of the pleas of the crown, and of the pleading of the same, and none others shall be justice over the same men of London; and the citizens of London shall not plead without the walls of London for any plea. And be they free from scot and lot, and daneguilt, and of all murder; and none of them shall wage battle. And if any of the citizens shall be impeached concerning the pleas of the crown, the man of London shall discharge himself by his oath, which shall be adjudged within the city; and none shall lodge within the walls, neither of my household nor any other, nor lodging delivered by force.

“And all the men of London shall be quit and free, and all their goods throughout England and the ports of the sea, of and from all toll, and passage, and lestage, and all other customs; and the churches, and barons, [i. e. freemen,] and citizens, shall and may peaceably and quietly have and hold their sokes with all their customs; so that the strangers that shall be lodged in the sokes, shall give custom to none but to him to whom the soke appertains, or to his officer, whom he shall there put. And a man of London shall not be adjudged in amerancements of money, but of one hundred shillings; (I speak of the pleas which appertain to money.) And further, there shall be no more mikkenning in the hustings, nor in the folkmote, nor in any other pleas within the city; and the hustings may sit once in a week, that is to say, on Monday. And I will cause my citizens to have their lands, promises, bonds, and debts, within the city and without; and I will do them right by the law of the city, of the lands of which they shall complain to me. And if any shall take toll or custom of any citizen of London, the citizens of London in the city shall take of the borough or town, where toll or custom was so taken, so much as the man of London gave for toll, and as he received damage thereby. And all debtors which do owe debts to the citizens of London, shall pay them in London, or else discharge themselves in London that they owe none; but, if they will not pay the same, neither come to clear themselves that they owe none, the citizens of London, to whom the debts shall be due, may take their goods in the city of London, of the borough or town, or of the county, wherein he remains who shall owe the debt. And the citizens of London may have their chaces to hunt, as well and fully as their ancestors have had; that is to say, in the

Chiltre, [a district near St. Alban's,] and in Middlesex and Surrey.

“Witness the bishop of Winchester, and Robert son of Richard, and Hugh Piggot, and Almer of Totnes, and William of Albs-prina, and Hubert Roger, chamberlain, and William de Mountfitchett, and Hangul Taney, and John Ballet, and Robert son of Steward of West.”

Before the grant of this charter, London seems to have been entirely subject to the arbitrary will of the king. But, their liberties being now guarded by so strong a fence, the citizens endeavoured to secure their customs, by converting them into written laws; and their arts and mysteries, which had hitherto been kept up by prescription only, were now strengthened by established fraternities and companies. However, the king reserved to himself the power of appointing the *portreeve*, or chief officer of this city.

It was probably about the close of the last or the beginning of this century, that merchant-guilds, or fraternities, which were afterwards filed *corporations*, came first into general use in many parts of Europe. Mr. Madox thinks, that “they were hardly known to our Saxon progenitors, and that they might probably be brought into England by the Normans; although they do not seem to have been very numerous in France in those days.” And in cap. x. sect. 20, he relates, “that the weavers and bakers were the two most ancient fellowships, or guilds, in London;” which is natural enough, since food and clothing are most immediately necessary to mankind. “In king Henry I's reign, between 1100 and 1135, the weavers of London rendered to the crown a rent, or *ferme* as it is called in the file of the Exchequer, for their guild; and had, in after times, great disputes with the city of London concerning their high immunities and privileges.”

In a council, which was held at Westminster, in the year 1126, by the pope's legate, cardinal de Crema, usury was prohibited to the clergy, who, if they practised it, were to be degraded; but it is to be understood that the term *usury*, as it was at that time applied, meant only interest, or *use*, for money in general, and not exorbitant or extravagant interest, which it now implies.

During this reign, the monstrous licentiousness of the Normans, which, from the protection afforded them by the two Williams, had attained a dangerous height, was put a stop to by a proclamation, published at London, commanding that thenceforward, all who should be convicted of such excesses should have their eyes pulled out, or their hands or feet cut off, as the ministers of justice should think fit. This effectually checked the insolence of the Normans.

About this time a spirit of devotion began to manifest itself in religious foundations in and about London. In the year 1081, Alwin Child, citizen of London, founded at Bermondsey a monastery for the monks of the congregation called *Cluny*, from the *chief lieu* in France. In 1090, Alfune built the church of St. Giles, near Cripplegate. In 1102, Rahere, the king's minstrel, founded the priory of St. Bartholomew, and the hospital annexed to it; among the privileges he obtained for it, is mentioned Bartholomew fair for three days; and indeed most of the religious houses which existed at the reformation under Henry VIII. had their origin about this period of our history. But, if on one hand the rage for building and endowing pious edifices multiplied so considerably their number in the metropolis, on another hand the dissolution of manners and habits had come to its greatest height; for about this and the following reigns the Londoners were arrived at such a pitch of licentiousness, that their prosperity seemed a curse rather than a blessing. The sons of the most eminent and wealthy citizens entered into confederacies to commit burglaries, and to rob and murder all that came in their way in the night-time. The king took an opportunity from these irregularities to enrich himself. He demanded several loans and free gifts; till



till at last the Londoners, to prevent further inquiries into their conduct, paid into the exchequer 5000*l.* in three years. These disorders, however, were at last stopped by the execution of John Senex; who, though a very rich and reputable citizen, had engaged in these enterprizes. He offered 500 pounds weight of silver, a prodigious sum in those days, for his pardon, but was refused. The king, however, still continued to drain the citizens of their money by *free gifts*; and at last fined every separate guild, fraternity, or company, that had presumed to act as bodies corporate without the royal letters-patent.

It cannot be denied that London suffered greatly during the civil wars; and, besides, from a most terrible casual fire, which broke out near London-bridge, destroyed it, and raged in the most horrible manner, as far westward as St. Clement Danes. They had also to bear patiently the revenge of Matilda, till they received her into their city with great pomp and solemnity; but, forgetting soon their submission and forbearance, she treated them with the utmost arrogance and severity. However, that spirit of freedom, and impatience of unjust means, which animated them, and glows still in the breast of the citizens of London, obliged her to leave the city privately, and to seek for refuge out of the kingdom.

Gold and silver, and even brass and copper, must have been uncommonly scarce under these reigns; for we read, that, in the year 1145, the price of an ox in London was three shillings; as much corn was sold for one shilling as would suffice 100 people for a day; a sheep could be bought for a groat; and a like sum would fill the manger of twenty horses with corn and hay for twenty-four hours. In the 30th year of Henry II. thirty-three cows and two bulls were sold for 8*l.* 7*s.* and 500 sheep cost but 22*l.* 10*s.* or about 10*d.* per sheep.

On the death of Henry II. the title of the first magistrate of London was changed from *portreve* to that of *bailliff*; and in 1189 he claimed and acted in the office of *chief butler* at the coronation of Richard I. In 1191 this monarch permitted the bailliff, named *Henry Fitz-Alwine*, to assume the title of *mayor*. In 1192, we find certain orders of the mayor and aldermen to prevent fires; whereby it was ordained, that "all houses thereafter to be erected in London and the liberties thereof, should be built of stone, with party-walls of the same; and covered either with slates or tiles, to prevent those dreadful calamities by fire, which were frequently and chiefly occasioned by houses built of wood, and thatched with straw or reeds." And for this purpose, it was also provided by the discreeter men of the city, "that twelve aldermen of the city should be chosen in full hustings, and there sworn to assist the mayor in appeasing contentions that might arise among neighbours in the city upon inclosure betwixt land and land; and to regulate the dimensions of party-walls, which were to be of stone, sixteen feet high and three feet thick; and to give directions about girders, windows, gutters, and wells." Such confidence also did Richard put in the wisdom and faithfulness of the city of London, that, when it was resolved to fix a standard for weights and measures for the whole realm, his majesty committed the execution thereof to the sheriffs of London and Middlesex, whom he commanded to provide measures, gallons, iron rods, and weights for standards, to be sent to the several counties of England.

At the coronation of Richard I. a dreadful massacre of the Jews took place, occasioned by the following circumstance: For some cause they were forbidden to appear at the ceremony; many, however, prompted by curiosity, attempted to get into Westminster abbey, but were repulsed by the attendants; and, a rumour being spread among the populace, that the king had given orders for their entire destruction, the mob, in the most barbarous manner, attacked these defenceless people; and, not satisfied with murdering all who were unfortunate enough to fall in their way, proceeded to the city, where, with the most diabolical fury, they robbed their house massa-

cing all the inhabitants they could find, and then set fire to them.

While Richard was in Palestine, John his brother, afterwards king, with the archbishop of Rouen, the bishops, earls, and barons, and the citizens of London, met in St. Paul's cathedral, to deliberate upon the mal-administration of William Longchamp, bishop of Ely, chancellor, and one of the regents of the kingdom, who, by an unanimous resolution of the convention, was degraded from all his offices, for his tyrannical government and contumacious deportment. Here, according to Dr. Brady, a new charter and community was granted to the city of London, to be a corporation, for their ready concurrence in the above resolution. In return for this recognition of their privileges, for it was no more, the citizens swore to be true and faithful to their sovereign, king Richard, and his heirs; and that, if he died without issue, they would receive his brother John as king. This is an additional proof that no measure of consequence to the state was undertaken without asking the concurrence of the Londoners.

Under this reign a great disturbance took place in London, occasioned by the sedition of William Fitz-Osbert, a man whose person was deformed, and who was nicknamed Longbeard on account of his letting his beard grow to an unusual length, partly from an affection of gravity, partly in derision of the Norman custom of shaving the face. He was, however, a man of powerful elocution; and he became so extremely popular, by having frequently pleaded the cause of the poor before the magistrates, that the lower orders of the people were entirely and universally at his command and devotion. Matters being thus situated, Fitz-Osbert began to act more openly, and made use of all his rhetoric to incense the people against a certain aid or tallage, which was to be raised for the service of the public. He insisted that this tax was proportioned in a very unjust manner; for that the poor were to bear the burden of almost the whole, while the rich were in a manner exonerated; and this insinuation wrought so powerfully on the minds of the people, that a tumult ensued near St. Paul's church, in which many of the citizens were killed. Advice of this insurrection being transmitted to Hubert archbishop of Canterbury, who was the king's justiciary, that prelate summoned Fitz-Osbert to appear before him, at a fixed time and place. Fitz-Osbert obeyed the summons, but was attended by such a numerous crowd of his adherents, that the archbishop, instead of seizing his person, thought it necessary for his own safety to dismiss him with a gentle reproof, and his advice not to appear in any unlawful assembly for the future. The more wealthy among the citizens, however, being greatly terrified at the proceedings of Fitz-Osbert and his party, it was at length agreed that a number of men should lie in wait to seize him at a time when he had but few attendants; and an opportunity of this kind soon offered; but Fitz-Osbert, with the few friends he had with him, made a most desperate defence; and, having possessed themselves of the church of St. Mary-le-bow, in Cheap-side, they fortified the steeple, with a full determination of defending themselves till further assistance should arrive. The situation of Fitz-Osbert and his friends was no sooner known, than the populace from all parts in and near the city, assembled in Cheap-side, with the view of setting their champion at liberty; but the magistrates used such persuasive arguments, that the people were at length prevailed on to disperse. Matters were in this situation, when a resolution was formed of setting fire to the steeple, so that Fitz-Osbert and his abettors had no chance, but to force their way through the flames, and fight for their lives, or be burnt on the spot. They chose the former expedient, as the less dreadful of the two; wherefore, making an impetuous sally, they endeavoured to seek their safety by wading through the blood of their opponents; but, being overpowered by superior numbers, Fitz-Osbert and eight of his adherents were made prisoners, and committed to the



Tower of London. The next morning they were brought to their trial; and, sentence of death being passed upon them, on the following day they were drawn by the feet through the city to a part of Smithfield then called the Elms, where they were publicly executed, and then hung in chains.

But the disturbances were not wholly appeased, and the tempest of sedition was rather hushed than suppressed. The body of Fitz-Osbert being taken down and carried away, a report was immediately propagated by a priest, who was a kinsman of the deceased, that several miracles had been wrought at the place of his execution. Hereupon vast numbers of people resorted to Smithfield, many of whom picked up and carried away, as holy relics, pieces of the earth on which the blood of their champion had been spilt, while others continued there the whole night in the utmost fervor of devotion; nor did they quit the place till a military guard was sent, by whom they were at length, though with great reluctance on their part, dispersed to their respective habitations. It was now thought necessary, in order to undeceive the deluded populace, to make public the life of Fitz-Osbert, which was accordingly done by authority; his relation, the priest, was excommunicated for attempting to deceive the people, who thereupon applied quietly to their respective occupations, and all the riots and tumults subsided.

King Richard in the eighth year of his reign granted a charter by which the citizens of London were empowered to remove out of the river Thames all weirs that might impede the navigation of this incomparable stream; and, as a farther encouragement, the king resigned all his rights and pretensions to the annual duties arising thereby, which were paid to the officers of his Tower of London. The charter is in Latin, and begins as follows: "Dom. Ricardus Rex, filius Regis Henrici Secundi, concessit et firmiter præcepit, ut omnes kidelli (weirs) qui sunt in Thamisía amoveantur, ubicunque fuerint in Thamisía, &c." From this deed the city of London claims its jurisdiction and conservancy of the river Thames.

King Richard was succeeded, in 1199, by his brother John, who favoured much the city of London, and granted the citizens three charters. The first was a recital and confirmation of those granted by Henry I. and II. with the farther privilege of being free from toll and every other duty or custom in his majesty's foreign dominions; for which they paid the sum of 3000 marks. The second was a confirmation of that granted by king Richard, and by which the citizens of London had the jurisdiction and conservancy of the river Thames; with a clause to extend that jurisdiction, and the powers therewith granted, to the river Medway; and with another clause to enable the said city, as conservators of the Thames and Medway, to inflict a penalty of 10l. upon any person that should presume to erect a weir in either of these rivers. The third charter contains a fee-farm rent of the sheriffwicks of London and Middlesex at the ancient rent, of which they had been deprived by queen Maud; granting them also the additional power of choosing their own sheriffs. This charter was given by way of conveyance from the crown to the citizens for a valuable consideration, by which the sheriffwick became their freehold; and this is the first covenant or conveyance we find on record, with the legal terms of *to have and to hold*, which are at this time accounted an essential part in all conveyances of property.

Besides these signal favours of king John, we find that in the very beginning of his reign he continued the good practice he had begun under his brother, and persisted in it notwithstanding his numerous follies and misfortunes; this was the erecting his demesne-towns into free burghs, which prepared the way for the gradual diffusion of commerce through his dominions. Instead of the king's collectors having the power, as formerly, of levying sundry tolls, taxes, and customs, from towns, there was now only one annual sum paid, which was called the fee-farm rent of each respective burgh: this sum was raised by the corporation, by a general assessment. Before his time, the

crowns had also always appointed a chief officer, who ruled them, sometimes arbitrarily enough, and raised the several taxes. King John gave the townsmen the privilege of electing their chief officer, annually, out of their own body. From this privilege arises the present annual magistracy of corporations.

In the third year of his reign he granted the city a fourth charter, by which, "at the request of the mayor and citizens of London, the guild of weavers shall not from thenceforth be in the city of London, neither shall be at all maintained." It does not appear, either by this charter, or by any other document now in existence, what occasioned this request of the citizens; for it is absurd to suppose, with some historians, that the addition of two marks to the royal revenue could have procured it. It is much more probable that the difference in the value of money occasioned the alteration, the sum paid to the exchequer by the weavers being then eighteen marks; and that required of the city, as a compensation for the loss of it, being but twenty.

From Madox's History of the Exchequer we learn that, in 1204, Guy de Von stood indebted to the crown in the sum of one thousand and sixty-six pounds eight shillings and fourpence, for arrears of rent of the *Cambium*, or Exchange of London, which had been let upon lease to him for a term of years. This is a satisfactory proof that the trade of London must have been very considerable at that time.

The city of London may, in some measure, be said to have been first made a free city by king John, in the year 1207, when, according to some authors, they had liberty to choose a mayor out of their own body, annually, which office had been before for life; but sir Richard Baker places this event in the tenth year of his reign, or two years later, though probably his fifth charter, which will be inserted in its place, was the original grant.

In 1209, the king's purveyor having bought a quantity of corn in London, Roger Wincheffer and Edmund Haddell, the sheriffs, would not permit him to carry it off; which so highly incensed the king, that he sent a positive command to the council of the city (which consisted of five-and-thirty members) to degrade and imprison the sheriffs; which being done, in obedience to the royal precept, the council sent a deputation to the king at Langley, to intercede for their unfortunate sheriffs; and to assure his majesty that what they had done was not out of any disrespect to him, but purely to prevent an insurrection, which was then threatened, and, at that critical juncture, might have proved dangerous to the royal affairs; which reason proved so satisfactory to the king, that he gave orders for their immediate discharge.

The king, however, by the intrigues of several partisans of the church of Rome, incurred the displeasure of his loyal citizens of London, who joined the barons in the defence of national interests. The public safety growing every day more dubious, the citizens began in 1211 to strengthen their walls with a deep ditch, two hundred feet wide, which was finished in two years; being somewhat retarded by an extraordinary accident of fire on London-bridge, about four years after the bridge had been finished, on the 10th of July, 1212, in the night, which began in Southwark; where, the flames taking hold of St. Mary Overy's, then called Our Lady of the Canons, communicated, by a strong south wind, to the north end of the bridge, which interrupted the passage, and stopt the return of the multitude that had run from London to extinguish the fire; and, while the confused multitude were attempting to force a passage through the flames at the north end of the bridge the fire broke out at the south end also. Thus they were enclosed between two raging fires; and above three thousand people either perished in the flames, or were drowned by overloading the boats that ventured to their assistance. The bridge was greatly damaged, and a great part of the city was consumed.

Another cause of displeasure was the king's command



to destroy Baynard's castle, at the south-west end of Thames-street; and the stately palace of Robert Fitz-Walter, castellan and standard-bearer of the city, who, having taken part with the malcontent barons, and refused to give security for his fidelity to the king, had fled to France.

His majesty then, in 1213, summoned a convention of the states of the kingdom at St. Paul's cathedral, where he made, or rather renewed, before Nicholas, the pope's legate, that infamous subjection of his crown, which he had formerly made to the pope, before his legate Pandulph; and agreed to pay an extraordinary sum of money to the pope for taking off the national interdict; towards which, the citizens of London were obliged to pay two thousand marks. But, to prevent as much as possible those murmurs which he had but too much reason to apprehend, he granted the citizens his fifth and last charter, a copy of which we have subjoined.

"John, by the grace of God, king of England, duke of Normandy, Aquitain, and earl of Anjou; To his archbishops, bishops, abbots, earls, barons, justices, sheriffs, rulers, and to all his faithful subjects, greeting. Know ye, that we have granted, and by this our present writing confirmed, to our barons of our city of London, that they may choose to themselves every year a mayor, who to us may be faithful, discreet, and fit for government of the city, so as, when he shall be chosen, to be presented unto us, or our justice (if we shall not be present;) and he shall swear to be faithful to us; and that it shall be lawful to them, at the end of the year, to remove him and substitute another, if they will, or the same to retain, so as he be presented unto us, or our justice, if we shall not be present. We have granted to the same our barons, and by this our present charter confirmed, that they well and in peace, freely, quietly, and wholly, have all their liberties, which hitherto they have used, as well in the city of London as without, as well by water as by land; and in all other places, saving to us our chamberlainship. Wherefore we will and freightly command, that our aforesaid barons of our aforesaid city of London may choose unto themselves a mayor of themselves, in manner and form aforesaid; and that they may have all the aforesaid liberties well and in peace, wholly and fully, with all things to the same liberties appertaining, as is aforesaid. Given by the hands of Mr. Richard Harpister, our chancellor, at the New Temple, London, the nineteenth day of May, in the sixteenth year of our reign."

However inimical the other parts of this king's conduct may have been to the liberties of the subject, the charters granted by him to London, and every other town of consequence in his dominions, laid the foundation of that secure intercourse, without which, commerce will unavoidably be cramped, if not wholly annihilated. Thus we find, that, as soon as this charter was obtained, many fraternities were formed in London, which continued and flourished for a long time before they were incorporated by charter.

Under this reign a civil war raged in several parts of the kingdom; the city was taken possession of by the barons, whose followers soon began to plunder the houses of royalists and Jews; they then besieged the Tower, which bold attempt the king considering, together with the increasing number of the insurgents, he consented at last to grant the famous charters called "Magna Charta" and "Charta de Foresta," in the former of which it is expressly stipulated that "the city of London shall have all its ancient privileges and free customs as well by land as by water."

These broils caused a great deal of anxiety to the Londoners, who, at the instigation of the barons, offered the crown to Louis, the elder son of Philip king of France, if he would bring a sufficient force to preserve them from ruin, and swear to maintain them in their ancient laws, rights, and privileges; this proposal was eagerly accepted by Philip.

In the interim, John advanced to the attack of the city,

but, on the approach of his forces, the citizens, instead of being intimidated, opened their gates, and marched out to give them battle, choosing rather to die bravely in the field than to perish within their walls. This resolution was followed by the most complete success; the advanced party of the royal army was entirely routed, with a considerable loss in killed and wounded, among whom was their general, Savarie de Malleon. This rough reception convinced the king of the impracticability of the attempt; and he preferred withdrawing his army to risking a general engagement with the brave and resolute Londoners.

About this time the citizens fitted out a powerful fleet, to clear the coast of numerous pirates, who infested the mouth of the river Thames, so that the trade of the city was almost entirely lost; and, having engaged and defeated these combined robbers, took and destroyed sixty-five of their ships: hence we may judge of the formidable state of the city at that time, when it was not only capable of defending itself against the king, though then in possession of all other parts of the kingdom; but likewise at the same time to send out so potent a navy, as was able to destroy such a mighty band of confederated and desperate pirates.

Louis, on hearing of the bravery of the Londoners, sent a messenger with a letter of thanks, exhorting them to persevere, and promising them speedy and powerful assistance. Soon after this, he arrived at Sandwich, with a fleet of six hundred ships, from whence he proceeded to London with his army, and on his march attacked and reduced the castle of Rochester. On his arrival, the citizens gave him a most magnificent and pompous welcome; and, at the same time, he received the homage of them and the barons, to whom he swore to restore good laws, and their lost estates. The Londoners never departed from this engagement; but, upon the demise of king John, William earl of Pembroke, who took the part of Henry his son, and had him crowned, prevailed with forty of the barons to desert their protector Louis, and to submit to the young king. This defection, with the decrease of the French army, in a long course of hard service, obliged Louis to agree to a truce; in which time he went to France, and returned with fresh supplies to London. The king's troops had already taken the field, and sat down before the castle of Mount Sorel, in Leicestershire; for the relief of which he detached 20,000 regular troops, and 600 knights, who obliged the earl of Chester to raise the siege. They then marched to Lincoln; where they were defeated by the king's forces; which, with the loss of a powerful supply cut off at sea by a fleet from the Cinque Ports, obliged Louis to shut himself up in London. And, though he was there blocked up both by land and water, he would not treat of peace without such conditions as were consistent with his honour, and the safety of those who invited him over; and, in particular, he took care that the ancient rights and privileges of the city should be confirmed. The Londoners, on their part, gratefully acknowledged this generosity, by lending him 5000 marks, to discharge his debts, before he departed for France.

During the reign of Henry III. the city of London was oppressed in many different ways. In 1218, he exacted a fine of forty marks for selling a sort of cloth not two yards within the lifts; and a fifteenth of the citizens' personal estates for the enjoyment of their ancient rights and privileges. In 1221, he commanded by proclamation all the foreign merchants to depart the city; which drew thirty marks from the Hanseatic company of the Steelyard, to have seisin of their guild, or hall, in Thames-street. But it was the wrestling-match at St. Giles's in the Fields that brought on their greatest burden. In the year 1221, on St. James's day, the citizens of London having carried off the victory from the people of Westminster and other neighbouring villages, the steward of the abbot of Westminster, meditating revenge against the Londoners, proposed another wrestling-match with them, and gave a ram for the prize. The citizens resorted to the place at the  
time



time appointed; but were unexpectedly assaulted by a great number of armed men, who killed and wounded many, and dispersed the rest. This raised a great commotion in the city. The populace breathed revenge; and, by the instigation of Constantine Fitz-Arnulph, a great favourer of the French party during the troubles in king John's reign, they proceeded to Westminster, and pulled down the houses both of the steward and abbot. Hearing afterwards that the abbot was come into the city with his complaint to Philip Daubney the king's counsel, they pursued him, beat his servants, took away twelve of his horses, and would have murdered him, had he not escaped by a back-door. Upon this tumult, Hubert de Burg, then chief justiciary, summoned the mayor and many of the principal citizens to attend him in the Tower of London; and, inquiring for the authors of the riot, Constantine, the ringleader, boldly answered, that "he was one; that they had done no more than they ought; and that they were resolved to avow what they had done, let the consequence be what it would." In this he was seconded by his nephew and one Geoffrey; but the justiciary, having dismissed all the rest, detained these three, and ordered them to be hanged next morning, though Constantine offered 15,000 marks for his pardon. Hubert then, coming into the city with a strong guard, caused the hands and feet of most of the principal rioters he could seize to be cut off, and their bodies to be burnt: all which was executed without any legal proceedings or form of trial. After these arbitrary cruelties, he degraded the mayor and all the magistrates; placed a *custos* over the city, and obliged thirty persons of his own choosing to become securities for the good behaviour of the whole city. Several thousand marks were also exacted by the king, before he would consent to a reconciliation.

This arbitrary behaviour alarmed the whole nation. The parliament of 1224 began to be uneasy for themselves, and addressed his majesty that he would be pleased to confirm the charter of liberties which he had sworn to observe; and the consequence of this application was a confirmation of Magna Charta in the full parliament at Westminster in the year 1225. At this time also, the rights and privileges of the citizens were confirmed. They were exempted from prosecution for *burels*, i. e. listed cloth; and were granted the right of having a common seal. The necessitous circumstances of this monarch, however, made him often exact money arbitrarily as long as he lived.

We find, however, that under his reign the extent of the city increased considerably, by the disforesting of part of Middlesex; and that the sheriffs received the king's order to repair the prison of Newgate; from which it should appear, that Newgate was not at that time under the management of the city. It is remarkable, that, according to the most ancient custom, prisons were erected near the gates of cities, most likely in order that they might be at hand to receive those who had been condemned at the tribunal of the judges, who generally sat at the gates of cities from all antiquity, as we read in the scriptures. From this time also we may date the origin of pipes being employed to supply the city with water; and in 1235 began the memorable custom of tendering six horse-shoes, with the nails thereunto belonging, by the sheriffs of London and Middlesex, at the time of their being sworn into their office before the chief baron of the Exchequer. This custom arose from the possession of a piece of ground in the Strand, within the parish of St. Clement Danes, to which they had a right by a grant from Walter de Bruin, a farrier, who, in this year, purchased the same of the crown for erecting a forge, on condition of paying the said number of shoes and nails annually into the Exchequer. This piece of ground is not now in the possession of the city.

Besides several hardships which the Londoners had suffered under the extorting and oppressing sceptre of Henry III. in 1258, the price of corn was so excessive, that a famine ensued; and, according to the chronicles

of Evesham, 20,000 persons died of hunger in London only. In 1264, another massacre of the Jews took place; on a plea that one of that persecuted race had taken more than legal interest; and upwards of five hundred Jews were put to death by the populace, and their houses and synagogues destroyed. See the article *Jew*, vol. x. p. 808, 9.

The beginning of king Edward's reign promised great happiness to the city, when civil discussion broke out amongst the Londoners about the choice of a mayor; which, under a sovereign less disposed to moderation and justice, might have proved fatal to their liberties. But Edward only interposed as a friendly moderator, when parties ran so high as to admit of no compromise, and appointed a *custos* till they could be brought to reason. However, this convinced the citizens of the danger of their intestine broils; and so far wrought upon their passions, that they unanimously chose sir Walter Harvey, in a folkmote, for mayor, rather than the king should have an excuse to intermeddle with their civil government. This Harvey was the very man set up by the populace, in opposition to the regular choice of Philip de Tylour. But they were soon convinced of his bad practices, and had the resolution not only to degrade him from the office of an alderman, but to render him incapable of sitting in the city council, and to make him give sufficient security for his quiet and peaceable behaviour for the future.

The gross frauds and impositions which prevailed at this period in the sale of provisions, rendered legislative interference necessary, particularly with respect to the bakers and to the millers, for giving short weight and bad measure. The king therefore commanded the mayor and sheriffs to enforce the new laws made for the prevention of such evils in future. By these laws, the baker, for his first offence, was to forfeit his bread; for the second to suffer imprisonment; and for the third, to be pilloried. Fraudulent millers were to be punished by being drawn through certain streets, in a tumbrel, or dung-cart, exposed to the derision of the populace. The magistrates were also commanded to regulate the price of provisions, especially of poultry and fish, which had been engrossed by a few rapacious hucksters. Accordingly an ordinance was issued by the magistrates of the city in the following form:

"By the command of the lord the king, and with the assent and consent of the gentlemen of the kingdom, and citizens aforesaid; That no huckster of fowl (or poulterer) go out of the city to meet them that bring poultry into the city, to make any buying from them; but buy in the city, after the buyers of the lord the king, of the barons, and the citizens, have bought and had what shall be needful for them, namely, after three o'clock, and not before. And then let them buy thus:

	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>	<i>q.</i>
The best hen, at	0	3	2
The best pullet, at	0	1	3
The best capon, at	0	2	0
The best goose, from Easter to Whitsunday	0	5	0
Ditto, from ditto to St. Peter ad Vincula	0	4	0
The best goose, in all other parts of the year	0	3	0
The best wild-goose, at	0	4	0
The best young pigeons, three for	0	1	0
The best mallard, at	0	3	6
The best cercel, at	1	6	0
The best wild duck, at	0	1	3
The best partridge, at	0	3	2
The best begaters, four for	0	1	0
The best larks, a dozen for	0	1	0
The best pheasant, at	0	4	0
The best butor, at	0	6	0
The best heron, at	0	6	0
The best corlieu, at	0	3	0
The best plover, at	0	1	0
The best swan, at	3	0	0
The best crane, at	3	0	0
The best peacock, at	0	1	0



	s.	d.	q.
The best coney, with the skin, at	-	0	4 0
One ditto, without the skin,	-	0	3 0
The best hare, without the skin, at	-	0	3 2
The best kid, from Christmas to Lent	-	0	10 0
Ditto, at other times of the year	-	0	6 0
The best lamb, from Christmas to Lent	-	0	6 0
Ditto, at other times of the year	-	0	4 0

It was also ordained, "That no huckster of fish, (or fishmonger,) who sells fish again to others, go out to meet those that bring or carry fish to the city, to make a forefall thence; nor have any partnership with a stranger who brings fish from sea to the city; but let them seek for fish in their own ships, and permit foreigners to bring it, and to sell when they are come, in their own ships; because, by such partnership, they who are of the city, and have known the state of the city, and the defect of vic-tuals, will hold the fish at a greater dearness than fo-reigners, who shall not have known it; and also, that they who are of the city, when they cannot sell as they will, lay it up in cellars, and sell dearer than the strangers would do, if they came without partnership, and knew not where they might be harboured; nor let them buy any thing in the city, until the king's servants, &c. have bought, and not before three o'clock. And, if they who have brought fish shall come after three o'clock, let them not sell that day, but let them sell on the morrow morning. And, if they expect more, let the fish be taken into the lord the king's hands; and let them keep no fish, except salt fish, beyond the second day of their coming; which if it shall happen to be found, let them lose their fish, and be at the mercy of the lord the king [to fine them]. And thus let the huckster of fish buy, that they afford,

	s.	d.	q.
The best plaife, at	-	0	1 2
The best soles, the dozen, at	-	0	3 0
The best fresh mulvel, at	-	0	3 0
The best salt mulvel, at	-	0	3 0
The best haddock, at	-	0	2 0
The best barkey, at	-	0	4 0
The best mullet, at	-	0	2 0
The best conger, at	-	1	0 0
The best turbot, at	-	0	6 0
The best dorac, at	-	0	5 0
The best bran, sard, and betule, at	-	0	3 0
The best mackarel, in Lent, at	-	0	1 0
Ditto, out of Lent, at	-	0	0 2
The best gurnard, at	-	0	1 0
The best fresh merlings, four for	-	0	1 0
The best powdered ditto, twelve for	-	0	1 0
The best pickled herrings, twenty for	-	0	1 0
The best fresh herrings, before Michaelmas, six for	0	1	0 0
Ditto, after ditto, twelve for	-	0	1 0
The best Thames or Severn lamprey, at	-	0	4 0
The best Buge stock-fish, at	-	0	1 0
The best Mulvil stock-fish, at	-	0	0 3
The best cropplings, three for	-	0	1 0
The best fresh oysters, a gallon for	-	0	2 0
The best fresh salmon, from Christmas to Easter	5	0	0 0
Ditto, after ditto, at	-	3	0 0
A piece of rumb, gross and fat, at	-	0	4 0
The best new pickled balenes, the pound	-	0	2 0
Ditto, of the preceding year, the pound, at	-	0	1 0
The best sea hog, at	-	6	8 0
The best cels, a strike, or a quarter of an hundred	0	2	0 0
The best lampreys, in winter, the hundred, at	0	8	0 0
Ditto, at other times, the hundred, at	-	0	6 0
The best smelts, the hundred, at	-	0	1 0
The best roche, in summer, at	-	0	1 0
Ditto, at other times	-	0	0 2
The best lucy, at	-	6	8 0
The best lamprey of Nautes, at first	-	1	4 0
Ditto, a month after, at	-	0	8 2
The Thames or Severn ditto, towards Easter, at	0	2	0 0

We have inserted the whole of this curious tariff, in VOL. XIII. No. 222.

order that the reader may judge of the difference which an influx of gold, silver, and brass, and lastly the immense sums issued in paper-money, have created in the price of provisions since the reign of Edward I. but he must recollect at the same time, that a day's labour was paid in proportion, which was about two-pence, the usual price for a nice chicken; a proportion which has existed ever since to this day, when a chicken costs between four and five shillings, the sum which a journeyman receives in general for his day's labour.

In 1284, Lawrence Ducket, a goldsmith, having wounded Ralph Crepin, in Cheapside, then called West-cheap, took sanctuary in Bow-church steeple; Crepin's friends surprised him in the night, and hanged him so artfully in one of the windows, that the coroner's inquest gave their verdict *felto de se*, and ordered the body to be drawn by the feet, and buried in a ditch without the city. However, a boy, who lay with Ducket that night, and had concealed himself during this barbarous action, at last gave information against the murderers. Many were apprehended, of whom sixteen were hanged; and a woman, the contriver of the murder, was burnt alive: other persons of distinction concerned therein were amerced in pecuniary fines; and the disgraced body was taken up, and buried decently.

The following year was remarkable for the division of the city into twenty-four wards, or districts; each ward retaining the right to choose their own alderman, and certain of the inhabitants to be of council to them. These regulations did not prevent the Londoners from indulging themselves in riots and robberies, or even in committing atrocious murders, to such a degree, that it occasioned a statute enjoining that "none be found in the streets, either with spear or buckler, after the curfew-bell of the parson of St. Martin's le Grand rings out, except they be great lords and other persons of note; also that no tavern, either for wine or ale, be kept open after that bell rings out, on forfeiture of forty pence; nor any fencing-school be kept in the city, or non-freeman be resident therein."

The reign of Edward II. was marked with strong features of severity against London from the beginning; yet the good city often gave this monarch substantial marks of attachment and loyalty, by paying his debts and lending him money. At this period, 1315, a great scarcity of provisions took place; and a famine so dreadful followed, that, according to Stow and Speed, parents ate their own children, and malefactors devoured each other in prison; and this was, in the common course of nature, accompanied by such a pestilence and mortality, that the living were scarcely sufficient to bury the dead. The bosom of the city was torn by dissensions at the latter end of this reign; and these broils ended in the resignation of the king, and the murder of the Spencers his favourites; the head of the younger of whom was sent to London, where it was received with brutal triumph, and stuck upon the bridge. In spite of these horrid commotions, commerce still flourished; and the increase of gold and silver in England, as well as the decline of the feudal system, are evident proof of its influence every where, but especially upon the city.

King Edward III. on the commencement of his reign, granted to the city two charters; by the first, all the ancient privileges were confirmed and additional ones bestowed; by the other, the village of Southwark was granted to the citizens in perpetuity. In 1348, the terrible pestilence, which, breaking out in India, spread itself westward through every country on the globe, reached England. Its ravages in London were so great, that the common cemeteries were not sufficiently capacious for the interment of the dead; and various pieces of ground without the walls were assigned for burial-places; amongst these was the waste land now forming the precinct of the Charter-house, where upwards of 50,000 bodies were then deposited. This destructive disorder did not entirely subside



till 1357. In 1361, the plague having again broke out in France, every precaution was taken to prevent its spreading into England, but without effect; the pestilence reached London, and its ravages were so destructive, that upwards of 2000 persons fell victims in two days.

The year 1378 is memorable in the city annals for the expedition fitted out by an individual, John Philpot, against Mercer, the Scottish pirate, who, taking advantage of the inattention of government to naval affairs, carried off all the shipping from the port of Scarborough; and, continuing to infect the northern coast, frequently made considerable prizes. The complaints of the merchants were but little regarded by the council; when Philpot prepared a fleet at his own expence, with a thousand men well armed, went himself on-board as commander-in-chief, and failed in pursuit of the pirate. A long and desperate engagement ensued; but Philpot obtained the victory, and obliged the pirate to surrender, with most of his ships, among which were fifteen Spanish vessels richly laden.

The next point of interest which may attract our curiosity is the extraordinary commotion which was occasioned by the act of parliament, in the fourth year of Richard II. ordering a poll-tax on every person in the kingdom, male or female, above the age of puberty; which tax was most impolitically exacted with the greatest rigour, and caused a most dangerous insurrection, which first began in Essex, and during which the metropolis particularly suffered. The insurgents took the route of Maidstone, and were there greatly encouraged and augmented by the preaching of one Ball, an excommunicated priest, imprisoned for sedition, whom they released from a long confinement in the county gaol. Ball's text was:

When Adam delv'd, and Eve span,  
Who was then a gentleman?

From which words he insisted, that all mankind were upon an equality in power and riches; and exhorted the insurgents to go to the king and demand liberty, and to use force, if it could not be otherwise obtained.

It is worthy of remark, that at all times, and in all nations, whenever the people feel oppressed, they may be compared to the palm-branch, which yields obediently to the pressure or pull that brings it to the ground, but soon returns, with elasticity, to its former position. Ideas of equality and unrestrained independence flush in their minds; and, impatient of moderation and controul, they defeat their own plans and spoil their cause by excess and extravagance; as if Liberty held in her hand a poisonous cup, a single drop of which is enough to intoxicate.

Not unlike the famous centurion L. Virginius, Walter Hilliard, commonly called *Wat Tyler* from his trade, finding that his daughter had been indecently treated by a collector, and less brutal perhaps than the Roman, who snatched his daughter from the grasp of the decemvir by stabbing her, put the collector to death; and, being supported by the insurgents, placed himself at their head. His death, and the conclusion of this insurrection, have been already related under the article ENGLAND, vol. vi. p. 602. We have only therefore to add, that, in speaking of this transaction, and of sir William Walworth, Stow says, "True it is, that this William Walworth, being a man, wife, learned, and of an incomparable manhood, arrested Wat Tyler, a presumptuous rebel, upon whom no man durst lay hand, whereby hee delivered the king and kingdome from most wicked tyrannie of traytors. The maior arrested him on the head with a sounde blow, whereupon Wat Tyler furiously stroke the maior with his dagger, but hurt him not, by reason he was well armed: the maior, having received his stroke, drew his basilard, and grievously wounded Wat in the necke, and withal gave him a great blow on the head: in the which conflict an esquire of the king's house, called John Cavendish, drew his sword, and wounded Wat wife or thrife, even to the death; and Wat, spurring his horse, cried to the commons to revenge him. The horse bare him about 80

foote from the place, and there hee fell downe halfe dead; and by and by they which attended on the king environed him about, so as he was not seene of his companie; many of them thrust him in diverse places of his bodie, and drew him into the hospitall of S. Bartholomew, from whence again the maior caused him to be drawn into Smithfield, and there to be beheaded. It hath also been, and is now grown to a common opinion, that, in reward of this service done by the said William Walworth against the rebell, king Richard added to the armes of this citie (which was argent, a plaine crosse gules) a sword or dagger, (for so they terme it,) whereof I have read no such recorde; but, to the contrarie, I find, that, in the fourth yeare of Richard II. in a full assembly made in the upper chamber of the Guildhall, summoned by this William Walworth, the maior, as well of aldermen as of the common counsell in every ward, for certaine affaires concerning the king, it was there by common consent agreed and ordained, that the olde seale of the office of the maioralty of the citie, being very final, old, unapt, and uncomely for the honor of the citie, should be broken, and one other new should be had, which the said maior commanded to be made artificially, and honourable for the exercise of the said office thereafter in place of the other; in which new seale, besides the images of Peter and Paul, which of old were readily engraven, there should be, under the feet of the said images, a shield of the armes of the saide citie perfectly graved, with two lions supporting the same, with two sergeants of armes, on either part one; and two tabernacles, in which above should stand two angels, between whom, above the said images of Peter and Paul, shall bee set the glorious Virgine. This being done, the old seale of the office was delivered to Richard Odiham, chamberlaine, who brake it; and in place thereof was delivered the new seale to the said maior, to use in his office of maioralty, as occasion should require. This new seale seemeth to bee made before William Walworth was knighted, for he is not here intituled sir, as afterwards he was; and certaine it is that the same new seale then made is now in use, and none other, in that office of the maioralty; which may suffice to aunswere the former fable, without shewing of any evidence sealed with the olde seale, which was the crosse and sworde of Saint Paule, and not the dagger of William Walworth."

London was not long in recovering from the miseries the citizens had experienced; for, in 1390, the king appointed a tournament to be held in London, and sent heralds to proclaim his intention to all the principal courts of Europe, whence many princes and nobles came to attend the spectacle, which was continued with the greatest splendour for four days; open house being kept at the king's expence for all persons of distinction. The vast expence which this and similar festivities occasioned, frequently reduced Richard to great pecuniary difficulties; his enormous profusion led him to a system of oppression and extortion, which eventually caused his deposition and death.

Wine during this reign was uncommonly cheap, if we may believe Stow, who states, that the price of Gascon wines, that is claret and other sorts that come from France by way of Bourdeaux, was fourpence per gallon; and that of German wines, which came by the Elbe, Rhine, and other rivers, generally denominated Rhenish wines, was sixpence per gallon. The different tolls on roads leading to the metropolis were higher comparatively than they are now, and bore no proportion to the price of provisions. A proclamation for cleansing the streets of London, a grand tournament in Smithfield, a fund established for orphans, and the completion of Westminster-hall, are points upon which the historian would willingly dwell, had not more important events claimed a place in these columns.

The latter end of the year 1399 witnessed the coronation of Henry IV. at Westminster. A large and splendid entertainment was provided in the hall, to celebrate the joyful event; and the lord-mayor and aldermen were admitted



mitted to their seats next the sideboard, in right of chief butler of England. The parliament meeting on the day after this solemnity, several useful and favourable laws were passed for the city of London, and several others, which were vexatious, entirely abrogated.

Ancient historiographers inform us, that, in the year 1409, the parish-clerks acted a play concerning the Creation of the World, which they repeated eight days successively at a place called Skinner's Well, (which thence acquired the name of *Clerkenwell*;) with great applause. On the subject of these early dramas, called *mysteries*, we shall enlarge in another place.

At the death of Henry IV. his eldest son was immediately proclaimed king by the name of Henry V. Soon after, the dangerous conspiracy of Whitlock, who pretended that Richard II. was alive, took place. By the exertions of Thomas Falconer, mayor of London, Whitlock was apprehended with several of his conspirators, and sent to the Tower; but he escaped by the connivance of the constable, and by the help of one of the wardens, who was executed as a traitor.

The lord-mayor in the year 1415 received, on the day of his entering into office, the pleasing news of the king's victory over the French at Agincourt, which was delivered to him by one of the king's messengers as he was riding to Westminster to qualify himself for the high office. In his return from Westminster, accompanied by the bishop of Winchester, the lord chancellor, &c. they proceeded to St. Paul's cathedral, and attended the *Te Deum*, sung with great solemnity; and next day the queen, nobility, clergy, mayor, aldermen, and several guilds or fraternities, formed a solemn procession, and went on foot from St. Paul's cathedral to Westminster-abbey; where this illustrious company made a great oblation at the shrine of Edward the Confessor, and returned in a triumphant manner.

Two years after this, Holborn was first paved, as appears from an order in the *Fadera*, in which Henry V. taking notice, "that the high-way named Holborn, in London, was so deep and miry, that many perils and hazards were thereby occasioned, as well to the king's carriages passing that way, as to those of his subjects; he therefore ordained two vessels, each of twenty tons burthen, to be employed at his expense, for bringing stones for paving and mending the same." This shows the gradual improvement of London and its suburbs. About this time also the citizens of London began to have their town illuminated by lanterns, which every one was ordered to set up over his door, or at any part of the front of his house, for the safety of the streets; but this order does not seem to have produced much effect, for the lighting of the streets did not become general till the seventeenth century. See the article *LAMP*, vol. xii. p. 121.

In the year 1419, sir Richard Whittington served the office of lord-mayor for the third time. We cannot pass by the name of Whittington, without noticing the stories which tradition has attached to it. In the first place it must be observed, that, whenever antiquity has dropped her veil over the existence of any worthy who by his good deeds has deserved the veneration of his contemporaries and of posterity, imagination, enlivened by that very sense of admiration which always brings respect in the rear, generally contrives to eke out some curious anecdotes, some prodigies, or mysterious facts, still more to raise the repute of, and increase the consideration for, the object of her praise. In the second place, why should we not take care lest time, the arch-destroyer, should make more havoc than he ought? It is by the contemptuous neglect of *traditional tales*, as we style the handing-down of facts, that we lose, too often, the chain of historical events; and, as there is no danger in relating those unauthenticated stories, when we note them down fairly as *doubtful*, why should they be condemned still to float on or sink in the stream of oblivion?

Displeased with the treatment he had received at the

hands of his master, (the tradesman to whom young Dick Whittington had been bound an apprentice,) we are told that he ran away from the shop, and, sulking along the road towards Highgate, sat down upon a stone, and began to ponder on his situation.—Whether the irksomeness of travelling alone, or the fatigues of walking, already brought his mind to a better sense of his own interest, cannot be known; but tradition says, that at that particular and critical moment, a peal of bells was rung in some part of the city (some believe them to have been those of Bow-church), and that he interpreted their prophetic sounds in the following distich:

Come again, come again, Whittington,  
Thrice lord-mayor of London-town.

Although he had a proverb against him, (unless he may have been himself the occasion of the saying; "As the bell chinks, so the fool thinks;") he however thought it much more wise to return to the shop, and, by making proper apologies to his master, resume his place behind the counter, and jog on as before. The stone, upon which he sat when he took counsel within himself, has mouldered down, but has been successively replaced by another; and one is there still with the name of Whittington upon it.

Fortune had not called him back to abandon him, and leave him in the drudgery of an obscure shop, but presented him with an opportunity of getting higher in the world.—It is reported, that the master of a trading vessel on the point of leaving the river for foreign countries, being by accident at Whittington's master's house, asked the lad jocosely, whether he had a *venture* to send, as it was customary at that time.—Dick was possessed of nothing except a favourite cat; he offered Pufs to the seafaring chap, and she was carried away. The vessel happened to touch at a place where no member of the old family of Grimalkin had ever been before, and where rats and mice undisturbed enjoyed full liberty of plaguing the islanders. Pufs was soon put in requisition, and did her duty most amazingly. Gold, precious stones, &c. were offered as an equivalent for the rat-and-mice destroyer; and, faithful to his charge, the captain bringing the price of poor Pufs to her master, Whittington saw at once the skies clear up over his head. Industry and attention to business, economy, and strict honesty, contributed soon to increase both the respectability and wealth of Richard Whittington, who filled the civic chair three times, and left a name consecrated by the blessings of his fellow-citizens; thankful for the useful establishments and foundations which he made, augmented, and protected, during his mayoralties.

We find in Pennant's London the following passage: His good fortune was not without parallel; for it is recorded, "How Alphonso, a Portuguese, being wrecked on the coast of Guinea, and being presented by the king thereof with his weight in gold for a cat to kill their mice, and an ointment to kill their flies, which he improved, within five years, to 6000l. on the place, and returning to Portugal, after fifteen years traffic, becoming the third 'man in the kingdom.'" It is more than probable that the anecdote of our countryman may have given rise to the story which Mr. Pennant found in a "Description of Guinea," published in 1665.

After all, some are of opinion that the story of Whittington's *Cat*, like that of the *Minotaurus* and others, originated from the name of the vessel on-board of which Whittington had sailed in search of fortune and trade—and indeed, in one of his farces, our comic writer and actor Foote introduces this idea with a great deal of humour and jocularly.

The state of the coinage in this reign may be learnt from Stow, who says, that "in the year 1421 was granted to Henry V. a fifteenth, to be paid at Candlemas and at Martinmas, of such money as was then current, gold or silver, not overmuch clipped or washed; to wit, that, if the noble were worth five shillings and eight pence, then the king



king should take it for a full noble of six shillings and eight pence; and, if it were of less value than five shillings and eight pence, then the person paying that gold to make it good to the value of five shillings and eight pence; and, if the noble so paid be better than five shillings and eight pence, the king to pay again the surpluse that it was better than five shillings and eight pence. This year was such a scarcity of white money, that, though a noble were so good of gold and weight as six shillings and eight pence, men might get no white money for them."

An estimate of the public revenues and ordinary expenses, probably intended to be submitted to parliament, is preserved in the *Fœdera*, by which it appears, that the annual revenue amounted to 55,754*l.* 10*s.* 10½*d.* and the expenditure to 52,235*l.* 16*s.* 10½*d.* leaving a number of articles unprovided for, and many debts unpaid. It is worthy of remark, that the duties on wool alone amount to upwards of 30,000*l.* more than half the revenue.

On the thirty-first of August, 1422, king Henry V. died in France, from whence his corpse was brought to England, and carried through London in a pompous manner, on an open chariot drawn by four horses, to St. Paul's cathedral, where the funeral obsequies being performed, the body was taken to Westminster, and deposited among the remains of his royal progenitors. At this funeral, James king of Scotland assisted as chief mourner, and was attended by the princes of the blood, almost all the nobility, and the principal gentry of the kingdom.

The son of Henry, though not nine months old, succeeded his father by the name of Henry VI. and, in the month of November following, the young monarch was carried through the city, in his mother's lap, in an open chair, to the parliament then sitting at Westminster.

Soon after the young king's accession to the throne, in the year 1423, a petition was presented to the king in council, for permission to remove the prisoners out of Newgate, in order to rebuild that prison, in conformity to the will of sir Richard Whittington, late lord-mayor of London; and, the petition being granted, the work was performed under the inspection of sir Richard's executors.

In this year sir John Mortimer, a victim to the jealousy of the house of Lancaster against that of York, was executed at Tyburn. He was put to death on a fictitious charge, by an *ex-post-facto* law, called the Statute of Escapes, made on purpose to destroy him; and thus, says Pennant, was Henry VI. stained with blood even in his infancy, and began a bloody reign with slaughter, continued to the end of his life by ambition and cruelty not his own.

About the year 1426, the bishop of Winchester, who was great uncle to the king, formed a design of seizing the protectorship into his own hands; and, as the most likely method to accomplish his ends, determined to surprize the city of London. The duke of Gloucester, who was protector, having received intelligence that this bold plan was intended to be carried into execution in the night succeeding lord-mayor's day, when the citizens were engaged in festivity, he sent an order to the lord-mayor to raise such a number of citizens as might be sufficient to defeat the attempt. Sir John Coventry, the mayor, obeyed this order so effectually, that, when the bishop's archers and men at arms attempted to force a passage at London-bridge, they were easily repulsed; and the insurrection was wholly suppressed, with very little damage on either side.

On the young king's return to England from France, where although his power began to decline, the duke of Bedford had him crowned at Paris, the citizens of London gave him a mark of loyalty by the pompous reception which he met at their hands. On the 20th of February, 1431, the mayor of London, dressed in crimson velvet, with a large furred velvet hat, a girdle of gold about his middle, and a baldric of gold about his neck,

waving down his back, attended by three horsemen, on stately horses, clothed in scarlet bespangled with silver, and by all the aldermen in scarlet gowns with sanguine hoods, and a vast company of citizens in white gowns and scarlet hoods, the symbol of each trade and mystery embroidered richly upon their sleeves, and all on horseback, sumptuously accoutred, met his majesty on Blackheath, and preceded him to London. The city, on this occasion, was decorated with rich silks and carpets; and on the bridge, and streets through which the cavalcade passed, were erected a variety of stately pageants, filled with persons representing the lares, graces, and sciences; who, by their curious orations and charming melodies, added very much to the elegance of the procession. Two days after, the mayor and aldermen attended the king at Westminster, and presented him with a golden hamper, containing a thousand pounds in nobles.

The long quarrels between the company of fishmongers of this city and foreign retailers of fish were at last put an end to, in favour of the latter, by an act of parliament, enacting that no person whatsoever should presume to hinder or obstruct any fisherman, either foreign or domestic, from disposing of his fish as he should see convenient, upon the penalty of ten pounds.

Some idea may be formed of the rate of living at this period, from bishop Fleetwood's *Chronicon Preciosum*, who, under the year 1439, says, "At this time a single clergyman might support himself with decency for five pounds per annum." It must not, however, be overlooked, that five pounds at that time contained as much silver as ten pounds of the present currency; so that living may be estimated at about five times as cheap as in our days. And this opinion is corroborated by an act of parliament passed in this year for regulating the qualifications for justices of the peace in counties, which was to be "twenty pounds yearly, in lands or tenements," a sum very nearly equivalent to the present qualification of one hundred pounds.

Superstition is incessantly at work, and will be so to the end of time; that is, as long as knaves and fools shall be found among men. The year 1440 was remarkable for the hoax played upon the public mind by the vicar of Barking. Sir Richard Wick, vicar of Hermetworth in Essex, was burnt on Tower-hill, on account of his religious tenets; and, as he had the reputation of being a man of remarkable sanctity, the vicar of Barking embraced this opportunity of imposing upon the people, by mixing a quantity of odorous spices with some ashes, which he privately strewed on the place where Wick had been burnt, in order to induce the people to worship him, as a martyr to the faith. This trick drew numbers of people to the spot, who began to invoke the deceased as a saint, and offer statues of wax, and money, at his shrine, which the impostor repaid, by presenting them with the ashes as sacred relics, and supplying the place with fresh ashes during the night. After this farce had been carried on for about a week, the vicar was seized and imprisoned, and, in a short time afterwards, the whole cheat was discovered by his own confession.

The votaries of the law, as well as those of religion, gave dangerous specimens of their zeal, and of their propensity for broils and commotions; for, in August 1442, a fray began between the students of the inns of court, headed by one Harbottle of Clifford's Inn, and the neighbouring citizens, in which many were wounded and killed on both sides; but it was happily quelled before the morning by the citizens, headed by the mayor and sheriffs. But the attempt of the merchant-tailors to set aside the lord-mayor at the next election had like to have proved of much worse consequence to the city. They demanded Ralph Holland, a member of their company, to be chosen by the court of aldermen, in opposition to Robert Clopton, a draper, upon whom the choice had already fallen. And the merchant-tailors became so outrageous, that sir John Paddesley, the mayor, was obliged to exert his authority; who, by committing some of the rioters to Newgate, removed



moved the present obstacle to Clopton's election; and punished the prisoners in an exemplary manner for their riotous proceedings.

This affair, however, did not end here; for the merchant-tailors' party made no scruple of declaring that they would oppose the next election; whereupon the king was applied to, who issued a letter to the following effect: "That whereas the mayors of London used to be chosen by the aldermen, and certain more discreet persons of the said city, especially summoned and warned for that purpose; yet some that had not, nor ought to have, any interest in such elections, came, and with their noise and clamour disturbed them, with an intention to choose such who might afterwards favour their evil-doing and errors: his majesty therefore, willing to provide for the quiet and peace of his subjects, and to apply a suitable remedy on this behalf, did command and firmly enjoin the mayor and sheriffs, to make proclamation through all the city and liberty, before the time of the election of a mayor, strictly forbidding, that none be present at such election, or any way, or under any colour, thrust himself into it, but such as by right, and according to the custom of the city, ought to be there; and that such election be made by the aldermen and other of the more discreet and able citizens, especially warned and summoned, according to the custom aforesaid; letting them know for certain, that if any, some other way elected, were presented to him, or his treasurer, and barons of the exchequer, they would by no means admit him; and that they should arrest and commit to prison all those who should act contrary to the said proclamation and prohibition." We have inserted the whole of this letter, not only on account of its being intimately connected with the history of the time when it was written, but also to show how strongly the court interfered in order to secure the freedom and purity of election to the citizens of the metropolis in the choice of their first magistrate.

We begin now to find a considerable increase in the prices of provisions. In 1444, the Chronicon Preciosum states them as follows:

	l.	s.	d.
Wheat, per quarter	0	4	4
A fat ox	1	11	8
A hog	0	3	0
A goose	0	0	3
Pigeons, per dozen	0	0	4

Another act of parliament for permitting the exportation of grain was passed in this year, which fixes the exportation-prices of wheat at 6s. 8d. rye 4s. and barley 3s. per quarter.

In the following year we have another table of prices in the same book, by which it appears, that wheat remained at the above price, and other articles as under:

	l.	s.	d.
Ale, per gallon	0	0	1½
Hay, per load	0	3	6½
A young swan	0	0	3
A goose	0	0	3
Stock-fish, one hundred for	0	17	6
Red herrings, three thousand for	1	11	0
Bullocks and heifers (probably calves) each	0	5	0
Fine linen, for surplices and the altar, per ell	0	0	8

About this period the public schools for the education of youth had so far gone to decay, that the grossest ignorance prevailed among the people in general. To remedy this defect, four clergymen petitioned parliament for leave to set up schools in their respective parishes, with liberty to their several successors to continue the said schools. As this petition may be supposed to have been drawn up by men of learning, with their greatest care and ability, we have transcribed it correctly from the records in the Tower, where it is still preserved, as a curious specimen of the language and manner of spelling at that period.

"To the ful worthie and discrete Communes in this present Parlement assembled; to conside the grete nom-

bre of gramer scholes that sometyme were in divers parties of this realme, beside those that were in London, and how few ben in these dayes, and the grete hurt is caused of this, not oonly in the spirital partie of the chirche, where oftentyme it apperith to openly in som perones with grete shame, but also in the temporal partie; to whom also it is full expedyent to have competent congruite for manie causes, as to your wisdomes apperith.

"And forasmuche as to the cite of London is the common concourse of this land, som for lake of schole-maistres in their own contree, for to be enfourmed of gramer ther, and som for the grete almecs of lordes, merchants, and others, that which is in London more plenteuously, sooner than manie other places of this reaueme, to such pouere creatures as never should have be brought to so greet vertu and counyng as thei have, ne had hit been by the meane of the almecs above said: Wherefor it were expedyent, that in London were a sufficient number of scholes, and good enfourmers in gramer; and not, for the singular avail of two or three perones, greuously to hurt the multitude of young people of al this land. For, wher there is grete nombre of lerners and few techers, and al the lerners be compelled to go to the few techers, and to noon others, the maistres waxen rich of monie, and the lerners pouerer in counyng, as experyence openlie shewith ayeñst all vertu and ordre of well publik.

"And these premisses moven and sturen, of grete devocon and pitee, Maistre William Lycchefeld, person of the parich-chirche of Al Hallowen the More, in London; Maistre Gilbert, person of St. Andrewe, Holbourne, in the suburbs of the said citee; Maistre John Cote, person of Saint Petre, in Cornhul, of London; and John Neel, maistre of the hous or hospital of Saint Thomas of Acres, and person of Colchirche, in London; to compleyne unto you, and for remedie besechyn you, to pray the king our sovereign lord, that he, bi the advys and assent of the lords spirital and temporel in this present parlement assembled, and bi autoritie of the same parlement, will provide, ordeyne, and graunt, to the said Maistre William and his successors, that they in the seid parich of Al Hallowen; to the said Maistre Gilbert, and his successors, that they in the seid parich of Saint Andrew; to the said Maistre John and his successors, that they in the seid parich of Saint Petre; and to the seid John Maistre (of the seid hospital,) and his successors, that they within the aforesaid parich of our Ladie of Colchirche, in the which said houe of Saint Thomas is sette; may ordeyne, create, establish, and set, a person sufficientlie lerned in the gramer, to hold and exercise a schole in the same sciencie of gramer, and it there to teche to al that will learn. And that everiche of the said maistres such schole-maistre so bi him sett, and everche of their successors such schole-maistre bi him or bi any of his predecessors so established and sett, speciallie as is above rehercid, may in his own parich or place remove, and another in his place substitute and sett, as any of the said perones or their successors semeth, [and] the cause reasonable so requireth. And so to do ich of the said perones and their successors, as often as it happenyth any of the said scholes to be voyd of a schole-maistre in any manner wyse, to the honour of God, and increasyng of vertu."—This petition met no objection, and the king placed the execution of his will concerning it under the direction of the archbishop of Canterbury.

In the year 1450, began the rebellion of Jack Cade, which was suppressed chiefly through the bravery of the citizens of London, as related under the article ENGLAND, vol. vi. p. 615.

The custom of the lord-mayor elect being rowed in a barge to Westminster, in order to qualify himself for his office, took its rise in the year 1454, when John Norman, the new mayor, built an elegant barge at his own expense; and his example was followed by the several city-companies, who attended him in their respective barges, magnificently painted, and decorated with flags and streamers.



This fight is very magnificent; and, when we witness this civic procession on the water, our minds are transported to the lively shores of the Adriatic, (making some allowance for a November-day and for the difference of climate,) where the Venetian doge used to espouse the sea with great solemnity.

About this time the city was distracted with rebellions and riots, partly occasioned by the increase of foreign merchants on the London mart; but, to the everlasting glory of the chief magistrate of London, peace was restored: the rebels either punished or forgiven; and trade, hand in hand with tranquillity, resumed its sway. Several useful regulations were also established, which have consolidated that union, which exist among the citizens to this moment, and constitute their happiness.

This period may also be called the dawn of the arts in London; for it appears that John Carpenter, town-clerk of London in the reign of Henry V. caused, at a great expense, to be curiously painted upon board, about the north cloister of St. Paul's, a monument of Death, leading all estates, with the speeches of Death, and the answer of every state. This famous picture, which was preserved until 1549, was called the Dance of Death. It contained the figures of persons in all the different ranks of life, in their proper dresses. The verses, which were in French, were translated by John Lydgate, the poet of Bury. Whether Holbein, who treated the same subject at Basil in Switzerland, had seen this painting, it is difficult to ascertain; but it is probable he had, since he was in England before the destruction of this curious device.

Of the five artists who were employed in erecting the monument of the earl of Warwick, who died in 1439, and adorning it with images, four were Englishmen; the other was a Dutch goldsmith. The number of the images was thirty-two, besides the great image of the earl. These were all cast of the finest latten, by William Austin, founder, of London. This monument was erected in the chapel of Our Lady, in St. Mary's church, Warwick, which was also built about the same time. The expense of painting this monument and chapel was considerable; the paintings were of different kinds, and performed by different artists.

We read also in Dugdale, that "John Purde, glazier in Westminster, engaged to glaze the chapel with glass from beyond the seas, of the finest colours, of blue, yellow, red, purple, sanguine, and violet, and of all other colours that shall be most necessary and best, to make rich and embellish the matters, images, and stories, that shall be delivered to him, by patterns on paper, afterwards to be newly traced and pictured by another painter, in rich colour, at his charges. The glass and workmanship cost one hundred and eight pounds. John Brentwood, steyner, of London, covenanted to paint fine and curiously, on the west wall of the chapel, the dome of our Lord God Jesus, and all manner of devices and imagery thereto belonging, of fair and rightly proportion, for which he was to receive thirteen pounds six shillings and eight pence. Christian Colburne, painter in London, covenanted to paint in most fine, fairest, and curious, wise, four images of stone, ordained for the new chapel in Warwick; whereof two principal images, the one of Our Lady, the other of St. Gabriel the angel; and two less images, one of St. Anne, and another of St. George; these four to be painted with the finest oil-colours, in the richest, finest, and freshest, clothings that may be made, of fine gold, azure, fine purple, fine white, and other finest colours necessary, garnished, bordered, and powdered, in the finest and curiousest wise."

Time has entirely effaced these works, and it is therefore impossible for us to decide upon their merit; but, by comparing in our mind the taste of contemporary artists on glass, we cannot say much in favour of those who painted in oil at that time.

The bloody conflicts excited at this time by the ambitious claims of the rival houses of Lancaster and York,

shook the whole of the kingdom, and of course affected the tranquillity of the metropolis, but were not able to disturb its commerce, which increased considerably, owing to the wise regulations above-mentioned.

The low price of corn in 1463, occasioned the passing of an act of parliament to prevent the importation of that article; the rates of which, at London, according to bishop Fleetwood, were as follows: viz. wheat, two shillings; barley, one shilling; oats, one shilling; and pease, three shillings and fourpence, per quarter.

The manufacturers and tradesmen of London, and other parts, having made heavy complaints against the importation of foreign manufactured wares, which greatly obstructed their employment, an act of parliament was passed in the same session, "prohibiting the importation of woollen caps, woollen cloths, laces, corsets, ribbands, fringes of silk and of thread, laces of thread, silk twined, silk in any wise embroidered, laces of gold and of silk and gold; saddles, stirrups, or any harness pertaining to saddles; spurs, bosses for bridles; irons, gridirons, locks, hammers, pinsons, fire-tongs, dripping-pans, dice, tennis-balls, points, purses, globes, girdles, harness for girdles, of iron, latten, steel, tin, or of alchemine; any thing wrought of any tawed leather, any tawed furs, buscanes, shoes, galoches, corks, knives, daggers, wood-knives, bodkins, shears for taylors, scissors, razors, chessmen, playing-cards, combs, pattins, pack-needles, painted ware, forcers, caskets, rings of copper or of latten gilt, chafing-dishes, hanging candlesticks, capping-balls, facing-bells, rings for curtains, lades, scummers, counterfeit basons, ewers, hats, brushes, wool-cards; black iron thread, commonly called and named white wire;—upon forfeiture of the same, one moiety to the king, and the other to the informer. Irish manufactures are, however, excepted, and also such as should be taken at sea, or by wreck. Magistrates of cities and towns are authorized to search for defective and unlawful wares, which shall be forfeited. Excepting, however, the liberty of the dean of the free chapel of St. Martin's-le-Grand, in London, and its precinct." We have inserted this long catalogue of merchandise, in order to give an idea of the manufactures which were at that time brought to any perfection, and also of some of the domestic wants of our ancestors.

Early in the reign of Edward IV. an incident happened, which proves the high idea the magistrates of London entertained of their dignity. On a call of new serjeants at law, a grand entertainment was given at Ely-house, Holborn; to which the mayor, aldermen, sheriffs, and many of the principal citizens, were invited. On sitting down to table, the lord-treasurer, baron Ruthen, took the most honourable place; this the lord mayor disputed with him, insisting that, as the king's representative, he had the pre-eminence of all persons within the liberties of the city. The treasurer, however, remaining inflexible, the mayor resented it with becoming spirit, by withdrawing, and immediately returning to the city, where he provided an elegant repast for the entertainment of his fellow-citizens.

In the year 1463, several of the London jury, having taken bribes to favour a prisoner, were apprehended and tried before the lord-mayor for wilful and corrupt perjury; and, being convicted on the clearest evidence, they were sentenced to ride from Newgate to Cornhill, with paper mitres on their heads, where they were exposed on the pillory to the derision of the public, and then carried back in the same manner to Newgate.

Throughout the whole of the reign of Edward IV. we shall find scarcely any interesting fact immediately relating to the metropolis, except the circumstance of the parliament, which was summoned to meet at Westminster, adjourning to St. Paul's, where it continued to sit from the 20th of November till Christmas.

The veil of darkness which had been heavily spread over the human mind, was rent asunder, and destroyed for ever, by the introduction of the art of printing, brought



into England in the year 1472 by William Caxton, a mercer of London, and first practised in Westminster-abbey. What little learning hitherto existed remained in the hands of the clergy, who perverted it to suit their own purposes. Few books were written except idle legendary tales to preserve a spirit of superstition; and manuscript copies bore too high a price to be purchased by the common people. The first book printed by Caxton, in London, was a treatise on the Game of Chess, translated by himself from the French; it was not completed and published until 1474. He was patronized by the earl of Rivers, who, translating "A Collection of the Dictes and Sayings of the Philosophers," gave it to Caxton; and it is reputed to have been the second book printed. It is said that a fair manuscript of this translation is preserved in the archbishop's library, at Lambeth; with an illumination representing the earl of Rivers introducing Caxton to Edward IV. his queen, and the prince. This art soon got into great repute; for, previous to Caxton's death, which took place in 1491, we find Theodore Rood, John Lettou, William Macheline, and Wynkin de Worde, foreigners, and Thomas Hunt, an Englishman, all printers in London. See the article PRINTING.

Caxton's opinion of the youth of London in his time, though not very flattering, may be presumed to be correct. He says; "I see that the children that ben borne within the sayd cyte encrease and prouffyte not like their faders and olders; but for the molte parte, after that they ben comeyn to their perfight yeres of discretion, and rypenes of age, how well that faders have lefte to them grete quantite of goodes, yet scarcely amonge ten two thrive. O blessed Lord! when I remembre thys, I am al abashed. I cannot judge the cause; but fayrer, ne wyfer, ne bet bespoken, children in theyre youthe, ben no wher than ther ben in London; but at thyr ful ryping there is no carnel, ne good corn founden, but chaff for the most part." *Ames's Hist. of Printing.*

In the month of September, 1479, a dreadful pestilence broke out in London, which continued till November in the next year, during which unhappy visitation an incredible number of citizens fell victims to it.

The power of the city magistrates, at this time, was raised to a very high pitch. In the midst of this dreadful plague, Robert Byfield, one of the sheriffs, having presumed to kneel close to the lord-mayor, before St. Erkenwald's shrine, the mayor complained to the court of aldermen of having been rudely treated; wherefore the sheriff was fined fifty pounds, to be applied to the repairs of the city conduits. One Robert Deyns, having, in the year 1480, married an orphan in the city, without license of the magistrates, was adjudged, by the court of lord-mayor and aldermen, to pay a fine of twenty pounds for the said offence. In the same year a remarkable punishment was inflicted on four persons, who, having been tried for robbing of churches, and convicted, were sentenced to be hanged on Tower-hill, and their bodies burnt to ashes, together with the gibbet on which they were hanged; which sentence was accordingly carried into execution.

About this period, the king, to evince his regard for the corporation of London, invited the mayor, aldermen, and chief citizens, to a grand hunt on Waltham-forest, in which several deer were killed, and the entertainment was concluded with a sumptuous and splendid feast, which the king caused to be provided in a beautiful arbour erected on the occasion. Shortly after, to show that he also wished to preserve a good understanding with the city ladies, his majesty sent a present of two harts, six bucks, and a ton of wine, to the lady-mayorefs, who entertained the aldermen's ladies and others with this royal donation at Drapers' hall.

The proclamation of Richard III. at Castle Baynard's, where he resided, was attended with a great deal of finesse played upon the mayor and citizens of London; but we still find, even at that moment, when power and its influence had entirely turned the scale of justice in favour of

the usurper, a deep sense of loyalty in our ancestors. They resisted, till they were overthrown. See the article ENGLAND, vol. vi. p. 623. Richard made the lord-mayor of London, sir Edmund Shaw, a privy-counsellor, and admitted his claim to act as chief butler at the coronation.

To Richard III. succeeded Henry VII. (in 1485,) whose reign began by the visitation of a most extraordinary disease, called the *sweating sickness*, which raged with great violence in London. The patients were seized with a most unnatural perspiration, which, waisting out of the body all the nourishment, and even the substance of the blood, caused death within four-and-twenty hours. It continued its rage for a whole month before any method of cure was discovered; and, in the mean time, destroyed many thousand people; among whom were two lord-mayors, six aldermen, and three sheriffs.

Among other regulations at this time, 1486, an act of common-council was passed to prevent improper persons obtaining the freedom of the city; the import of which was, that no apprentice should be taken, nor freedom given, except to such as were gentlemen born; agreeable to that clause of the freeman's oath, which says, "Ye shall take none apprentice but if [except] he be free-born, that is to say, no bondman's son, nor the child of any alien." According to the *Chronicon Preciosum*, wheat sold, this year, for one pound four shillings per quarter.

Few or no events of great import characterize the reign of this monarch. Some regulations relative to apprentices, the restoration of Cheapside Cross, the prohibition against citizens trading at fairs out of the city, many instances of extortions on the side of the crown, and of loyalty on the side of the people, the improvements at Fleet-ditch to make it navigable, but particularly the foundation of St. Paul's school, by Dr. John Collet, dean of St. Paul's, which still flourishes with honour to itself and benefit to the metropolis,—are the only notable features of that reign.

Henry VII. died on the 22d of April, 1509, at his favourite palace of Richmond, leaving one million eight hundred thousand pounds sterling, in money, jewels, and plate, locked up in the vaults of his palace.—That such a sum of money should have been hoarded by this weak and superstitious king, in order to enable him to order masses to be said for the salvation of his soul, favours the surmise, that he intended to carry heaven not by force, (Matth. xi. 12.) but by pecuniary seduction.—However, his funeral was conducted with the utmost magnificence. His body was brought from Richmond to the painted chamber at Westminster, where, resting three days, a solemn mass and dirge were sung by a mitred bishop; whence being removed into the hall, the same service was performed there, the like space of time; as also in the chapel three days longer; and at every place was a hearse, adorned with banners, escutcheons, and pennons, with mourners attending. From thence, on Wednesday, the 9th of May, it was put into a chariot, covered with cloth, black and gold, drawn by five beautiful horses, covered with black velvet, ornamented with escutcheons of fine gold; with his effigy, apparelled in rich robes, the crown on his head, and sceptre and ball in his hands, laid on a cushion of gold, and environed with banners of the arms of all his dominions, titles, and genealogies; a great number of prelates praying, with his servants, and others, in black, before the body; and nine mourners, with about six hundred torches, following. In this order it was attended to St. George's Fields, near Southwark; and there met by the religious of the several orders in or about the city, with the lord-mayor, aldermen, and common-council, in black. It was then brought through the city to St. Paul's, and placed in the choir, in a stately hearse of wax; whence, after a solemn mass, and a sermon preached by the bishop of Rochester, it was the next day, with the same state, conveyed to Westminster, sir Edward Hayward, with the king's coat of arms, bearing his banner, on a horse trapped with the arms of the defunct; and there,



there, by six lords, taken out of the chariot and set under a most curious hearse, full of lights, the effigy lying on the coffin, on a pall of gold; about which the mourners being set within the first rail, knights bearing banners within the second, and officers of arms without the same, Garter king of arms cried aloud, "For the soul of the noble prince Henry VII. king of this realm;" when the choir, beginning with *Placebo*, and ending with *Dirige*, closed the solemnities of that day. The next day three masses were solemnly sung by bishops, at the last of which were offered the banner, horse, coat of arms, sword, target, and helmet; the nobility likewise offering their rich palls of cloth of gold. When the choir had sung *Libera me*, the corpse was interred, in the chapel built by the deceased in Westminster-abbey, the treasurer and comptroller breaking their staves into the grave; when Garter having called with a loud voice, "Vive le roy Henrie le huitiesme, roy d'Angleterre & de France, syere d'Ireland," the mourners, with those of the household, departed to the palace, where they were sumptuously entertained.

In giving a full account of these royal obsequies, we enable our reader to compare the magnificence and pomp which three hundred years ago animated the minds and fired the zeal of the citizens of London and Westminster, for the preservation of the royal person when alive, at the same time as they show their veneration for the relics of the dead monarch; bearing always in view, that the metropolis, the heart of the nation, did always beat first in testimony of loyalty, a sentiment which may be shortly and appropriately expressed in the following line from an ancient inscription: *Est mihi nunc eadem quæ fuit ante fides.*

"I still retain and show  
The faith I once did vow."

For, although we always find the city steady, staunch, and vigorous, in resisting any attacks upon her rights and liberties, yet no part of the kingdom is ever more ready to come forward in support of the king and constitution.—The city is, as it seems, in possession of the palladium of Great Britain; and her safety, her honour, her welfare, are so intimately connected with the rest of the nation at large, that the word *London* is become nearly synonymous with *United Kingdom*.

The first acts of Henry VIII. were very popular. He evinced, at the beginning of his reign, a decided taste for magnificence and show. His marriage with his deceased brother's widow was solemnized with extraordinary pomp and expense. The drefs of the king and queen are thus described by Hall: "His grace wared in his upperst apparell a robe of crimson velvet, furred with armyns; his jacket or cote of raised gold; the placard embroidered with diamonds, rubies, emeraudes, great pearles, and other rich stones; a greate bauderike about his necke, of large balasses. The quene was appareled in white satin embroidered, her hair hanging downe to her backe, of a very great length, bewtefull and goodly to behold; and on her hedde a coronall, set with many riche orient stones."

Having given above the ceremonial of a royal funeral, we must place under the eye of the reader, as a counterpart, the description of one of those pageants our ancestors were so fond of, and which may afford some idea of the manners and taste of the time. In the year 1510, Henry, disguised in the habit of a yeoman of the guard, went into the city, on the eve of St. John, to see the grand cavalcade of the city-watch. He was so highly pleased with the sight, that he returned on St. Peter's eve, with his royal consort, attended by the principal nobility, and stood in Cheapside, where they saw the stately march. This ceremony was performed twice every year, viz. on the eve of St. John Baptist, and the eve of St. Peter and Paul. The manner of conducting this nocturnal parade was as follows: The city-music followed by the lord-mayor's officers in party-coloured liveries; the sword-bearer on horseback, in beautiful armour, before

the lord-mayor, mounted on a stately horse richly decorated, attended by a giant and two pages on horseback, three pageants, morrice-dancers and footmen; after these came the sheriffs, followed by their officers in proper liveries, and attended by their giants, pages, &c. then a considerable body of demi-lancers in bright armour, on stately horses; these were followed by a great number of carabineers in fustian coats, with the city-arms on their backs and breasts; then marched a division of archers, with their bows bent, and by their side sheaves of arrows; after these a great number of halberdiers, preceded by a party of pikemen, with croffets and helmets; and the rear was brought up by a party of billmen with aprons and helmets of mail. The whole body consisted of about two thousand men in different divisions, in each of which were properly fixed musicians, drums, standards, and ensigns. The march began at the conduit, the west end of Cheapside, and passed through Cheapside, the Poultry, Cornhill, and Leadenhall-street, to Aldgate; from whence it returned through Fenchurch-street, Gracechurch-street, Cornhill, and so back to the conduit again. The procession was illuminated by nine hundred and forty large lanterns, fixed at the ends of poles, and carried on men's shoulders; two hundred of which were provided at the expense of the city, five hundred at that of the companies, and two hundred and forty by the city-constables; exclusive of these, a great number of lamps were hung against the houses on each side the way, decorated with flowers and greens made into garlands. The whole formed a very pleasing sight, and gave the highest satisfaction to the royal pair.

It is also to be remarked, that the year 1512 was the first year that the Italian form of masquerade was introduced into this nation; when king Henry, on Twelfth-night, with eleven more, disguised with long flowing garments, wrought all in gold, and with masks and caps of gold tissue, preceded by six gentlemen also in masquerade, with silk garments, and torches in their hands, entered the ball-room after supper, and each took out a lady to dance; and thus continued the rest of the evening.

In the year 1514, the land-holders about Islington, Hoxton, and Shoreditch, had inclosed their grounds so that the citizens were debarred from their accustomed exercises and sports in these fields, or if they pursued them were indicted as trespassers. The populace, irritated at this treatment, and instigated by a fellow who ran about the streets, in a merry-andrew's coat, calling for spades and shovels, assembled in great numbers, and with these implements soon levelled the fences. On this the king sent commissioners into the city to inquire into the cause of this tumult, who, being met in the convent of the Grey Friars, summoned the lord-mayor and aldermen before them to give an account of the matter; when they reprimanded these magistrates for not being more careful of the peace of the city, and strictly enjoined them to prevent such occurrences in future.

Fabian says, that, in 1515, the Thames was frozen so hard that carriages of all sorts passed between Westminster and Lambeth upon the ice.

It was an ancient custom, says Hall, in his Chronicle, for the citizens of London to celebrate May-day, by diverting themselves in the neighbouring woods and meadows; and, continues this historian, this diversion was become so great a fashion, that it engaged the king and queen, this year, attended by their nobles, to ride a-maying, from Greenwich to the top of Shooter's hill, on May-day in the morning. In this excursion, their majesties were designedly met by two hundred yeomen, clothed in green, with green hoods, and bows and arrows, under a captain named Robin Hood. Robin intreated the king to stop and see his men shoot, which they performed most dextrously at once, at his whistle; and their arrows were so contrived in the heads, that they also whistled, when shot off, with a strange and loud noise, that greatly delighted his royal gueits, whom Robin afterwards conducted to the



the green-wood, and entertained plentifully with wine and venison, under arbours made of boughs and decked with flowers; as related more fully under the article *GAME*, vol. viii. p. 203.

The more we consider these anecdotes, the more we become acquainted with the characteristic manners of our ancestors, the inhabitants of London, a knowledge of which Time would have deprived us by mowing down monuments and archives, had not the care of divers historiographers saved them from the fury of his all-levelling scythe. See the article *GAME*, vol. viii.

On account of a commotion that took place in London respecting the number of foreign traders, and chiefly Dutchmen, who brought numerous articles ready manufactured, to the injury of the citizens, cardinal Wolfey sent for the mayor, and advised him to be on his guard, and prevent the like disturbances for the future. To effect this, he summoned the aldermen, about four o'clock in the afternoon preceding May-day, to meet him at Guildhall immediately. The assembly being met, they, with the approbation of the cardinal, came to the following resolution: That every man should be commanded to shut up his doors, and keep his servants within. In consequence of which, an order was made and published by the alderman of each respective ward, that no man, after nine o'clock, should stir out of his house, but keep his doors shut, and his servants within, till nine o'clock in the morning. Before this order was properly dispersed, it unluckily happened that sir John Mundy, in his way home, was rudely treated by two young men playing at bucklers in Cheap, one of whom he ordered to be sent to the Compter. Many 'prentices who were by, rescued the young man from the alderman, crying out, "'Prentices! 'prentices! Clubs! clubs!" on which so great a body assembled with clubs and other weapons, that the alderman was put to flight. These were increased by a number of serving-men, watermen, and others; and, by eleven o'clock at night, there assembled in Cheap about seven hundred, and in St. Paul's church-yard three hundred. They proceeded in a body to the Compter, which they broke open, and released the rioters who had been committed there by the mayor for assaulting foreigners; after which they went to Newgate, and took out Studley and Betts, committed for the like offence. A proclamation was issued by the mayor and sheriffs, in the king's name, but without effect. The mob increasing, they threw sticks and stones at many strangers as they passed, particularly one Nicholas Dennis, a serjeant at arms, who, being much wounded, cried out, "Down with them." This heightening their resentment, they broke the windows and doors of the houses in St. Martin's-le-Grand, and plundered the house of one Mewtas, a Frenchman, in Leadenhall-street, whom they intended, had they met with him, to have destroyed. Early in the morning they dispersed, from an apprehension of being overpowered by the forces preparing to march into the city, under the command of the earls of Shrewsbury and Surry.

At length, by the diligence of the mayor, three hundred of them were taken, and committed to the Tower, Newgate, and the Compters; and about five o'clock in the morning the riot subsided. Among those committed to the Tower was Dr. Bell, for preaching a seditious sermon. A commission of oyer and terminer was immediately made out for the trials of the offenders, on the 2d of May, at Guildhall. On their arraignment they pleaded Not guilty, and their trials were postponed till the 4th of May. The commissioners appointed for this purpose were, the lord-mayor, the earl of Surry, and the duke of Norfolk, who came into the city escorted by thirteen hundred men; and the prisoners, to the amount of two hundred and seventy-eight, some men, some lads not exceeding fourteen years of age, were brought through the city tied with ropes. On the first day, John Lincolne and several others were indicted and found guilty; and the next day thirteen were condemned to be drawn, hanged, and quartered. For this purpose, and to strike a greater terror, ten pair of gal-

lows were set up at the following places: Aldgate, Blanchapelon, Grafs-street, Leadenhall, opposite each Compter, Newgate, St. Martin's, Aldersgate, and Bishopsgate. They were made to run on wheels, for the better convenience of removing them to such places as might be properly adapted for the execution of so many rioters. Some little time after sentence was passed, Lincolne, Sherwin, and the two brothers named Betts, were drawn upon hurdles to the standard in Cheapside. The first was executed; but, as the others were near being turned off, a reprieve came from the king, to the universal joy of the populace, who unanimously cried out, "God save the king."

On the 11th of May, the lord-mayor, aldermen, and recorder, dressed in mourning gowns, waited on the king, who then resided at Greenwich; and, being admitted to the door of the privy-chamber, from whence his majesty came, attended by several of his nobles, the recorder, in the name of the rest, falling on his knees, addressed the king in the following words: "Most natural, benign, and our sovereign lord! We well know that your grace is highly displeased with us of your city of London, for the great riot done and committed there; wherefore, we assure your grace, that none of us, nor no honest persons, were condescending to that enormity; yet we, our wives and children, every hour lament that your favour should be taken from us; and, so far as light and idle persons were the doers of the same, we most humbly beseech your grace to have mercy on us for our negligence, and compassion on the offenders for their offences and trespasses."

The king, in his answer, accused them of negligence in opposing the rioters, and conniving at their proceedings: "Therefore," said he, "we will neither grant you our favour nor good will, nor to the offenders mercy; but resort to our lord chancellor, and he shall declare to you our pleasure."

The king being expected at Westminster on the 22d of May, they, by the direction of the chancellor, resolved to wait upon him. Accordingly, on that day, the lord-mayor aldermen, and principal commoners, attended in their liveries; when his majesty, being seated under a canopy of state at the upper end of the hall, ordered the prisoners to be brought before him. They were accordingly brought in their shirts, bound together with ropes, and halters about their necks, to the number of four hundred men and eleven women; which sight had such an effect on the principal part of the nobility, that they warmly solicited the king for their pardon. Silence being proclaimed, and the city magistrates and commonalty ordered into the king's presence, the cardinal-chancellor reprimanded them for their negligence; and, then addressing himself to the prisoners, said that for their offences against the laws of the realm, and against his majesty's crown and dignity, they had incurred the punishment of death. On the close of these words, the people, with piteous lamentation, cried out, "Mercy, gracious lord! mercy!" This wrought so effectually on the king, that he yielded to the intreaties of his courtiers, and pronounced their pardon. Their halters were immediately taken off, and the people universally shouted, "Long live king Henry VIII." Before they were dismissed, the cardinal exhorted them to preserve loyalty and obedience to the king; which they faithfully promised, and expressed the most unbounded thanks for the clemency they had received. The day on which this riot happened, was long known by the name of *Evil May-day*; and this circumstance greatly diminished the May-games, which were before exhibited on setting up the great shafte, or May-pole, in Leadenhall-street, before the church thence termed the church of St. Andrew Under-shaft. See the article *GAME*, vol. viii. p. 202, 3.

The city magistrates were soon after restored to the king's favour, through the mediation of cardinal Wolfey, who had an entire ascendancy over the king, and was supposed to have been amply rewarded for his services on this occasion.

The Court of Requests, otherwise called a Court of  
U  
Conscience;



Confidence, was erected in the year 1518. At this time the city in particular, and the whole kingdom in general, were visited again with that most dreadful epidemical disease, termed the  *sweating sickness*. The effects were very sudden; for it proved fatal in three hours after the patient was affected. When it first began, the king's court was exceedingly splendid and numerous, on account of the queen of Scotland being in London upon a visit to her brother; but the dreadful havoc which the sickness made soon thinned it. That prince retired to Berwick; the law-terms were adjourned; and the king, to keep the infection as much as he could from his family, reduced his officers and domestics to a very small number. It was computed, that in some towns half, and in others one third, of the inhabitants died of this dreadful distemper.

The act for licensing practitioners in physic, passed a few years before, having brought the faculty into better repute, the most able physicians now sought to keep ignorant pretenders entirely out of the profession, and, for that purpose, applied to the king for a charter of incorporation, to enable them to frame proper regulations for practitioners. Henry complied with their request, and granted them a charter in this year, which was confirmed by parliament in 1523, with additional privileges.

When we consider that the city-ditch, which ran and spread its mephitic exhalations from Aldgate to the postern on Tower-hill, cost no more than 95l. 3s. 4d. this year to be entirely cleaned, and compare it with the enormous expense attending such works in our days, we may esteem as near as possible the difference between the value of the representative coin of that age with our's, and the salary of labourers. The chief ditcher had seven-pence per day, the second sixpence, and the others five-pence each; the vagabonds (for that was the term applied to the labourers, not with any view of contempt, but because they used to go and get work independently from one place to another, from the Latin *vagari*, "to go about,") had only one penny, and meat and drink at the charge of the city. Yet, when we recollect that three half-pence could buy a fat capon, then we find the equilibrium still holding fast between the price of labour and that of provisions.

The city of London, in 1622, was roused to the enjoyment of parades and shows, of which large communities of men are generally so fond, by the arrival of the emperor Charles V. in England on a visit to Henry VIII. who met him at Dover, and conducted him to Greenwich, where he was received by the queen, attended by the principal nobility. On their entrance into the city, the lord-mayor, aldermen, and sheriffs, received them in their formalities, attended by the principal citizens on horseback, richly accoutred; on which occasion the streets were decorated with the most pompous ornaments, and a variety of magnificent pageants. The emperor was conducted to Blackfriars, the place appointed for his residence, and the princes and nobility of his retinue to the new palace at Bride-well. The emperor staid six weeks in England, and, before his departure, was installed a knight of the order of the garter.

This year also, Henry received a visit from Christian king of Denmark, and his queen. On their arrival, they were received by the mayor and citizens, who conducted them with great pomp to the bishop of Bath's palace, the place appointed for them during their stay. St. Peter's eve happening before their departure, their majesties, attended by the principal nobility, went to see the pompous march of the city-watch; for which purpose they were conducted to the King's Head, in Cheap-side, where they were highly pleased with the novelty of the sight, and afterwards elegantly entertained by sir Thomas Baldry, the mayor.

The war with France, which began about this time, forced the king to demand a loan of 20,000l. from the good and ever-loyal city of London. Some resistance was made; but, the king granting an obligation for repay-

ment signed by himself and the cardinal, the matter was easily adjusted.

The low rate of house-rent at this time shows, that, even in London, there was but little wealth, compared with the present times. Howell, in his *Londinopolis*, p. 110, says, "That an ancient grammar-school in Bow church-yard, being decayed, the school-house was let out for rent, about this time, at four shillings yearly, a cellar at two shillings, and two vaults under that church, both for fifteen shillings."

Much about this time, says Howell, in the same work, soap began first to be made in London; "before which time, that city was served with white soap from beyond sea; and with grey soap, speckled with white, very sweet and good, from Bristol, sold here for a penny the pound, and never above a penny-farthing; also black soap for a halfpenny the pound."

By an act of parliament, of the fourteenth and fifteenth of Henry VIII. cap. 2. for settling how many apprentices and journeymen (not denizens) should be kept by foreign trademen in London, &c. great powers were given to the corporations of handicrafts over the workmanship of these foreigners, there being, in those times, smiths, joiners, coopers, &c. who were foreigners, and had seals or stamps put on their works, after being examined by the wardens of those corporations. The jurisdiction of the London corporations was, by this act, to extend two miles beyond the city, viz. "within the town of Westminster, the parishes of St. Martin in the Fields, and our Lady in the Strand, St. Clement's Danes without Temple-bar, St. Giles's in the Fields, St. Andrew's in Holborn, the town and borough of Southwark, Shoreditch, Whitechapel parish, St. John's-street in Clerkenwell, and Clerkenwell parish, St. Botolph without Aldgate, St. Catharine's near the Tower of London, and Bermondsey-street."

This is an authentic view of the suburbs of London in 1524. We are not, however, to imagine that they were all contiguous to each other, as at present: the Strand was then chiefly taken up with the capital dwellings of the nobility, which had large gardens adjoining; and a considerable part of the parishes of St. Martin and St. Giles were literally in the fields, as was the northern part of St. Andrew's in Holborn, and a great part of Westminster, Clerkenwell, Shoreditch, Whitechapel, and Southwark.

The re-appearance of the plague, and the disputes about foreign traders, filled up the ensuing year. In 1527, cardinal Wolfey being appointed ambassador extraordinary to the court of France, on his way thither he rode through the city in the greatest pomp, attended by a numerous train of the chief nobility, gentry, and prelates, who, together with his and their domestics, formed a body of twelve hundred horsemen. This magnificent cavalcade was preceded by sixty sumpter-horses and mules, and eighty baggage-carriages, which were followed by a great number of gentlemen, three in a rank, richly dressed in velvet, with large golden chains about their necks; then followed two gentlemen, each carrying a very large silver cross; next came two others, with a stately silver column each, followed by two other gentlemen, one carrying the great seal of England, and the other the cardinal's hat; after them rode a gentleman, carrying the cardinal's port-manteau of scarlet, richly embroidered, with a cloak therein; then came the cardinal, gorgeously apparelled, mounted on a stately mule, followed by a led horse, and a mule trapped with crimson velvet; then came the nobility, gentry, and clergy, followed by his and their domestics, all clothed in dark orange-coloured coats, with T. C. that is, Thomas, Cardinal, embroidered on them.

In the same year, two ambassadors extraordinary from the court of France made their public entry into London, attended by a great number of their countrymen of the first quality. Apartments were provided for them and their retinue in the bishop of London's palace; where each of them was presented by the mayor, in the name of



the corporation, with five fat oxen, twenty sheep, twelve swans, twelve cranes, twelve pheasants, four dozen of partridges, twenty loaves of sugar, eight hogsheds of wine, and all sorts of spices, fruit, &c.

Corn was at this time so scarce, that many of the poorer fort perished for want, and a general famine was apprehended. This dreadful calamity was, however, stopped in London, by a supply of a thousand quarters of corn given by the king, and by the importation of vast quantities of grain from the continent; while, by the diligence and care of the mayor and sheriffs, in preventing the bakers' carts coming from Stratford from being plundered, the Londoners were better provided, and sooner relieved from their distresses, than any other part of the nation.

In 1528 the sweating sickness broke out again with such violence as to carry off vast numbers of its victims after an illness of five or six hours; which occasioned the adjournment of the term, and prevented the annual solemnity of the marching of the city-watch; the latter, on account of its expense to the city, was afterwards forbidden by the king, and was discontinued until the 2d of Edward VI.

The following year was particularly remarkable for the proceedings on account of the divorce of Henry from queen Catharine. The collateral consequences of this divorce, were the fall of Wolsey, and the great work of the REFORMATION. See that article; and the article ENGLAND, vol. vi. p. 635-639.

The behaviour of the Londoners, who in every instance obeyed the king's pleasure, and concurred with his majesty in his measures to cast off the Romish yoke, pleased him so, that he expressed his regard and grateful affection for them by cancelling the letters patent, granted by himself to sir William Sidney, on the 18th of June, in the thirteenth year of his reign, relating to the great beam and common balance, and restoring the citizens to the tronage, or right of weights and beams, as it had been granted them by king Edward II. and king Henry IV. and had been ratified and confirmed by his own charter to the citizens, dated on the 12th of July, in the first year of his reign.

The delicate business of the divorce of Henry from Catharine having been ultimately settled by Cranmer, who, on the 28th of May, 1533, gave judgment on the marriage with Anne Boleyn, which had been privately celebrated six months before, and declared it to be good and valid;—the king ordered the lord-mayor to make all preparations necessary for conducting her from Greenwich to the Tower by water; and also that the city might be decorated on her proceeding from thence to Westminster. Thus the fantastic mind of the monarch, doting upon the present object of his unruly passion, decorated the future victim of his fickleness and cruelty with all the pageantry he was able to exact from the ever-loyal city of London. However the lord-mayor, in compliance with the royal mandate, ordered all the city companies to attend him on the 29th of May, at Billingsgate, with their barges properly decorated, and good bands of music. In consequence of this, fifty barges were prepared, and about one o'clock set off to attend the lord-mayor's barge, which was richly ornamented; with strict orders to keep at a proper distance from each other during the procession. The city-barge was covered with gold brocade and silken sails, with two rich standards of the royal arms at the head and stern; and a great variety of streamers and flags, containing the arms of the lord-mayor's company, and those of the merchant-adventurers. Before the city-barge was one mounted with ordnance, carrying figures of savages, dragons, and other creatures, vomiting out fire and smoke, and making an incessant noise. On the left of the city-barge was one representing a mount, on which stood a white falcon crowned, perched on a golden stump, encircled with red and white roses; and round the mount sat beautiful vir-

gins, singing and playing melodiously on instruments of music. After these followed all the companies' barges in their proper order; and the whole formed a most beautiful and splendid appearance. The queen was highly pleased with the magnificence of the procession; and, on her arrival at the Tower of London, she returned the mayor and citizens her sincere thanks for their pompous attendance.

On the 31st of May, being the day appointed for her majesty's procession to Westminster, she was received at the Tower-gate, by the lord-mayor in a gown of crimson velvet, and a rich collar of SS. attended by the sheriffs and two domestics in red and white damask. From the Tower to Temple-bar the streets were new gravelled, and railed on each side; within which, in Gracechurch-street, stood the company of Hanseatic merchants; and next to them the several corporations of the city, in their respective formalities, reaching to the aldermen's station at the farther end of Cheap-side. On the outside were placed the city-constables, dressed in silk and velvet, with staves in their hands to keep off the crowd and prevent disturbances. Goldsmith's Row, in Cheap-side, was hung with velvet and gold brocades; and Gracechurch-street, and Cornhill, with crimson and scarlet cloth.

Twelve of the French ambassador's servants preceded the procession; they were dressed in blue velvet, mounted on horses trapped with blue sarsnet, interspersed with white crosses; after whom marched those of the equestrian order, two and two, followed by the judges in their robes; after them the knights of the bath, in violet gowns trimmed with miniver; then the abbots, barons, bishops, earls, and marquises, in their robes, two and two; after these the lord-chancellor, the Venetian ambassador, and the archbishop of York; next, the ambassador of France and the archbishop of Canterbury, followed by two gentlemen who represented the dukes of Normandy and Aquitaine; then proceeded the lord-mayor of London, with his mace and coat of arms; then the duke of Suffolk, lord high steward, and the lord Howard as deputy-marshal of England. Next followed all the other great officers of state, in their robes, carrying the symbols of their several offices; these were followed by the nobility, in crimson velvet, and all the queen's officers in scarlet, followed by her chancellor uncovered, who immediately preceded his mistress sitting in a litter or chair covered with tissue of silver, and drawn by two beautiful pads, clothed in white damask, and led by her footmen. The charming young queen was dressed in a silver brocade, with a mantle of the same, furred with ermine: her hair hung loose, and on her head was a chaplet adorned with jewels of inestimable value. Over the litter was a canopy of cloth of gold, supported by sixteen knights alternately, four at a time, with a silver bell hanging at each corner. Her majesty's chamberlain followed next, and after him her master of the horse, leading a stately pad with a side-saddle and trappings of silver tissue; next to these came seven ladies in crimson velvet, faced with gold brocade, and mounted on beautiful horses richly trapped with gold; these were followed by two chariots covered with cloth of gold, in which were the duchess of Norfolk and marchioness of Dorset in the first, and in the second four ladies in crimson velvet; next came several ladies in the same apparel on horseback, adorned with beautiful trappings; then a third chariot all in white, carrying six ladies in crimson velvet; then a fourth all in red, in which were eight ladies in the same dress; then thirty gentlewomen, attendants on the ladies of honour, on horseback, dressed in silks and velvets; and the whole was closed by the guards, well mounted and elegantly accoutred.

On her majesty's arrival in Fenchurch-street, she stopped at a beautiful pageant, crowded with children in mercatorial habits; who, in a studied address, congratulated the queen on her happy arrival. She then proceeded to Gracechurch corner, where was erected a magnificent pageant, representing Parnassus, with the fountain of Helicon, in  
white



white marble, from which were four springs issuing out Rheneish wine, which centered in a small globe at the summit, and continued running plentifully all day; on the mount sat Apollo, and at his feet Calliope; under whom were the rest of the muses playing on musical instruments; and at their feet were inscribed, in letters of gold, epigrams adapted for the occasion. At Leadenhall was another stately pageant, representing a hillock encompassed with red and white roses; above which was a golden stump, and a little higher a tippe, with a celestial rose, from which descended a white falcon, which perched on the stump; this was soon followed by an angel in a celestial choir, who put a crown of gold upon his head. On the hillock, a little lower, sat St. Anne, surrounded by her progeny, one of whom addressed the queen in a speech, wishing her majesty blessed with a happy issue.

At the conduit in Cornhill, the Graces sat enthroned, with a fountain before them incessantly playing with wine, and underneath a poet describing their peculiar qualities, and presenting the queen with their several presents. The great conduit opposite Mercers' hall, in Cheapside, was beautifully painted with a variety of curious emblems, and which, for the entertainment of the populace, ran all day with a diversity of rich wines. The standard in Wood-street was beautifully ornamented with royal portraits, encompassed by a number of flags, on which were painted coats of arms and trophies; and above was a fine concert of music, both vocal and instrumental. When her majesty arrived at the aldermen's station, near the little conduit, at the upper end of Cheapside, John Baker, the recorder, after addressing her with an elegant speech, presented her, in the name of the citizens, with a purse of gold tissue, containing one thousand marks, which her majesty gratefully received. On the little conduit, in a rich pageant, were seated Pallas, Juno, and Venus; before whom stood Mercury, who, in their names, presented the queen with a golden ball trebly divided, representing the three gifts of wisdom, riches, and felicity. At the gate of St. Paul's a stately pageant presented itself, in which three ladies, sumptuously dressed, with chaplets on their heads, exhibited various inscriptions adapted for the occasion. As her majesty passed St. Paul's school, she was highly entertained with verses made by the scholars in praise of herself and the king.

The prison of Ludgate was beautifully ornamented, and on the top were men and boys singing a concert during the procession. A handsome tower, with four turrets, was erected at the end of Shoe-lane, Fleet-street; in each turret stood a cardinal virtue, with its symbols; these, addressing themselves to the queen, promised never to forsake her, but be always her constant attendants. The conduit ran the whole time with variety of wines, and in the tower was a fine concert of music. At Temple-bar her majesty was again entertained with songs in concert by men and boys; and, proceeding from thence to Westminster, she there dismissed the lord-mayor, returning him her sincere and hearty thanks for his good offices, and those of the citizens, on this occasion.

The following day being appointed for her majesty's coronation, the lord-mayor, dressed in crimson velvet, with his collar of SS, attended by the aldermen and sheriffs in scarlet, repaired to Westminster, where they performed their several offices belonging to that ceremony; and, on the Wednesday following, the king sent for the mayor and aldermen to Westminster, who attending accordingly, his majesty returned them thanks for their good services both to himself and the queen.

A short time before this, a grand entertainment was given at Ely House, by eleven gentlemen of the law, on their promotion to the dignity of the coat. The guests were the king, the foreign ministers, the pages, master of the rolls, masters in chancery, and sergeants at law; the lord-mayor, aldermen, sheriffs, livery-men, and principal merchants; and the entertainments lasted for four days. A part of

the bill of fare, which is preserved, will show the disparity between the prices of provisions at that period and at this time; it is as follows:

	l.	s.	d.
Twenty-four large oxen, each at	-	-	8
The carcass of a large ox	-	1	6
One hundred sheep, each at	-	0	2
Fifty-one calves, each at	-	0	4
Thirty-four hogs, each at	-	0	3
Ninety-one pigs, each at	-	0	6
Ten dozen capons of Greece, each at	-	0	1
Nine dozen and a half of Kentish capons, at	-	0	1
Nineteen dozen of common capons, at	-	0	6
Seven doz. and nine of grose, or heath-cocks, at	0	0	3
Fourteen doz. and eight common cocks, at	0	0	3
The best pullets, at	-	-	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Common ditto, at	-	-	2
Thirty-seven dozen of pigeons, per dozen	-	0	10
Three hundred and forty doz. of larks, per doz.	0	0	5

By an act of the twenty-fourth of Henry VIII. cap. 5. beef, pork, mutton, and veal, were first directed to be sold by weight; no person to take above one halfpenny for a pound of beef or pork, nor above three farthings for mutton or veal. On this occasion, James Howell, in his Londonopolis, remarks, that the number of butchers in London and its suburbs, did not then exceed eighty, each of whom killed nine oxen weekly. But this law was afterwards repealed, and the regulation of the prices referred to a committee of the privy-council.

About this time Mr. Tindall and others translated and published the New Testament in the English tongue; but Stokesley, bishop of London, procured as many copies of it as he could, and caused them to be burnt at St. Paul's cross. One Pavier, town-clerk of London, destroyed himself about this time, according to Hollinghed, who affirms that he had heard him say "with a great oath," that rather than live to see the Scripture set forth in English, he would cut his own throat.

In or about the years 1511 and 1512, to 1534, the trade of London began to extend itself towards the south and the east in the Mediterranean Sea; for Hakluyt tells us of "tall ships that had then an usual trade to Sicily, Candia, and Chios; and sometimes to Cyprus, to Tripoli, and Baruth in Syria." They exported sundry sorts of woollen cloths, calf-skins, &c. and imported silks, camblets, and rhubarb; malmsey, muscadell, and other wines; oils, cotton-wool, Turkey carpets, galls, and India spices; yet, in those days, they were generally twelve months in those voyages, as were two ships going this year from London to Candia and Chios; which voyage was found so hazardous and dangerous, that one of these ships was put into Blackwall-dock, and never more went to sea. In the next year a ship of three hundred tons, with one hundred persons on-board, went from London on the same Levant voyage, and returned in eleven months, having settled factors in those places.

In 1537, coals were sold at Newcastle at two shillings and two-pence per chaldron; "wherefore," says Maitland, "I imagine that they were then sold in this city at about four shillings."

At this time also, several religious establishments were suppressed, preparatory to the general dissolution of monasteries. The black, white, and grey, friars, and the Charter-house monks, underwent the same fate.

About the year 1539, the stews, which had been hitherto licensed on the Bank-side, in Southwark, were put down by the king's proclamation and sound of trumpet.

On the arrival of Anne of Cleves, Henry's fourth bride, she was met on Blackheath, on the 3d of January, 1540, by the Hanseatic merchants, and those of Genoa, Florence, Venice, and Spain, resident in the city of London, together with a number of the principal citizens, common-councilmen, and aldermen, to the number of one hundred and sixty, richly dressed in velvet, with chains of gold, and



and mounted on stately horses, and accompanied by the king, divers foreign princes, the nobility, and the lord-mayor, was conducted in great magnificence to the royal palace at Greenwich. The marriage was solemnized on Twelfth-day; and on the 4th of February, being the day appointed for their majesties' removal to Westminster, the lord-mayor and aldermen, in the city-*barge*, attended by the twelve principal companies, in their respective barges, most pompously equipped, repaired to Greenwich, whence they conducted the king and queen by water to Westminster.

The metropolis was at this period the unfortunate witness of the wanton cruelties committed by Henry in his unruly, fickle, and ferocious, humour; for several of the squares and streets of London reverberated the flames kindled to devour promiscuously papists and protestants, the victims of his infernal passion.—*Tros rutulysve fuat, nullo discrimine habetur.*—Dr. Barnes, who had made a figure in an embassy to the German princes; Thomas Gerard, a reforming minister; and William Jerome, vicar of Stepney, who had been, unheard, attainted of heresy by the parliament; were now condemned to the stake; but, when they came there, neither they nor the sheriff knew for what they suffered. Along with them Gregory Buttolph, Adam Damplip, and Clement Philpot, (all papists,) were hanged, drawn, and quartered, for denying the king's supremacy. To increase the absurdity of this indiscriminate cruelty, they were drawn to the place of execution on three hurdles, a catholic and a protestant on each. This horrid scene caused a foreigner, who was a spectator of it, to exclaim; "Good God! how unhappy are the people of this country, who are hanged for being papists, or burnt for being enemies to popery."

In the year 1541 also, much blood was shed on the scaffold, and many persons of different ranks were executed. The most illustrious of these victims was the aged countess of Salisbury, the last of the royal race of the Plantagenets. This venerable matron had been attainted by parliament in 1539, and had been kept in prison from that time. Without regard to her sex, her age, or her royal descent, she was brought to a scaffold in the Tower, on the 27th of May, to be beheaded, where, though in her seventieth year, she behaved with wonderful spirit and magnanimity. When desired to lay her head upon the block she obstinately refused, saying, "I am no traitor; I have done nothing to deserve death; if you will have my head," shaking her grey locks, "you must get it as well as you can." In consequence of this, she was rather butchered than beheaded. *Herbert.*

But let us draw a veil over these scenes of blood, and seek in the pages of the history of our metropolis for some more pleasing subjects.—The improvements made in the city, at this time, were very considerable, and most conducive to the comforts and happiness of the Londoners. Robert Brocke, chaplain to the king, invented a method of making leaden pipes for conveying water more easily and less expensively, under ground, without using solder. Robert Cooper, a goldsmith of London, was the first who made them, and put the invention in practice. An act of parliament was passed in this year for paving the following streets in London; viz. the street leading from Aldgate to Whitechapel-church; the upper part of Chancery-lane; the way leading from Holborn-bars, westward, towards St. Giles's in the Fields, as far as any habitation was on both sides of the said street; Gray's-inn-lane, Shoe-lane, and Fetter's-lane, now Fetter-lane; the two last being thorough-fares and passages from Fleet-street into Holborn.

On the 12th of February, 1542, Catharine Howard, king Henry's fifth wife, and her confidante lady Jane Rochford, were beheaded on a scaffold, erected within the Tower of London. This new act of cruelty seemed to have called down the vengeance of the Almighty upon earth; for we find that about this time the price of meat was so considerably increased by a great mortality among

the cattle, that the mayor and common-council made a sumptuary law to restrain luxurious feasting, wherein it was ordained, that the lord-mayor should not have more than seven dishes at dinner or supper; the aldermen and sheriffs were limited to six, the sword-bearer to four, and the lord-mayor's and sheriff's officers to three; upon penalty of forty shillings for every supernumerary dish. It was likewise enacted, that neither the lord-mayor, aldermen, nor sheriffs, should buy cranes, swans, or bustards, after the ensuing Easter, under the penalty of forty shillings for every bird so bought; but the purchaser was at liberty to clear himself by his own oath.

Considering these laws with attention, it occurs to our mind, that the manner of private living at those times must have been very different from what is the case at this moment; for, except in some particular instances, two dishes often constitute the bill of fare of the best tables in the city, when no company is either invited or expected; a dish of fish and a piece of boiled or roasted meat make the whole of the dinner; as to pies and puddings, it is not to be supposed that they were understood or included in the tenor of the law. The French, who are fond of many dishes, seem to have been at that time the model for furnishing English tables; but, since we have returned to our ancient simplicity in that particular, we have certainly improved our moral and corporal strength; yet we do not mean to set up the citizens of London as examples of Lacedemonian self-denial. As to the clause about swans, cranes, and bustards, this law became obsolete as soon as the refined palate of our ancestors rejected the coarseness of those fowls, and adopted the use of more delicate food.

The improvements about the paving of the streets of London, and the regulations concerning them, were at this period in great vigour; and, to what we have noticed before, may be added, that it was ordained by an act of parliament, that the lord-mayor, aldermen, &c. of London, "shall have power to inquire into, hear, and determine, the defaults of paving and reparation of streets; and that any three justices in London, whereof the mayor to be one, may set fines upon such as do not pave and repair any street or lane in London, or the liberties thereof, to be levied by distress or action, &c. by the chamberlain, to the use of the mayor and commonalty of the said city." And it was further enacted, "That the conduits of London should be made and repaired, for the better watering of the city and its liberties; and that the mayor and citizens should have power to bring water to the said conduits from Hampstead-heath, Marybone, Hackney, and Muswell-hill, upon their indemnifying the owners of lands for damages that might be done by the said water-courses, &c."

The plague raged so violently in London during this year, that a great number of the citizens fell victims to it, and the term was adjourned to St. Alban's.

Sir John Allen, who had served the office of lord-mayor in 1535, and was honoured with the rank of a privy-counsellor, died this year. By his will he gave a rich collar of gold to be worn by future lord-mayors, and five hundred marks to be a stock for sea-coal; he also directed the rents of his lands, purchased of the king, to be distributed yearly to the poor in each ward for ever; besides many other liberal benefactions to the prisons, hospitals, leazar-houses, and the poor of other parts within two miles of the city. He was buried in a chapel belonging to St. Thomas of Acres, which he had built.

In the year 1545, the twelve city-companies advanced the king 21,263l. 6s. 8d. upon a mortgage of crown-lands, towards the charges of his war with Scotland. This, however, being found insufficient, his majesty afterwards sent commissioners into the city to assess the Londoners, in an arbitrary manner, by way of *benevolence*. Alderman Richard Read not only objected to this illegal proceeding, but positively refused to pay the sum demanded of him; for which Henry, whose tyrannical spirit would en-



sure no opposition, enrolled him as a foot-soldier, and sent him to Scotland with the army, where he was taken prisoner; and, after undergoing very severe hardships, was obliged to pay a considerable sum for his liberty.

The following anecdote, being not unlike several supposed facts which we have heard of in the last and present centuries, will be acceptable to our readers; to those who are fond of the marvellous, as well as to the suspending mind that seldom believes until conviction puts her seal upon the deed. Stow says; "In the year 1546, the 27th of April, being Tuesday in Easter-week, W. Foxley, pot-maker for the Mint in the Tower of London, fell asleep, and so continued sleeping, and could not be awakened with pricking, cramping, or otherwise burning whatsoever, till the first day of the next term, which was full fourteen days and fifteen nights, for that Easter-term beginneth not afore seventeen days after Easter. The cause of his thus sleeping could not be known, though the fame were diligently searched for by the king's physicians and other learned men; yea, the king himself examined the said W. Foxley, who was in all points found at his wakening to be as if he had slept but one night; and he lived more than forty years after in the said Tower, to wit, until the year of Christ 1587, and then deceased on Wednesday in Easter-week."

Edward VI. succeeded to the crown, by the demise of his father, in the 9th year of his age. The first act of his power was exercised in knighting the mayor of London; for, on the 6th of February, 1557, the lord-protector, the duke of Somerset, having knighted the young monarch in the presence of the lord-mayor and many other lords and gentlemen; immediately after, the king, standing under his canopy of state, took the sword from the lord-protector, and conferred the honour of knighthood on Henry Hoblethorn, the lord-mayor.

In this year, according to Howell, in his *Londinopolis*, the price of Malmsey wine, the only sweet wine then imported, and that by the Lombards alone, was but three halfpence the pint; for which he quotes the church-wardens' accounts of St. Andrew Underhaft, from which it appears that they had "paid ten shillings for eighty pints of Malmsey, spent in the church."

Some regulations about labourers were found necessary at this time; and, as they were peculiarly calculated to keep peace and order in the metropolis, we must find place for them here. The combinations and conspiracies which were daily concerted by the journeymen and other workmen, being found very detrimental to trade, the parliament, among other things, enacted, "that, if any artificers, workmen, or labourers, do conspire, covenant, or promise together, that they shall not make or do their work but at a certain price or rate, or shall not enterprise or take upon them to finish that work which another hath begun, or shall do but a certain work in a day, or shall not work but at certain hours or times;—that then every person so conspiring, covenanting, or offending, being thereof convicted by witnesses, confession, or otherwise, shall forfeit, for the first offence, ten pounds, or have twenty days imprisonment; for the second offence, twenty pounds, or pillory; and for a third offence, forty pounds, or to sit on the pillory, and have one ear cut off, besides being rendered infamous, and incapable of giving evidence upon oath." In this act are included butchers, bakers, brewers, poulterers, cooks, &c. And all justices of the peace, mayors, bailiffs, &c. in their sessions, leets, and courts, have full power and authority to inquire, hear, and determine, all and singular the offences against this statute, and to cause offenders to be punished.

In the year 1548, the march of the city-watch, which had been discontinued by command of king Henry VIII. was revived by sir John Gresham, the mayor. The procession received an additional splendour from three hundred light horsemen, which had been raised by the citizens for the service of the king.

On St. Peter's day, Gardiner bishop of Winchester, a

zealous catholic, preached before the king, at Whitehall. He had been warned not to speak on controversial subjects, and the answer he gave was moderate and satisfactory; but, when in the pulpit, he forgot his promises, and warmly supported the real presence in the sacrament. The effect of this ill-judged conduct was grossly indecent. Each party, although in the church, and before the king, cried out aloud, and with vehemence, to support or to insult the preacher; and, on his leaving the pulpit, the impolite orator was taken to prison.

London was again visited by the plague in the month of July of this year, which carried off a great number of its inhabitants.

From Strype's Ecclesiastical Memorials, we learn, that, in this year, wheat sold at six shillings and eight pence per quarter; barley, malt, and rye, at five shillings; and pease and beans, at four shillings. And, by an act of parliament for regulating the purveyors of the king's household, the rate of post-horses was fixed at one penny per mile. House-rents must have been very low at this time; for archbishop Nicholson, in his Historical Library, says, "a house, in the very precincts of king Edward VI's court, in Chancel-row, Westminster, was let to no less a person than the comptroller of that king's household, for the yearly rent of thirty shillings." At a time like the present, when the above articles are so extravagantly advanced in price, owing to various circumstances, the reader will find amusement and interest in the foregoing account, by comparing the causes and the effects in the impartial balance of his judgment.

In the year 1550, the Thames at London-bridge was observed to ebb and flow three times within nine hours, occasioned by a strong easterly wind repelling the ebb before it could perform its natural course.

In this year a captain Bodenham made a trading voyage from London to the isles of Candia and Chios, in the Levant, from whence he loaded home with wines, &c. and returned in the following year.

The first parliament in Edward's reign having given all the lands and possessions of colleges, chantries, &c. to the king, the different companies of London redeemed those which they had held for the payment of priests' wages, obits, and lights, at the price of twenty thousand pounds, and applied the rents arising from them to charitable purposes.

The butchers of London having greatly enhanced the price of meat, owing to a combination between the graziers and fawsmen, the king and council, to restrain the like imposition for the future, fixed the prices of cattle sold in the different seasons, in the following manner:

<i>From Midsummer to Michaelmas.</i>		<i>l.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
The best fat ox, to be sold at	- - -	2	5	0
The best steers and runts	- - -	1	5	0
The best heifers and kine	- - -	1	2	0

<i>From Hollowmas to Christmas.</i>		<i>l.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
The best fat ox	- - -	2	6	8
The best steers and runts	- - -	1	6	8
The best heifers and kine	- - -	1	3	0

<i>From Christmas to Shrovetide.</i>		<i>l.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
The best fat ox	- - -	2	8	4
The best steers and runts	- - -	1	8	4

<i>From Shearing-time to Michaelmas.</i>		<i>l.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
The best fat wether at	- - -	0	4	4
If shorn	- - -	0	3	0
The best fat ewe	- - -	0	2	6
If shorn	- - -	0	2	0

<i>From Michaelmas to Shrovetide.</i>		<i>l.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
The best fat wether	- - -	0	4	4
If shorn	- - -	0	3	0

A great dearth happening the same year, the following prices of provisions were also fixed by the king and council:

	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
White wheat, the quarter, at	13	0
Red		



	s.	d.
Red ditto	11	0
All other sorts of ditto	8	0
The best malt, the quarter	10	0
Second sort ditto	8	0
The best barley, the quarter	9	0
Second sort	7	0
The best rye, the quarter	7	0
Second sort	6	0
The best beans and pease, the quarter	5	0
Second sort ditto	3	0
Oats, the quarter	4	0
The best sweet butter, the pound, at	0	1
Essex barrelled butter, the pound	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
All sorts of other barrelled butter	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
Essex cheese, the pound, at	0	0 $\frac{3}{4}$
All other sorts of ditto	0	0 $\frac{1}{2}$

On St. Barnaby's day, according to Howes's Chronicle, the high altar at St. Paul's church was pulled down, and a table placed where the altar stood, with a veil drawn beneath, and steps; and, on the next Sunday, a communion was sung at the same table; and, shortly after, all the altars in London were taken down, and tables placed in their room.

In 1551, the sweating sickness broke out again in London, and carried off a great number of people: "Eight hundred," says the above chronicler, "died in the first week: seven honest householders did sup together; and, before eight of the clock in the next morning, six of them were dead!"

The citizens of London having purchased of the king the manor of Southwark, with all its appurtenances, they became possessed of an hospital dedicated to St. Thomas the Apostle; which being greatly decayed, they repaired and enlarged the same at a considerable expence, for the reception of poor, sick, and helpless, objects. King Edward VI. also, but a short time before his death, founded Christ's Hospital in the Grey-Friars convent, for the relief and education of young and helpless children; and incorporated the governors by the title of "The mayor, commonalty, and citizens, of the city of London, governors of the possessions, revenues, and goods, of the hospitals of Edward VI. king of England, &c." He also gave the old palace of Bridewell to the city for the lodging of poor way-faring people, the correction of vagabonds and disorderly persons, and for finding them work.

The city having appointed Christ's hospital for the education of poor children, and St. Thomas's in Southwark for the maimed and diseased, the king formed these charitable foundations into a corporation; as appears by a charter granted for that purpose, wherein it is declared as follows: "And, that our intention may take the better effect, and that the lands, revenues, and other things, granted for the support of the said hospitals, houses, and poor people, may be the better governed, for the establishment of the same, We do will and ordain, that the hospitals aforesaid, when they shall be so founded, erected, and established, shall be named, called, and stiled, The Hospitals of Edward VI. of England, of Christ, Bridewell, and St. Thomas the Apostle; and that the aforesaid mayor, commonalty, and citizens, of London, and their successors, shall be stiled, the governors of the said hospitals of Bridewell, Christ, and St. Thomas the Apostle; and that the same governors, in deed, and in fact, and in name, shall be hereafter one body corporate and politic of themselves for ever. And we will that the same governors shall have perpetual succession."

On the sixth of July, 1553, Edward VI. died at Greenwich, and was buried in the chapel of his grandfather, at Westminster, with great funeral pomp, and the unfeigned mournings of an affectionate people. On the third of August following, queen Mary made her public entry into London, preceded by the lord-mayor in a crimson velvet gown, carrying a golden sceptre in his hand. A stage was erected without Aldgate, on which stood the

poor children of Christ's hospital, one of whom made an oration. On the last day of that month, the queen rode in great state from the Tower to Westminster; on which occasion many stately pageants were erected, the conduits ran with wine, and she was every where received with such respect by the citizens, that, on her alighting at Whitehall, she gave the lord-mayor her thanks. On the following day, she was crowned with the greatest magnificence; the lord-mayor, assisted by twelve of the citizens, officiating as chief butler; for which service the mayor received a gold cup and cover, weighing seventeen ounces, for his fee.

Nearly the whole of this reign exhibited the most disgusting scenes of persecution. The queen often promised toleration, and continually revoked her promises, or paralyzed them with such *provisos* as to distort entirely the intended effect.

The proposed marriage between Mary and Philip of Spain was announced to the council in the beginning of the year 1554; and, the very day after, the lord-mayor and aldermen were sent for to attend the court, and to bring with them forty of the principal commoners, to whom the lord-chancellor declared the queen's intention, requiring them to behave like good subjects on the occasion. Such was even then the high importance of the city of London, and of its magistrates, such their influence upon the mind of the rest of the nation, that the marriage of the queen was solemnly communicated to them, as if their approbation or disapprobation must be expected to have a sensible effect upon that of the nation in general.

The rebellion of sir Thomas Wyatt found the city in a strong attitude of defence. The citizens not only placed a considerable guard at every one of the gates, but raised five hundred men to march against Wyatt; this they did with such expedition, that, in two days after, they were sent down to Gravesend under the command of Alexander Bret, an experienced officer; where they were joined by the duke of Norfolk, and with him marched to Rochester, at which place Wyatt was, and had fortified the bridge. He and his men were offered a general pardon on their submission; but, this not being complied with, the duke advanced to attack him. On which captain Bret, who commanded the Londoners, drew his sword, and addressed them in the following words: "Gentlemen, nothing can be more barbarous and unjust than for us to fight against our friends and countrymen; especially considering that they are engaged in defence of the rights and liberties of our dear country, in opposition to the proud and imperious Spaniards, from whom, if the intended match succeeds, we can expect no other than to become their slaves. Therefore, as that worthy patriot, sir Thomas Wyatt, has laudably undertaken to protect and prevent us from being imposed upon by those lordly foreigners, I am humbly of opinion, that, instead of opposing, we ought, in duty to our country, to join him, for the more early obtaining so salutary an end." The Londoners were so highly pleased with this speech, that they not only cried out, A Wyatt, a Wyatt! but effectually turned their ordnance against the queen's forces, insomuch that they were obliged to retreat so precipitately as to leave their ammunition and cannon to be a prey to Wyatt, who marched the next day to Deptford, in his way to London. The citizens were so alarmed on this near approach, and the court thrown into such confusion, that even the judges and counsellors sat and pleaded in armour.

In this state of affairs, her majesty repaired to Guildhall, attended by the mayor, aldermen, and sheriffs, where she harangued them in a long and soothing speech, in which she accused Wyatt and his adherents of seeking nothing less than the total subversion of all good government. She insisted on her right to the crown, and declared she was wedded to the realm and to the laws of the country, which she loved as affectionately as a mother doth her children. She said she had no desire to marry any man, much less a prince who might hereafter be detrimental to the welfare



of her subjects. That, notwithstanding a match had been proposed, by her council, with the king of Spain, yet she was determined not to listen thereto without the concurrence of the parliament; and concluded with exhorting them to stand fast against these rebels. She knew that Wyatt had many friends in London; and therefore put the care of the city into the hands of the mayor and lord Howard.

On the 3d day of February, Wyatt and his army arrived in Southwark, when he was joyfully received, and supplied with all necessaries for his men. His intentions were to march into the city; but these were frustrated by the gates being shut, and the drawbridge cut down. He then marched to Kingston in order to pass the river, that he might attack them on the land-side; but the bridge was broken, and the opposite shore guarded by two hundred men. These he soon drove away with his ordnance; and ordered some sailors, who were under his command, to wade the river, and bring the barges that were moored on the other side; with which he so expeditiously repaired the bridge, that he was able to pass his army over it the night after. Having had the promise of his friends in London to join him, and to admit him into the city at a certain hour, he continued his march, with an intention to reach Whitehall the next morning by break of day. This scheme was rendered abortive by the carriage of one of his guns breaking at Turnham-green, where he was obliged to halt. The time he stopped there proved his destruction; for he lost the opportunity of joining his friends in London, who had promised to admit him into the city. This disappointment occasioned Harper, who had been very instrumental in bringing over Bret and his Londoners, to desert him; after which he discovered the whole design of Wyatt to the court. The example set by Harper was followed by many others; inasmuch that, in a few hours, he found himself forsaken by near one half of his army. Notwithstanding this, he continued his march, and, with the remains of his forces, arrived at St. James's. He there mounted his artillery on an eminence, and, having detached two companies, under the command of Cudbert Vaughan, to Westminster, left the principal part of his army with the artillery, and, at the head of five companies only, hastened away for London. At Charing-cross, he was attacked by sir John Gage, with a superior force; whom he not only repulsed, but obliged him to take shelter in the palace of Whitehall, where he left him, and continued his march towards the city. In his way thither, the earl of Pembroke, with his cavalry, harassed his rear, and cut off several of his men; and, when he arrived at Ludgate, instead of the easy entrance he expected, he found the gate shut, and lord Howard, who commanded within, scoffed at and reproached him. Thus circumstanced, and surrounded by enemies, who continued to assemble from every quarter, he attempted to retreat; but Pembroke's horse intercepted his return to Temple-bar. His men would have fought their way; but at that instant Clarenceux king at arms arrived from the queen with a promise of pardon for him and his men, if they would lay down their arms. Trusting to this, he surrendered to sir Maurice Berkeley; but the promised mercy was withheld, and Wyatt was shortly after executed on Tower-hill; his head was stuck upon the gallows at Hay-hill, near Hyde-park, and his quarters hung up in different parts of the city. A dreadful scene of persecution followed the suppression of this revolt; much blood was shed upon the scaffold; and so determined were the queen and her advisers that none of their victims should escape, that the jurors on the trial of sir Nicholas Throckmorton, who was tried at Guildhall, on the 17th of April, having acquitted the prisoner, they were commanded to appear before the council, and fined five hundred pounds each. For other victims, in consequence of this insurrection, see the article ENGLAND, vol. vi. p. 647.

The sumptuous and extravagant manner of living of the city-magistrates had gradually risen to such a height,

that many of the principal citizens retired from the city, rather than incur the enormous expense of serving the city-offices. To remedy this growing evil, an act of common-council was passed in this year, whereby it was enacted, That thenceforth the mayor should have but one course, either at dinner or supper; and that, on a festival, being a flesh-day, to consist of no more than seven dishes, whether hot or cold; and on every festival, being a fish-day, eight dishes; and on every common flesh-day, six dishes; and on every common day, seven dishes, exclusive of brawn, collops with eggs, fallads, pottage, butter, cheese, eggs, herrings, sprats, shrimps, and all sorts of shell-fish and fruits.—That the aldermen and sheriffs should have one dish less than the above-mentioned; and all the city-companies, at their several entertainments, to have the same number of dishes as the aldermen and sheriffs; but with this restriction, to have neither swan, crane, nor buffard, upon the penalty of 40s.—That all the sergeants and officers belonging to the mayor or sheriffs, on flesh-days to have three, or fish-days four, dishes. But, when any foreign ministers or privy-counsellors are invited to any of the city-entertainments, then the regulations or additions to be left to the discretion of the mayor; provided always, that no other entertainment be given after dinner, except ipocras and wafers. And the annual feasts, on the three days after Whitsunday and Bartholomew-tide, were entirely laid aside. It was also enacted, in consideration of the great annual expense of the mayor and sheriffs, in providing a sumptuous entertainment at Guildhall, on lord-mayor's days, for the honour of the city, that every subsequent mayor should be paid one hundred pounds, out of the chamber of the city, in alleviation of that charge.

The year 1557 was remarkable for glass having been first manufactured in London. The finest sort was made in the place called Crutched-friars; and the fine flint glass, little inferior to that of Venice, in the Savoy-house, in the Strand.

This was a year both of dearth and of plenty. Before harvest, wheat was sold at 2l. 13s. 4d. the quarter, malt at 2l. 4s. beans and rye 2l. and pease 2l. 6s. 8d. the quarter; but after harvest, wheat was sold at 5s. malt at 6s. 8d. and rye at 3s. 4d. the quarter; "so that," says Howes, "the penny wheat-loaf, that weighed in London, the last year, but eleven ounces troy, weighed now fifty-six ounces troy, according to the assize set down by the mayor at the time."

Mary died, unregretted, on the 17th of November, 1558; and the city of London expressed their joy at the accession of queen Elizabeth in a most loyal manner.—She was, at the time of her sister's death, at Hatfield in Hertfordshire, from whence she repaired the next day to London, and was met at Highgate by the lord-mayor, aldermen, and sheriffs, who, with great pomp and the acclamations of a large multitude, conducted her majesty to the Tower of London. On the 14th of January, 1559, the queen rode in grand procession through the city of London to Westminster. At the west end of Cheapside, the recorder addressed her majesty in an affectionate speech, and at the same time presented her, in the name of the citizens, with a velvet purse, richly embroidered, containing a thousand marks of gold. Her majesty thanked the citizens for this token of their affection, promised to continue their good and gracious sovereign, and that she would not hesitate to shed her blood for their protection. But nothing endeared their new sovereign more to them than her acceptance of an English Bible, richly gilt; which was let down from a pageant in Cheapside, by a child representing Truth. The queen received the book with both her hands, and, having kissed it, laid it to her breast, and assured the city, that she esteemed that gift more than all the sumptuous presents they had made her. The next day she was crowned in Westminster Abbey.

The new queen resumed the work of reformation which had been begun by her father, and supported by her brother Edward. On the first Sunday after her accession, by  
virtue



virtue of a proclamation for that purpose, the English Liturgy was read in all churches throughout the city of London; and the Epistle and Gospel for the day were read in the English tongue. The citizens encouraged her majesty to persevere in this great work, by exhibiting a specimen of the strength and forces they could raise in a case of emergency; for, on the 2d of July, the twelve principal corporations of London sent out twelve companies, consisting of fourteen hundred men, to be mustered in Greenwich-park before the queen; eight hundred of whom were pikemen in bright armour, four hundred harquebushiers, in coats of mail and helmets, and two hundred halberdiers, in German rivets; these were accompanied by twenty-eight whiffers (drums and fifes,) richly dressed, and led by the twelve principal wardens of the aforesaid companies, well mounted and dressed in black velvet, with six ensigns in white fatten, furred with black farfnet, and rich scarves.

This year died sir William Hewet, the lord-mayor, who was a cloth-worker, and possessed of 6000*l.* per annum. He had three sons and one daughter. The following remarkable story of his daughter is represented in a painting, carefully preserved in the family of the duke of Leeds. Sir William, her father, lived at this time on London-bridge; and, as the maid-servant was diverting the infant on the edge of an open window, it accidentally slipped out of her hands, and fell into the Thames. An apprentice of sir William's, whose name was Osborne, and one of the ancestors, in a direct line, of the present duke of Leeds, seeing the child drop, immediately jumped out of the shop-window into the river, and, to the great joy of its parents, brought it out unhurt. When she arrived at the age of maturity, she had many suitors, among whom was the earl of Shrewsbury; but sir William, her father, rejected all their proposals, and gratefully betrothed her, with a very large fortune, to him who had saved her life at the risk of his own; declaring that, "as Osborne did save her, Osborne should have her."

On the 4th of June, 1561, the metropolis was visited by a most dreadful storm. An immense quantity of rain fell in torrents, and deluged the streets; incessant claps of thunder rent the clouds; and St. Paul's steeple was struck by a thunderbolt, within a yard of the top; at first a little fire appeared, resembling the light of a torch, which soon communicated itself to the weather-cock, that it fell down in eight minutes after; the wind being high, within an hour the fire destroyed the whole steeple down to the battlements; there, receiving the timber that fell from the spire, it burnt so violently, that the iron and bells were melted, and fell down upon the stairs in the church; and the roof, catching fire, was entirely destroyed before twelve o'clock at night. To stop its progress, many houses were pulled down in the church-yard, near the north door; and a pinnacle, on the east-end, fell on a house, in which were many people, but luckily no one received any hurt.

When we compare our own times with those which are long gone by, we have abundant cause to be thankful to Providence, that that most destroying monster, the *plague*, has not visited us for many years. Although we are far, very far, from denying our warmest thanks to God for sparing us in his mercy, yet we must acknowledge that the several regulations relative to cleanliness, under the direction of the lord-mayor and common-council, whose attention is particularly directed to this economical part of the city, have kept aloof the contagion, and saved the people from its destructive fangs. In the year 1563, the plague again broke out violently in London; and, on the 5th of July, the lord-mayor, by her majesty's command, ordered the master and wardens of the Company of Clerks to inquire the number of those who died of this dreadful distemper within their respective parishes, and to make a certificate thereof; and that the curates and churchwardens should give notice to them of such houses where the plague appeared, and forbid every person in such a house

coming to church for the space of one month following after the plague had been in it; and to fix a blue cross on the door of every house where the plague was, with a writing underneath, signifying that the infection was there, and to avoid it. It was farther ordered, on the 9th of July, that every housekeeper, in each street or lane, should make a bonfire three times a-week, on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays, till the infection should cease. In the beginning of August the lord-mayor issued a proclamation for killing all dogs that should be found in the streets, either by night or day. The number of people that died in this year in the hundred and eight parishes within the city of London, was 20,372; whereof 17,404 died of the plague; and in the eleven out-parishes the whole number of deaths amounted to 3288; and of these, 2732 died of the plague.

Some authors are of opinion, that knives began to be made in London for the first time about this period; (see *KNIFE*, vol. xi. p. 784.) But, in opposition to that statement, others recollect, that Chaucer in his "Reve's Tale," written near two hundred years before, makes use of the following line: "A Sheffield whittle bare he in his hose;" and, interpreting the word *whittle*, a knife, contend that, in his time, Sheffield was already known for its manufactory of hardware. It seems also, that the dawn of the useful trade of auctioneering, which is at this moment so much disputed upon, began to rise upon the commercial horizon, and that an out-crier was appointed to proclaim through the city, household-goods, leases of houses, &c. and that for his trouble he was to receive one farthing in the pound.

Ever fond of shows and pageants, the citizens of the metropolis were eager to renew the famous show called the *WATCH* on St. Peter's eve; the origin of which cannot easily be traced, unless it was instituted in commemoration of the deliverance of this apostle from prison by an angel; the watch and guards being then asleep; in order to show that those to whom the guardianship and custody of London had been entrusted, did not prove "such drowly and lazy folks." However, it appears that in this year "it did only stand in the highest streets, as Cheape, Cornhill, and so forth to Algate; which watch was, to the commons of the citie, as chargeable, as when, in times past, it had bene commendable done;" from which we may conclude that the expense was the same as "in past times," but the pageantry not so pompous and amusing.

The year following, on New-year's day, the Thames was frozen, and crowded with more foot-passengers than the most public streets of London on a fine summer's day. Several instances, and more frequent than of late years, have been recorded of our noble river being chained by the icy hand of winter. Whether it is owing to an alteration in the atmosphere of our island, or some other cause, it is not our province at this moment to discuss.

The year of our Lord 1566 ushered in the dawn of commerce and learning in the metropolis, with increased brightness, by the laudable foundations of sir Thomas Gresham. He was an opulent merchant of London, (see the article *GRESHAM*;) and erected at his own expense a commodious building for merchants to meet for the purpose of transacting business, which is called to this day the Royal Exchange; but originally was denominated *The Burse*, from the French *bourse*, meaning a *purse*, in allusion to the business done in a place to which traders of all nations resort, to make the best use they can of the contents of their respective *purses*, now converted into pocket-books, or note-cases. Thus far the benevolent citizen had employed his thoughts and pecuniary power in making his fellow-merchants comfortable, and in procuring a suitable spot for their speculative conversations. His patriotic mind went farther: he planned, and provided for by his will, a college of sciences, in which (as will be seen under his life, vol. ix. p. 19.) the university of Cambridge feared a future rival. See also the article *COLLEGE*, vol. iv. p. 776. We may just observe, that, had this



this old foundation been properly encouraged, and kept up, it might have obviated the necessity of creating new institutions, which, being grounded upon no other basis than the temporary effect of fashionable subscriptions, may become, in time, more expensive and less effective than keeping up the old system might have been.

Now Fortune began to shake the morrice-bells of Folly over the heads of the metropolitans, and introduced that pernicious sort of madness which has been for many centuries the making of a few, and the ruin of thousands; we mean the **LOTTERY**, that enticing fairy, who, in her magic glass, shows comfort to the poor, increase of wealth to the rich, and hope of gain to all; whilst Chance, though blindfolded, laughs at all the votaries.—The drawing of the first lottery mentioned in English history began on the 11th of January, 1569, at the west door of St. Paul's, and continued day and night, without intermission, till the 6th of May. The number of *lots*, or tickets, was forty thousand; the prizes were of plate, and the profits were appropriated to the repair of the havens of the kingdom. See the article **LOTTERY**.

An order of common-council was made in this year, for the beadles belonging to the hospitals to take up all sturdy beggars and vagrants, and to carry them to Bride-well; all sick, lame, blind, and aged, to be carried to St. Bartholomew's, or St. Thomas's; and all children-beggars, under the age of sixteen, to Christ's Hospital; appointing to the beadles of each hospital their proper circuit or district, with severe penalties upon their neglect of duty. But this act had not its effect. The streets, next year, swarmed again with beggars, vagrants, and maimed soldiers. It was then resolved to appoint a city-marshal, who, in a more effectual manner, might deliver the citizens from the disgrace and mischief of being overrun with sturdy beggars, &c. And the committee, to whom this appointment was given in charge, chose William Sympson and John Read, two able persons, (for the consideration of six shillings and eight pence a-day for them and their horses, and six persons a-piece, of their own choosing, to attend on each day, at twelve-pence each,) whose office was to take some course with those vagrants and wandering people, so as to clear the streets of them, and to deliver them to their several places and punishments, if they deserved it. And for the more ready executing this office, it was ordered, that one month's pay, of twenty-eight days to the month, should be paid to them beforehand; and accordingly the aldermen, by way of loan, disbursed the same, amounting to thirty-five pounds nine shillings and four-pence. And it was also thought convenient, that twelve fair partisans, suitably and conveniently armed, should, at present, be provided by the chamberlain for this service, at the charge of the city; and coats, or mandilions, for the attendants upon the marshals. The office of *city-marshal* originated in this regulation. But the execution of this most useful and high office was naturally attended, as it existed then, with so great an expense to the citizens, that it became a death-blow to the famous and pompous "watch," which for many years had been a great burthen to the higher class of citizens; whilst the non-contributing populace gazed at, and enjoyed, the useless show. However, from this change, arose insensibly the regular nightly watch, nearly similar to what exists at present.

The plague appeared again in the summer of this year—a most unwelcome visitor; and, in consequence of it, the city, eager to prevent its returning fury, ordered, among other regulations, that the ditch, from Aldgate to the postern of Tower-hill, should be cleansed, and a new sewer constructed.

Soon after this, the river Lea was made navigable; the citizens were called out to be trained to arms; and several other regulations took place; among which we must notice the first paving of the eastern suburbs of London, as far as Whitechapel-bars.

Upon all occasions the metropolis was regarded by the sovereign as a place of the highest importance; and, as it

has been hinted before, like the heart or focus of life, for the rest of the kingdom. Acting upon this conviction, the queen, intending to make a progress through the counties at this time, sent a letter to the lord-mayor, enjoining him to have a special regard to the good government and peace of the city during her absence; for the better accomplishment of which, she appointed certain of her privy-counsellors to be his advisers and assistants, with whom he was ordered to consult once a-week, or oftener.

In the year 1573, the price of wheat was raised to two pounds six shillings the quarter; beef was sold for one shilling and ten pence the stone, and all other flesh and white meats at an excessive price. This increase in price was not occasioned by any deficiency of produce, but by the secret exportation of provisions to the Netherlands, then laid waste by civil wars; wherefore, the lord-mayor sent a remonstrance to the lord-treasurer, "that, unless the ministry would see redress thereof in time, the scarcity must shortly be felt more powerfully, even by those in the highest stations of life." At the same time an act of common-council was passed to prevent the excessive consumption of provisions at the feasts of the companies and at the magistrates' tables.

The plague again broke out at London in 1574; on which account the queen, to prevent the concourse of people from spreading the contagion, desired the lord-mayor not to give any entertainment at Guildhall on the anniversary of his entering on his office.

The exhibition of stage-plays and interludes, which had been occasionally practised by ingenious tradesmen and gentlemen's servants, was now become a regular profession; and the different places for these exhibitions, which were large rooms in inns, were become common nurseries of vice and lewdness. To suppress which, the common-council passed an act, wherein it was ordained as follows: "That no play should be openly played within the liberty of the city, wherein should be uttered any words, examples, or doings, of any unchastity, sedition, or such-like unfit and uncomely matter, upon pain of imprisonment for fourteen days, and five pounds for every such offence. That no inn-keeper, &c. shall show or play, or cause to be shown or played, within his house, or yard, any play which shall not be first perused and allowed by order of the lord-mayor, and court of aldermen. And that no person shall be allowed to play, but shall be thereunto admitted by the lord-mayor and aldermen. And that every person to be licensed shall pay to the use of the poor in the hospitals of the city, or to the poor visited with sickness, certain sums to be agreed upon, on pain of forfeiting his said license. And that all sums and forfeitures incurred by any offence against this act, shall be employed to the relief of the poor of the hospitals, or of the poor infected or diseased in the city; to be sued for and recovered by the chamberlain in the court of the outer chamber of Guildhall, London, called the Mayor's Court." The public performers petitioned the queen and council for license to act as usual; but, after a full hearing, they could not obtain permission except under the restrictions of the above act of common-council, and of another act, made in the mayoralty of Hawes, by which they were enjoined not to play on Sundays, nor on holidays till after evening-prayers; and not to act after dark, but to conclude at such time, that the audience might return to their dwellings before sun-set.

Although we must, under another head, enter more at large into the origin and progress of theatrical performances, yet we have thought necessary just to notice these early dispositions, in which we find the first stamina of the dramatic establishments now existing, and, in some measure, the reason why no theatre has been erected as yet within the boundaries of the city.—The last article of these ordinances will raise a smile at the present day, viz. that the play should conclude at such time, that the audience might return to their dwellings before sun-set.

At this time the lord-mayor, recorder, and other magistrates



gistrates of the city, exerted themselves so effectually in executing the laws against vice and immorality; that, at the assizes then held for the city of London, there was not one criminal to be tried. The reason of this is set forth in a most curious letter, from William Fletewood, recorder of London, to the lord-treasurer, then with the court at Buxton; of which the following is an extract: "The only cause that this reformation taketh so good effect here about London, is, that when, by order, we have either justly executed the law, or performed the council's commandment, we were wont to have either a great man's letter, a lady's ring, or some other token from such other inferior persons, as will devise one untruth or other to accuse us of, if we perform not their unlawful requests. But now *the court is far off*; and here we are not troubled with letters, neither for the reprieve of this prisoner, nor for sparing that fray-maker. We nip vice in the bud, we punish petty thieves; and, when the assize cometh, we have no great ones to try."

The two following articles, extracted from Howes's Chronicle, p. 680, under the date of 1576, will contribute to show, that, in point of ingenuity and patience, our fellow-citizens are second to no individuals in any nation.

"A strange piece of work, and almost incredible, was brought to pass by an Englishman, born within the city of London, and a clerk of the chancery, named Peter Bales, who, by his industry and practice of his pen, contrived and writ, within the compass of a penny, in Latin, the Lord's Prayer, the Creed, the Ten Commandments, a prayer to God, a prayer for the queen, his poy, his name, the day of the month, the year of our Lord, and the reign of the queen: and at Hampton-court he presented the same to the queen's majesty in the head of a ring of gold, covered with a crystal, and presented therewith an excellent spectacle, by him devised, for the easier reading thereof, wherewith her majesty read all that was written therein, and did wear the same upon her finger."

"Also, about the same time, Mark Scaliot, blacksmith, born in London, for trial of workmanship, made one hanging-lock of iron, steel, and brass, a pipe-key filed three-square, with a pot upon the shaft, and the bow with two SS, all clean wrought, which weighed but one grain of gold, or wheat-corn; he made also a chain of gold of forty-three links, to the which chain the lock and key being fastened and put about a flea's neck, she drew the same; all which, lock, key, chain, and flea, weighed but one grain and a half."

The name of Fletewood, recorder of the city, will never be forgotten as long as we are sensible of gratitude; for by his exertions he did not only amend the morals of the Londoners our ancestors, but kept away the plague, which made its appearance in the Temple in the year 1577; at which time Mr. *Wm. Lamb* deserved also the thanks of his countrymen, by conveying the water through leaden pipes from the upper end of Red-lion-street to Snow-hill. This conduit was taken down in 1746, to make room for the erection of the Foundling Hospital.

About this time, the queen issued an order, for again ascertaining the number of foreigners in London; when, on the report being made, it appeared that they amounted to 6462, nearly three times as many as in 1567, viz. Dutch, 2302; French, 1838; Italians, 116; English, born of foreign parents, 1542; other nations, 447; persons not certified, 217. This considerable increase of foreigners in the metropolis was productive of a remonstrance from the lord-mayor and aldermen, against the *vast increase of new buildings, and number of inhabitants*, within the city and suburbs of London, chiefly occasioned by the great resort of people from abroad, and all parts of the kingdom, to settle there; which it was imagined would prove of dangerous consequence, both to London and to the whole nation, if not timely remedied. Wherefore her majesty issued a proclamation, by which it was forbidden to erect any new buildings within three miles from the city-gates, where no former house could be

remembered to have been by any one living; and also to suffer any more families than one only, to be placed or to inhabit in any one house; with power to the lord-mayor to commit offenders against this proclamation, or to hold them to bail. And when sir John Branch, the next lord-mayor, went to take the oath in the Exchequer, the lord-treasurer charged him strictly to enforce the said proclamation, because, said he, "there will, from an increase of people, arise an excessive price of victuals and fuel; and danger of plague and infection."

On the 21st of June, 1581, the populace taking offence at the images with which the cross in Cheapside was decorated, they attempted to pull the whole down, but, failing in their design, they broke and defaced the images; and, notwithstanding the offer of a reward of forty crowns, the offenders were never discovered.

The Turkey or Levant Company was incorporated in this year, and the first governor was sir Edward Osborn, an alderman of London. See the article COMPANY, vol. iv. p. 874.

In the year 1582, the luxury of the times having greatly prevailed among people of all degrees, in their apparel, particularly apprentices, the lord-mayor and common-council enacted, 1. That no apprentice whatsoever should presume to wear any apparel but what he receives from his master. 2. To wear no hat, nor any thing but a woollen cap, without any silk in or about the same. 3. To wear neither ruffles, cuffs, loose collars, nor any thing but a ruff at the collar, and that only of a yard and a half long. 4. To wear no doublets but what are made of canvas, fustian, sackcloth, English leather, or woollen, without any gold, silver, or silk trimming. 5. To wear no other coloured cloth, or kersey, in hose or stockings, than white, blue, or russet. 6. To wear no other breeches but what shall be of the same stuff as the doublet, and neither stitched, laced, or bordered. 7. To wear no other than a plain upper coat, of cloth or leather, without pinking, stitching, edging or silk, about it. 8. To wear no other furtout than a cloth gown or cloak, lined or faced with cloth, cotton, or baize, with a fixed round collar, without stitching, guarding, lace, or silk. 9. To wear no pumps, slippers, or shoes, but of English leather, without being pinked, edged, or stitched; nor girdles, nor garters, other than of crewel, woollen, thread, or leather, without being garnished. 10. To wear no sword, dagger, or other weapon, but a knife; nor a ring, jewel of gold nor silver, nor silk in any part of his apparel; on pain of being punished at the discretion of the master for the first offence; to be publicly whipped at the hall of his company for a second offence; and to serve six months longer than specified in his indentures for a third offence. 11. No apprentice to frequent any dancing, fencing, or music, schools; nor keep any chest, press, or other place, for holding of apparel, or goods, but in his master's house; under the penalties aforesaid.

An ingenious German, named Maurice, submitted a scheme to the lord-mayor and aldermen, in this year, for supplying the city with Thames water, by means of a machine, to be worked by the stream of the tide, under London-bridge. The scheme being approved, the city granted Maurice a lease of one arch, and a place for fixing his engine, at the north end of the bridge, for the term of five hundred years, at a rent of ten shillings per annum. Two years after, he obtained a lease of a second arch; and, from the utility of, and improvements in, the invention, Maurice and his posterity acquired considerable wealth. It continued in their hands till 1701, at which time the wheels occupied four arches, when it was sold to Richard Soams, a goldsmith, for thirty-six thousand pounds. Immediately after the purchase, Soams obtained a confirmation of Maurice's lease, at the yearly rent of twenty shillings, and a fine of three hundred pounds; after which, he divided the undertaking into three hundred shares, at five hundred pounds each.

The custom of the nomination of sheriffs, by the lord-mayor



mayor drinking to them, is first noticed in 1583; a practice which, originating in the old manner of pledging with the cup to insure safety during the time of drinking, is still observed in our days.

In the month of July 1585, the magistrates of London, alarmed at the increase of thieves and robbers who infested the city and its suburbs, took great pains to discover their haunts and the nests of those miscreants and cut-purses, and the disorderly houses that harboured them. Among the rest, a regular school for the instruction of pick-pockets was found at Smart's key, near Billingsgate. The method of teaching this *lucrative* and *liberal* art was as follows:—In the centre of a large room was a pocket with counters in it, and a purse with silver, both of which were suspended, and small bells fixed round them.—The test of proficiency was, of course, to pick the pocket, or take the silver out of the purse, without causing the bells to jingle: The house where this *honourable school* was held was suppressed; and the *professors*, as well as the man who kept it, fined and imprisoned.

The following year, Ludgate, with a prison for debtors who were freemen of the city, was rebuilt, and cost about one thousand five hundred pounds.

Alarmed at the vigorous preparations made by the Spaniards for the reduction of England, the queen sent a letter to the lord-mayor of London, requesting that ten thousand able men, furnished with armour and weapons convenient, should be put in readiness; out of which number six thousand were to be enrolled under captains and ensigns, and to be trained at time convenient. The request was most readily granted; and, to give an idea of the respective populations of the wards of the city, we have inserted the number of men raised in each of them.

Farringdon within	807	Cheap	-	-	358
Aldgate	-	347	Queenhithe	-	404
Coleman-street	-	229	Farringdon without	-	1264
Bassishaw	-	177	Cordwainers	-	301
Billingsgate	-	365	Tower-street	-	444
Broad-street	-	373	Waterloo	-	290
Bread-street	-	385	Vintry	-	364
Aldersgate	-	232	Portoken	-	243
Bridge	-	383	Candlewick	-	215
Dowgate	-	384	Cripplegate	-	925
Cornhill	-	191	Bishopsgate	-	326
Castle-baynard	-	551	Langbourn	-	349
Lime-street	-	99			

Besides this proof of loyalty, the good city of London presented the queen with sixteen of the largest ships in the river, and four frigates, which were immediately fitted out, and supplied with all necessaries.—The number of ships was afterwards increased to thirty-eight; the whole expense being defrayed by the city.

The zeal and alacrity of the citizens, in this and the following year, contributed greatly to the security of the independence of the nation; but, great as these were, the assistance the state derived from the influence of the London merchants, was infinitely more important. By their means, Philip was compelled to defer his threatened attempt until the next year, when the preparations for defence were, consequently, much more effectual; for Thomas Sutton, esq. who afterwards founded the Charter-house, assisted by sir Thomas Gresham, and some others, found means to get all the Spanish bills of exchange which were drawn on the merchants of Genoa, to supply Philip with money for carrying on his preparations, protested. Bishop Burnet, in the first volume of the History of his Life and Times, p. 313, says, "A merchant of London, being very well acquainted with the revenue and expense of Spain, and of all that they could raise; and knowing also, that their funds were so swallowed up, that it was impossible for them to victual and fit out their fleet but by their credit on the bank of Genoa; he undertook to write to all the places of trade, and to get such remittances made on that bank, that he might have so much of the money in his own hands, as there should be none cur-

rent there equal to the great occasion of victualling the Spanish fleet. He reckoned, that the keeping of such a treasure dead in his hands, until the season of victualling was over, would be a loss of forty thousand pounds; and he managed the matter with such secrecy and success, that the fleet could not set out that year."

The subsequent failure and total defeat of this formidable expedition, are well known to every reader of English history; it will therefore be unnecessary to dwell upon it here. See the article ENGLAND, vol. vi. p. 658, 9.

A public thanksgiving being ordered to be made on the 24th of November, the queen came in great state to St. Paul's, to perform that solemn duty; on which occasion, eleven banners or ensigns, taken from the enemy, were hung up in the body of the church, as trophies of their defeat.

In 1592, the plague raged with great violence, and swept away no less than 10,675 citizens. Soon after, 1595, the licentiousness of the populace, who drew in the London apprentices to join them, produced such repeated and alarming riots, that it was thought necessary by the mayor to lay the case before the lord-treasurer, for her majesty's direction. In consequence of which, on the 4th of July, a proclamation was issued, wherein her majesty appointed a provost-martial, with power to apprehend all rioters, and such as might be refractory to the officers of justice, and, by order of martial law, to punish them accordingly. Sir Thomas Wilford, who was appointed provost-martial, patrolled the city, with a numerous attendance on horseback, armed with pistols, and apprehended many of the rioters, whom he took before the justices appointed for their examination. On the 22d of July, they were tried at Guildhall; and five of them, being condemned, were, two days after, agreeable to their sentence, executed on Tower-hill. This example had the desired effect; for the rest were so intimidated, that they immediately dispersed; and peace was again restored in the city.

In the year 1596, while the mayor and aldermen were attending a sermon at St. Paul's cross, they received a message from the queen, ordering them to raise one thousand able-bodied men, for immediate service; in compliance with which, they suddenly left their devotion, and applied so diligently, that, before eight o'clock at night, they obtained the complement required, who were completely armed, and ready to march, before next morning. They were destined for the relief of the French in Calais, against the Spaniards; but, some unexpected intelligence arriving from that place, their appearance became unnecessary, and this little army was disbanded before it had existed twenty-four hours. The court, however, being again alarmed, on Easter-day, in the morning, sent another message to the lord-mayor and aldermen, commanding them to raise the like number of men as before; in obedience to which, they, with their proper officers, repaired to the different churches in their respective jurisdictions, during the time of divine service, and, causing the doors to be shut, they selected the number of men required, who, being properly armed, with all possible expedition, began their march, the night after, for Dover, in order for their embarkation for France; but, advice being received of the reduction of Calais, they were ordered home, after a week's absence, and immediately disbanded. These are most substantial proofs of the readiness which the city of London has ever evinced in support of the monarch and the constitution.

All sorts of spices having grown to an exorbitant price, in consequence of the war with Spain; the queen, in the year 1600, granted a charter to George earl of Cumberland, and two hundred and fifteen knights, aldermen, and merchants, under the denomination of "The Governor and Company of Merchants of London trading to the East Indies." From small causes great effects sometimes arise; considering the extensive power, dominion, and wealth, of the East-India Company, who would ever suppose that its existence is owing to the trifling circumstance of pep-



per being sold at eight shillings per pound in London? It was not till the reign of king William, that this company obtained the name of the *English East-India Company*. See the article COMPANY, vol. iv. p. 875; and, for its progress, the articles ENGLAND and HINDOOSTAN.

The trade and navigation on the English coasts being greatly interrupted by the depredations of Spanish privateers, the queen, in 1601, ordered a number of ships to be fitted out to cruise against them; and, on this occasion, no less than five-fifteenths were assessed upon the citizens of London, towards defraying the expense of the armament: and a proclamation was issued for discharging all such debtors in the gaols of London as were willing to enter on-board the said ships.

In the year 1602, the trade of the city of London having been greatly injured by the increase of hawkers and pedlars, the common-council enacted, "That no citizen or other inhabitant of London, for the future, should, under any pretence whatsoever, presume to let, before his, her, or their, house, any stall, stand, or perpressure, upon the penalty of twenty shillings. And that all hawkers offending against the tenor of this act, should not only forfeit all their goods so offered to sale, but likewise pay a fine of twenty shillings for every such offence."

Early in the year 1603, the citizens of London, by the queen's command, fitted out and maintained two ships and a tender, at the annual expense of six thousand pounds. This was the last demand made by Elizabeth on the citizens; and it is remarked by historians, that, during the long reign of that princess, and considering the readiness with which the citizens of London always answered her demands, she did not grant them any new charter of privileges, or even so much as confirm those which had been given by her predecessors.

On the death of queen Elizabeth, which happened March 24, 1603, James VI. of Scotland was proclaimed in Cheapside by the lord-mayor, with the usual pomp and ceremony. Great preparations were made by the citizens for the reception of their new sovereign; but the plague continued to rage so violently, that it was found advisable to postpone the ceremony to the following year; when James made his public entry into London, and was received in the most sumptuous manner. The suppression of fairs in and within fifty miles of the metropolis, was one of the effects of the contagious disorder, which carried off 30,578 persons within the space of twelve months.

The court of requests, which had been originally established by an act of common-council, was found so beneficial, that an act of parliament was obtained in the first year of king James's reign, to confirm the power and jurisdiction of it.

In the year 1605, James granted the citizens his first charter, by which he recognized all their ancient rights and privileges, and also adjusted the disputes which had frequently taken place between the corporation and the lieutenant of the Tower, respecting the metage of coals, &c. which the latter claimed as his right; but the king, by this charter, finally determined that it was vested in the corporation of London. For the history of the gunpowder-plot, which occurred this year, see the article ENGLAND, vol. vi. p. 662, 3.

On the 3d of July, 1606, his majesty paid a debt of sixty thousand pounds, contracted by queen Elizabeth, who had borrowed that sum of the citizens of London, and left it unpaid at her decease. But in the following May, the king, wanting money, applied to the citizens, who readily advanced him the sum of sixty-three thousand pounds. In acknowledgment for this favour, his majesty soon after granted the citizens a second charter; by which, he not only confirmed their ancient rights, liberties, and immunities, in the most ample manner, but also added the precincts of Duke's Place, St. Bartholomew's the Great and Less, Black and White Friars, and Cold-harbour, to the bounds of the city, and jurisdiction thereof.

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In the year 1609, his majesty offered the whole province of Ulster, in Ireland, to the citizens of London, on condition that they would engage to settle an English colony there; which offer being accepted, the common-council passed an act to raise twenty thousand pounds, to carry the design into execution; and a committee was appointed, of six aldermen and eight commoners (since increased to twenty), to be annually chosen for the government thereof. The cultivation of this province went on with such rapidity, that, in the year 1616, two capital towns were colonized, by the names of Londonderry and Coleraine; the first of which the king formed into a city, and the latter into a corporate town, under a mayor. Soon after which, by a special commission from the king and the city of London, sir Peter Proby, alderman of London, and governor of the colony, attended by several principal citizens, went over to Ireland, and presented each of the before-mentioned places with a rich sword of state, to be carried before their chief magistrates.

The bringing of the New River to London was effected in the year 1613: See CANAL NAVIGATION, vol. iii. p. 675. It appeared at first a most doubtful undertaking; but was brought at last to the entire completion of the wishes of the parties concerned, and of the whole city, to the wholesomeness and cleanliness of which it highly contributed. The account is interesting to every one, and particularly to those who benefit by it; and we will give it in the very words of Stow:

"The worke began the 20 day of February, An. Dom. 1608; and in five yeers space was fully accomplished. Concerning the conveyance of it along to London, from Chadwell and Amwell, I myselſe (by favour of the gentlemen) did divers times ride to see it, and diligently observed that admirable art, paines, and industry, were bestowed for the passage of it, by reason that all grounds are not of a like nature, some being ozie and very muddy, others againe as stiffe, craggy, and stony.

"The depth of the trench, in some places, descended full thirty foot, if not more; whereas in other places it required a sprightfull art againe, to mount it over a valley in a trough, betweene couple of hills; and the trough all the while borne up by wooden arches, some of them fixed in the ground very deepe, and rising in height above 23 foot.

"Being brought to the intended cisterne, but not (as yet) the water admitted entrance therinto, on Michaelmasse day, in anno 1613, being the day when sir Thomas Middleton, knt. (brother to the said sir Hugh Middleton) was elected lord-mayor of London for the yeare ensuing; in the afternoon of the same day, sir John Swinerton, knt. and lord-mayor of London, accompanied with the said sir Thomas, sir Henry Montague, knight, and recorder of London, and many of the worthy aldermen, rode to see the cisterne, and first issuing of the river therinto; which was performed in this manner: A troope of labourers, to the number of 60 or more, well appparelled and wearing greene Monmouth caps, all alike, carryed spades, shovels, pickaxes, and such-like instruments of laborious employment, marching after drummers, twice or thrice about the cisterne, presented themselves before the mount, where the lord-mayor, aldermen, and a worthy company beside, stood to behold them; and one man, in behaife of all the rest, delivered this speech:

"Long have we labour'd, long desir'd and pray'd  
For this great work's perfection: and, by th'ayd  
Of Heaven and good men's wishes, 'tis at length  
Hapily conquer'd by cost, art, and strength.  
And, after five yeeres deare expence in dayes  
Travaile and paines, besides th'infinite wayes  
Of malice, envie, false suggestions,  
Able to daunt the spirits of mighty ones  
In wealth and courage; this, a worke, so rare;  
Only by one man's industrie, cost, and care,  
Is brought to blest effect, so much withstood;  
His onely ayme, the city's gen'ral good.

And



And where (before) many unjust complaints,  
 Curiously feated, caused oft restraints,  
 Stops, and great crosses to our master's charge,  
 And the work's hindrance; favour now at large  
 Spreads itself open to him, and commends  
 To admiration both his pains and ends.  
 (The king's most gracious love,) perfection draws  
 Favour from princes, and from all applause.  
 Then, worthy magistrates, to whose contente  
 (Next to the state) all this great care was bent;  
 And for the publike good (which grace requires)  
 Your loves and furtherance chiefly he desires  
 To cherish these proceedings, which may give  
 Courage to some who may hereafter live,  
 To practise deedes of goodnesse and of fame,  
 And gladly light their actions by his name.  
 Clarke of the worke, reach me the booke, to show  
 How many arts from such a labour flow.

*All this he readeth in the clark's book.*

First, here's the overseer, this tride man  
 An ancient souldier, and an artizan.  
 The clarke, next him mathematician;  
 The master of the timber-worke takes place  
 Next after these; and the measurer, in like case;  
 Bricklayer and enginer; and after those  
 The borer and the pavier; then it shoves  
 The labourers next; keeper of Amwell-head,  
 The walkers last: so all their names are read.  
 Yet these but parcels of six hundred more  
 That (at one time) have beene employed before.  
 Yet these in fight, and all the rest will say  
 That all the weeke they had their royall pay.

*At the letting open the sluice.*

Now for the fruits then: flow forth, precious spring;  
 So long and dearly fought for, and now bring  
 Comfort to all that love thee: loudly sing,  
 And with thy crystal murmurs strook together  
 Bid all thy true *wel-wishers* welcome hither."

In the year 1617 his majesty caused certain rules to be published, under the title of "The Book of Sports;" by which the people were tolerated to exercise recreations and diversions on the sabbath-day. The lord-mayor and citizens, together with many of the clergy, so far opposed it, that they incurred the resentment of the high-commission court. Notwithstanding which, the lord-mayor persevered so strongly, in showing his contempt at such an unchristian license, that he even caused the king's carriages to be stopped as they were driving through the city in the time of divine service. The matter being related to his majesty with the most aggravating circumstances, he swore, in a great rage, "He thought there had been no more kings in England than himself." After the heat of his passion had subsided, he sent a warrant to the mayor, commanding him to let them pass; which he obeyed, with this declaration: "While it was in my power, I did my duty; but, that being taken away by a higher power, it is my duty to obey." This well-timed concession was highly pleasing to the king, and the mayor was acquitted of the breach of the royal orders, with great reputation.

From the above transaction it will naturally be inferred, that James, though a strenuous assertor of orthodox opinions, was yet a latitudinarian in morals; and the inference is strengthened by his common profane discourse, and by the grant he gave to Clement Cottrel, esq. groom-porter of his household, to license gaming-houses for cards, dice, bowling-alleys, and tennis-courts. In London and Westminster, including their respective suburbs, were then twenty-four bowling-places; four in Southwark; in St. Catharine's one; one in Shoreditch, and in Lambeth two. Within these limits were also tolerated fourteen tennis-courts, and forty taverns or ordinaries for playing at cards and dice. The motives of this indulgence were expressed in the grant in the following terms:

"For the honest and reasonable recreation of good and civil people, who, by their quality and ability, may lawfully use the games of bowling, tennis, dice, cards, tables, nine-holes, or any other game hereafter to be invented."

We have to congratulate ourselves that this sort of diversion has retired from the public into private houses, and that the "good people" are less inclined to cards and dice than they appear to have been formerly. Besides this whimsicality, the king exhibited most curious specimens of incoherence and instability of mind in some edicts, the motives of which cannot be ascertained. In 1621 he issued a proclamation to enforce the prohibition of flesh during Lent; an ecclesiastical law, the severity of which seemed to have been done away with at the time of the reformation. By this order the magistrates of London were enjoined to examine the servants of all innholders, victuallers, cooks, alehouse-keepers, taverners, &c. who sell victuals, concerning any flesh sold by them in Lent. And, in the following year, he ordered all the lords, spiritual and temporal, and gentlemen who have seats in the country, privy-counsellors and the servants of the king and prince excepted, to leave London forthwith, to attend their service in their several counties, and to celebrate the feast of Christmas. And in a second proclamation he enjoins them, not only to remain at their seats during Christmas, but always till his further pleasure be known. Widows of distinction were included in this order; and all whose law-business required their attendance in London were commanded to leave their families in the country.

The year before James's death, the city raised two thousand men out of ten required by the king for the support of his son-in-law the elector palatine; and an act of parliament was passed for making the Thames navigable from Oxford, for the conveyance of free-stone to the city of London.

King James died on the 27th of March, 1625. The public entry of Charles I. and his bride, to whom he had been lately married, was postponed until the 2d of February in the following year, on account of the plague, which then, as at the beginning of the preceding reign, raged most violently in London.

Hackney-coaches had their rise in the first year of Charles I. See the article COACH, vol. iv. p. 702. This troublesome reign could not help affecting the tranquillity of the city, and the comforts of the citizens. They were obliged to refuse Charles's arbitrary demand of money; and were punished for their firmness by being ordered to fit out twenty of the best ships in the river, well manned and stored with ammunition and provisions for three months; and several of the principal merchants were imprisoned. It was not long, however, before a pretence was found for obtaining a sum of money from the city with more colour of justice. One Dr. Lamb, a favourite of the king, and the suspected adviser of these arbitrary proceedings, being discovered in the city, was attacked by a mob, who loaded him with the most bitter invectives, and dragged him about the streets, beating and kicking him, till at length he died under their inhuman treatment. The king, hearing of the tumult, hastened into the city in time to have saved his life, had his authority been sufficiently great, or his body-guard strong enough to have rescued him from the exasperated citizens, who, in reply to the king's intreaties, and promises that he would suffer the law to take its course if Lamb could be judged guilty of any offence, said, "they had judged him already." The king was so incensed, that he amerced the city in a fine of six thousand pounds, which was afterwards mitigated to fifteen hundred marks, on the committal of several of the rioters.

About this time ordinances were properly issued by the common-council, in order to clear the streets and lanes of stalls and stands with which they were generally encumbered, to the great annoyance of the passengers.

A law-mill, or engine for sawing timber, was erected,



in this year, on the river Thames, opposite to Durham-yard; but so little was the advantage of a saving of labour then understood, that it was shortly after suppressed, "left our labouring people should want employment."

The clouds, which were hovering over the atmosphere of London, began to thicken; and the city felt strongly the commotions which agitated the whole kingdom. In 1640 it was called upon by the privy council to raise twelve hundred men, to be sent against the Scots. This was performed, and the men shipped at Blackwall, though not without great discontent on the part of the populace, who could scarcely be kept within bounds; and, on the 11th of May, the apprentices and others, invited by a paper stuck up in the Royal Exchange, assembled at night, to the number of five hundred, and marched to Lambeth, with an intent to plunder the palace, and murder the archbishop, whom they accused of being a principal instigator of all the ministerial oppressions. But the prelate, being apprised of their coming, had provided such a defence, that their intentions were frustrated, and they were obliged to retire. The following day, upwards of two thousand of the populace rushed into St. Paul's, at the time the high-commission court was sitting, where they tore down all the benches, crying out, "No bishop! No high commission!" These outrages greatly alarming the court, the privy-council sent an order to the lord-mayor, to provide a double watch, and to oblige every house-keeper to keep his apprentices and servants at home, and not suffer them to go out of their houses at any hour, till further orders. The lord-mayor strictly obeyed these orders; notwithstanding which, so turbulent and enraged were the citizens in general against the court and ministry, for their despotic government, that they stuck up papers in various parts of the city, exciting the people to a general insurrection. This occasioned another order from the privy-council, commanding the lord-mayor to draw forth the city trained bands, the more effectually to suppress all disorderly and riotous meetings.

In consequence of a petition which the citizens of London presented to the king, and in which they detailed their grievances, his majesty, in a letter dated the 22d September, promised them that a new parliament should be immediately called to take their complaints into consideration. But this cup of favour was not without dregs of bitterness; for it was accompanied with a gentle request for a loan of two hundred thousand pounds, which was accordingly negotiated. The king, however, faithful to his word, summoned a parliament, which met on the 3d of November; but, after petitions upon petitions, the business ended in insults offered to the Spanish ambassador, the burning of his private chapel in Bishopsgate-street, and the tumultuous proceedings against the earl of Strafford; during which the mayor and citizens evinced great firmness and loyalty united with prudence.

About this time, a dispute arose between the lord-mayor and commonalty of the city, about the right of choosing one of the sheriffs, which the former claimed by a prescription of three hundred years, without the approbation and confirmation of the latter; the commonalty admitted of the mayor's nominating a person proper for that office, but insisted he should not serve unless by their assent. The lord-mayor and aldermen applied to the king to determine the controversy; but, as he did not choose to interfere personally, in so critical a time, when his own power was publicly disputed, he referred them to the house of lords. The peers, at first, recommended an accommodation among themselves; but, this not proving sufficiently effectual, their lordships thought proper (with a salvo on each side) to issue the following order: "That, for this time, the commonalty shall forthwith proceed to the nomination and election of both their sheriffs for the year following; hoping that, for the first of the two sheriffs, they will make choice of that party that was nominated by the lord-mayor; and their lordships do further declare, that this order shall be no way prejudicial to any

right or prerogative claimed by the lords, the mayors of the city of London, for the time being; nor yet to any right or claim made by the commons or citizens in this matter, now in question amongst them."

After these internal broils, a sort of cordiality appears to have reigned between the king and the citizens, who treated him most sumptuously at Guildhall, where he dined with the queen, the duke of York, and the princess Mary. So pleased was the monarch at this treatment, and at the acclamations of the people, that the next day, an address being presented from the city, he made the lord-mayor a baronet, and knighted *all* the aldermen who attended.

But the seeds of discontent lurked beneath these flattering appearances, and in a few days began to be perceptible. The king, having discharged sir William Belfour from the lieutenantancy of the Tower of London, appointed colonel Lunsford, a person very obnoxious to the house of commons, to succeed him. This removal so highly displeased the citizens, whose interest was inseparable from that of the commons, that they drew up and presented a petition to the house, the substance of which was, "That the Tower of London was more especially intended for the defence of the city of London, which had lately been put into fears of some dangerous design from that citadel. That sir William Belfour, a person of honour and trust, is displaced from the office of lieutenant; and the same is bestowed upon colonel Lunsford, a man outlawed, and most notorious for outrages, &c. May it therefore please this honourable assembly to take the premises into such consideration as may secure both the city and the kingdom against the mischiefs which may happen, &c." This petition occasioned the commons to request a conference with the lords; but the latter refused joining with them to address his majesty for the removal of Lunsford; alledging, that they conceived it would be an infringement on his majesty's prerogative. The lord-mayor, however, on the Sunday following, waited on the king at Whitehall, where he represented the dissatisfaction of the people, at the promotion of the said Lunsford, and informed him of a general insurrection being intended by the citizens, should Lunsford be continued in the lieutenantancy of the Tower. On which his majesty was graciously pleased to remove him from the said office. Before this was publicly known, the citizens and apprentices, who had petitioned against Lunsford and the bishops, assembled in a large body, and proceeded to Westminster, crying out, "No bishops! No bishops! No popish lords!" This so irritated the bishop of Lincoln, who was then passing to Westminster, that he imprudently seized one of the most active in the mob; but the populace immediately rescued their comrade, and, after dinning his ears with "No bishop! No bishop!" permitted the terrified prelate to depart. One captain Hyde, with some of his friends, being fired with indignation at such treatment of a bishop, was still more imprudent; for he drew his sword, and threatened to cut the throats of those round-headed dogs who bawled against the bishops; for which he was seized by the apprentices, and carried before the house of commons, who not only immediately committed him to prison, but declared him incapable of ever serving his majesty after. Colonel Lunsford, going to Westminster the same day, was so irritated at the insolence of the mob, that he also drew his sword; on which a scuffle ensued, and several persons were wounded. This commotion soon reaching the city, the lord-mayor and sheriffs took such precautions as prevented any considerable number from getting out of the gates of the city. After which, his lordship patroled the streets all night, and, in the morning, raised the trained bands to preserve the peace.

Five members of parliament, against whom a prosecution had been commenced by the attorney-general, having retired for security into the city of London, the king came in person on the 5th of January, 1643, to demand the assistance of the Londoners to find them out. On his way thither, the people cried out, in a tumultuous manner,



manner, "Privileges of parliament!" And one of them threw into his majesty's coach a paper, on which was written, "To your tents, O Israel!" for which he was immediately apprehended, and committed to prison. His majesty being arrived at Guildhall, where the court of common-council, by his order, was assembled, he addressed himself to them, saying he came to demand persons already accused of high treason, and to desire their assistance to bring them to a legal trial. He then made new professions of his zeal for the protestant religion, and his determination to prosecute all such, either papists or separatists, who should oppose the laws and statutes of the kingdom. Having finished his harangue, he left the hall, and, after dining with one of the sheriffs, returned to Whitehall, without receiving that applause which he expected, or gaining any satisfaction in his inquiries. On the contrary, the members were still protected in the city, and, on the day of the meeting of parliament, went to Westminster in great state, guarded by forty long-boats armed with small pieces of ordnance, and were received on landing by the city trained-bands. When the committee and members were safe arrived, the sheriffs, and those who had conducted the boats, were called into the house, and were thanked for their services, and indemnified from future question for their conduct; after which, the house ordered that two companies of the trained-bands should attend the house daily; and, for the security of the stores in the Tower, the sheriffs were ordered to place a sufficient guard round it, both by land and water.

In the midst of these tumults, the city could not help taking a great part in the dissensions which at that time were tearing the kingdom into different parties. About this time an order was made for shutting up all the shops in London, that the shopkeepers and apprentices might be at greater freedom to attend to the defence of the kingdom. And an ordinance was published, for the encouragement of apprentices to enlist; in which they were promised security against the forfeiture of indentures, bonds, or franchise; and that, when the public service was ended, their masters should be compelled to receive them without punishment or prejudice. The masters were also promised satisfaction for whatever losses they might sustain by the absence of such apprentices.

The common-council, about this time, passed an act for the better defence of the city, by fortifying it with outworks at certain places. It was also enacted, that all the passages and ways leading to the city should be shut up, excepting those entering at Charing-cross, St. Giles's-in-the-Fields, St. John's-street, Shoreditch, and Whitechapel; and that the exterior ends of the said streets should be fortified with breast-works, musket-proof; that all the sheds and buildings contiguous to London-wall without, be taken down; and that the city-wall, with its bulwarks, be not only repaired and mounted with artillery, but likewise that divers new works be added to the same at places most exposed to danger. This work was immediately begun, and prosecuted with such dispatch, that a rampart, or wall, with bastions, redoubts, &c. was in a short time erected round the cities of London and Westminster, and the borough of Southwark; and, in order to defray the expense attending it, the common-council imposed eight fifteenths on the several wards of the city, which was afterwards confirmed by an ordinance of parliament.

The king, finding at last that the Londoners were more strongly attached to the parliament, and that his obtaining their friendship was impracticable, issued a proclamation, "forbidding all commerce with London." On which the common-council, the day following the date of the said proclamation, made an act for raising the sum of fifty thousand pounds by way of loan, on the security of the city-seal, to be employed in defence of the city; and at the same time passed an order to move the parliament for an ordinance, to compel all moneyed men, within the bills of mortality, to advance money on this occasion, in proportion to their respective abilities.

A rumour prevailing at this time among the citizens,

that the parliament was disposed to accommodate matters with the king, the lord-mayor summoned a common-council, who presented a petition to the house of commons, in the strongest terms, against a reconciliation. When his lordship presented the above petition, he was attended by such a prodigious concourse of citizens, that many of the members withdrew from the house through fear; and those who continued, and received the petition, requested his lordship to prevent such riotous proceedings for the future. The petition was approved of; and the propositions of peace with the king were rejected. Such weight had the city of London in the scale of public affairs; such influence had her example or advice upon the rest of the kingdom!

The rage for petitioning was so great at this time, that, on the 9th of August, 1643, some thousands of the meaner sort of women, with white ribbons in their hats, carried up a petition, which was entitled, "The humble Petition of many civilly-disposed Women, inhabiting in the Cities of London and Westminster." The purport of it was very reasonable, namely, "That God's glory, in the true reformed religion, might be preserved; the just prerogatives of king and parliament maintained; the true liberties and properties of the subject, according to the known laws of the land, restored; and all honourable ways and means for a speedy peace endeavoured." The commons returned them for answer, That they were no enemies to peace; and that they hoped, in a short time, to answer the ends of their petition. But, this not satisfying them, they continued about the house, and, before noon, increased to upwards of five thousand; among whom were several men dressed in women's clothes. They crowded about the house, calling out, "Peace! peace!" and demanding the traitors who were averse to it; particularly, "that dog, Pym." At length, these *civilly-disposed women* became so outrageous, that it was found necessary to oppose them by force. A party of the trained-bands were therefore sent for; but, instead of being intimidated at their appearance, the mob assailed them with such fury, that they were forced to fire in their own defence; when several being killed, and others wounded, the rest thought it prudent to withdraw.

At the beginning of the year 1644, the city sent two regiments of auxiliaries, to join the parliament-army under sir William Waller, who gained a victory over the royal forces shortly after. In the battle, the troops belonging to the city behaved with the greatest courage and intrepidity; and the victory was considered of such importance, that a public thanksgiving was ordered to be observed, on the 9th of April, throughout London and the bills of mortality.

On the 16th of May, the lord-mayor, aldermen, and common-council, presented an address or petition to the parliament, thanking them for the great care they had taken for the preservation of the public good, and exhorting them to perseverance. They particularly thanked them for their especial care of the Tower of London and the castle of Windsor; but expressed some dissatisfaction at the discontinuance of the committee of parliament, at the want of execution upon delinquents, the not putting Tilbury Fort into safe hands, and at the endeavours of divers members of parliament to gain re-admittance, after having betrayed their trust by bearing arms against the parliament. The commons returned a full and satisfactory answer to all these points; and concluded with declaring, that they would, in a most particular manner, be mindful of the merit of the city, which, upon all occasions, they should acknowledge, and would endeavour to requite. The Londoners, however, kept up a good understanding with the army, and became the mediator between them and the parliament. The army required that no forces should be raised in the city; to which the citizens agreed, and promised to move the parliament for their better payment, that they might be removed to a greater distance.

The city was, at times, thought a safe and secure shelter



ter for those who were obnoxious to either of the parties; and, at other times, those who had taken refuge there were obliged to leave it. Many of the members of the two houses of parliament, intimidated by the violence of the presbyterians, retired from London, and sought protection from the army. Every movement of Fairfax's army added new fears, or new hopes, to the citizens, who, divided unfortunately among themselves, were either for or against his entering the metropolis. However, as soon as he arrived, London withdrew the militia, and delivered up the fortifications, without waiting for any attack, and therefore without resistance. The lord-mayor and aldermen met the general at Hyde-park, and congratulated him on his arrival; and he was saluted in the same manner by the common-council, who waited for him at Charing-cross. Thus the army possessed themselves of the city and parliament. It is not improper here to remark, that, in all popular commotions, the army plays always the chief part in the drama, and the general eventually becomes the hero of the piece. These proceedings were very similar to what happened at Rome in the time of the emperors, and in France a few years ago; for, had not the present ruler of that country been a favourite with the army, he would never have been received at Paris, at his return from Egypt, with the acclamations of the people.

Soon after the arrival of the army, a loan of fifty thousand pounds was demanded from the city, for their services; which not being complied with, the parliament passed a vote for demolishing the fortifications round London, Westminster, and Southwark.

In this state of affairs, with a divided capital, an insolent army, and an imprisoned sovereign, it cannot be matter of surprise, that confusion and licentiousness should characterize the people. Riots and conspiracies were almost daily occurrences; nor does the history of the times offer any topics of a more agreeable nature. At length, the army bore down all opposition; the measures which were in agitation between the parliament and the city, to restore tranquillity and re-instate the king, were frustrated by the army, who took possession of London and Westminster on the 4th of December, 1648; demanded forty thousand pounds of the citizens; and, when that sum was not procured so speedily as they expected, the general sent two regiments of foot to take up their quarters in the city, and to secure the treasures in Goldsmiths', Weavers', and Haberdashers', halls; from the latter of which they carried off twenty thousand pounds.

The remainder of this political tragedy, which ended in the death of the king, is sufficiently detailed in the article ENGLAND.

During the protectorate of Oliver Cromwell, the city of London, intent upon trade, does not appear to have been shaken by any sort of commotion; a loan of one hundred and twenty thousand pounds was consented to, which sum the citizens advanced; and thus, the parliament and city being once more on good terms, the former gave Richmond Park to the citizens, and a thousand pounds in money for the use of the poor. The lord-mayor and aldermen, with the recorder, in their scarlet gowns, the mayor carrying the city-sword, attended the ceremony of Cromwell's installation at Westminster; and a few days after he was entertained by the corporation at Grocers' Hall, with all the formalities used at the reception of a crowned head; for which mark of respect and tacit allegiance, he returned his warm thanks to the citizens, and knighted the lord-mayor.

In 1655, an ordinance was passed by the protector, to limit the number of hackney-coaches to two hundred, and to place them under the care and government of the lord-mayor and court of aldermen. He also gave them a license to import four thousand chaldrons of coals, annually, for the use of the poor, duty free.

Three years after, Cromwell died; his son succeeded him; but the protection of the city could not prolong

his protectorate; and a general cry for a free parliament, originating in London, spread itself through the kingdom.

The citizens of London took a great share in accomplishing the restoration of the royal family to the kingdom and throne. They chose Monk major-general of their forces, and by his advice disarmed all who were suspected of favouring the rump-parliament; and kept a strong guard for the peace and quiet of the city, till the meeting of a free parliament, which was now resolved upon, in order to restore the monarchy, the royal family, and the church.

The new parliament being assembled, and all things ripe for the restoration, Charles sent letters to them and to general Monk. The parliament immediately appointed a committee to prepare an answer, which was forwarded the next day, inviting him to return and take possession of his crown and dominions. With the letters to the parliament, the king sent one to the lord-mayor, aldermen, and common-council, of the city, expressive of his satisfaction with their conduct and good intention to assist in the work of his restoration, and promising to manifest his particular regard for the city, not only by renewing their charter, and confirming all their ancient privileges, but also by adding to them, and granting any new favours which might advance the trade, wealth, and honour, of his native city.

The citizens were so elated on the receipt of this letter, that they presented the messengers with three hundred pounds; and deputed fourteen of the common-council to proceed immediately to Holland, with a present of ten thousand pounds to his majesty, and to assure him of their fidelity and most cheerful submission, and that they placed all their future hopes of prosperity and happiness in the assurance of his royal grace and protection, for the deserving of which their lives and fortunes should be always at his disposal.

Four days after this, the common-council made an order, that Richmond Park, lately given to the city by Cromwell, should be presented to his majesty on his return to England, with assurances that they had kept it with no other view than to preserve it for the royal interest.

The day following his majesty was proclaimed king at the usual places in London, with the greatest solemnity, in the presence of the lord-mayor, aldermen, recorder, and sheriffs, amidst the universal and joyful acclamations of the citizens.

His majesty landed at Dover on the 26th of May, 1660; and, on the 29th, he made his public entry into London, where he was received with every testimony of joy. The streets were lined with the trained-bands, and the city-companies in their liveries; the houses were adorned with the richest silks and tapestries; and a vast concourse of spectators crowded upon scaffolds, and in windows and balconies; while the lower orders were equally eager to express their satisfaction by tumultuous acclamations and loud huzzas. In short, every thing was conducted with the greatest appearance of unanimity and contentment.

In the year 1663, his majesty, in return for several tokens of loyalty shown by the citizens to his person and government, and for their effectual aid in restoring him to his throne, granted them a charter, in which, after reciting all the charters obtained from his predecessors, he ratifies and confirms them in the most ample manner.

This year is also distinguished by the institution of the Royal Society; that name being conferred by the king on a society of learned men, in London, who assembled weekly for the improvement of natural knowledge.

In the following year the citizens advanced the king a loan of one hundred thousand pounds. This, however, not being sufficient, they shortly after advanced the like sum; this ready concurrence was so well received by the parliament, when it assembled, that a vote of thanks was sent to the common-council by a deputation from both houses.



In the year 1665, about the beginning of May, there broke out, in London, the most dreadful plague that ever infected this kingdom, which swept away 68,596 persons, which, added to the number of those who died of other distempers, raised the bill of mortality, in this year, to 97,306. And the mortality raged so violently in July, that the houses were shut up, the streets deserted, and scarcely any thing to be seen therein but grass growing, innumerable fires for purifying the air, coffins, pest-carts, red crosses upon doors, with the inscription, "Lord have mercy upon us!" and continual cries of "Pray for us;" or the melancholy call of "Bring out your dead." The cause of this dreadful calamity was ascribed to the importation of infected goods from Holland, where the plague had committed great ravages the preceding year. And it was observed, during the whole time of its continuance, that there was such a general calm for many weeks together, that not the least wind could be perceived; the fires in the streets were kept burning with difficulty for want of a supply of air, and the very birds panted for breath.

It is probable that the numbers who died of this dreadful pestilence were greatly under-rated in the bills of mortality for that year; one parish, that of St. John the Evangelist, Watling-street, appears from them to have been wholly exempt from it, which is not to be credited when its situation is considered.

Affliction is well adapted to draw forth and display extraordinary instances of virtue. In this period of distress, Sir John Laurence, the lord-mayor, with equal humanity and intrepidity, faced every danger, in order to give assistance to those who stood in need of it. Too many, influenced by fear, acted in an opposite manner. Forty thousand servants were turned into the streets to perish, whom no one would receive; nay, the villagers drove them away with pitch-forks and fire-arms. Sir John, like the good Samaritan, took those wretched fugitives under his protection, relieved them with his own fortune till it was exhausted, and then solicited subscriptions for their support. The conduct of George Monk, duke of Albemarle, and William earl Craven, deserves also to be recorded. They assisted the civil magistrate in alleviating the evil, and terminating its progress. They, who had been accustomed to the terrors of war, behaved with the greatest heroism in the more trying scenes of death-beds, which neither courage nor wisdom could avert. The piety of the Christian, and the magnanimity of the hero, were also displayed by archbishop Sheldon. He continued in his palace at Lambeth whilst the contagion lasted, preserving, by his charities, multitudes who were sinking under disease and want; and, by his pastoral exertions, procured benevolences to a vast amount. Such benefactors are an honour not only to their own nation, but to human nature, and are the models we should endeavour to imitate.

In the midst of this dreadful calamity, the magistrates of London did not slacken from their usual activity in providing for the comforts of their fellow-citizens. Regulations were made about carmen and the prices of carriage; and others for the better management of the sale of coals, and the securing a regular supply of that important article. The last may be interesting, particularly at a time when so much imposition has been practised in that department of trade.

That the poor might be constantly supplied with coals in times of scarcity, and to defeat the combination of dealers therein, the several city-companies undermentioned were ordered to purchase and lay up yearly, between Lady-day and Michaelmas, the following quantities of coals; which were to be vended in such manner, and at such prices, as the lord-mayor and court of aldermen should, by written precept, direct; so that the coals should not be sold to loss.

	Chald.		Chald.
Mercers	- - 488	Fishmongers	- - 465
Grocers	- - 675	Goldsmiths	- - 525
Drapers	- - 562	Skinner's	- - 315

	Chald.		Chald.
Merchant-tailors	- 750	Innholders	- - 45
Haberdashers	- - 578	Founders	- - 7
Salters	- - 360	Poulterers	- - 12
Ironmongers	- - 255	Cooks	- - 30
Vintners	- - 375	Coopers	- - 52
Clothworkers	- - 412	Tylers and Bricklayers	19
Dyers	- - 105	Bowyers	- - 3
Brewers	- - 104	Fletchers	- - 3
Leatherfellers	- - 210	Blacksmiths	- - 15
Pewterers	- - 52	Apothecaries	- - 45
Cutlers	- - 75	Joiners	- - 22
White-bakers	- - 45	Weavers	- - 27
Wax-chandlers	- 19	Woolmen	- - 3
Tallow-chandlers	- 97	Woolmongers	- - 60
Armourers	- - 19	Scriveners	- - 60
Girdlers	- - 105	Fruiterers	- - 7
Butchers	- - 22	Plasterers	- - 8
Sadlers	- - 90	Brown-bakers	- - 12
Carpenters	- - 38	Stationers	- - 75
Cordwainers	- - 60	Embroiderers	- - 30
Barber-furgeons	- 60	Upholders	- - 9
Painter-stainers	- - 12	Musicians	- - 6
Curriers	- - 11	Turners	- - 13
Masons	- - 22	Basket-makers	- - 6
Plumbers	- - 19	Glaziers	- - 6

By the same act all retail dealers in coals were prohibited from meeting the vessels, or by their agents contracting for coals, before the ships were arrived in the port of London; on the penalty of five shillings for every chaldron of coals so forestalled, or bought by pre-contract. Why these excellent regulations are become obsolete it would be worth while to enquire; but it would be much better to revive them.

The most extensive and dreadful conflagration that ever afflicted the city of London, broke out about one o'clock in the morning of the 2d of September, 1666, in Pudding-lane; and, there not being a sufficient aid either of engines or of water, the flames, fomented by a violent easterly wind, soon got the better of the weak efforts made use of to put it out; and, in about thirty hours, they spread to Gracechurch-street towards the north-west, and to the Three Cranes, in the Vintry, towards the south-west, including Cannon-street, and the lanes, alleys, and courts, in the way; and, either by communication or the flakes from such a vast body of fire kindled by old timber houses, or by any of the other means which have been suspected, the flames burst out in divers and distant places; and the conflagration became so general, that there was not a building left standing, from the west end of Tower-wharf, in the east, to the Temple-church, in the west; nor from the north-end of Mincing-lane, in Fenchurch-street, from the west end of Leadenhall-street, and from the south-west end of Bishopsgate-street, as far as the entrance into Thread-needle-street, to Holborn-bridge, on the west, in a direct line; besides the damage done in Throgmorton-street, Lothbury, Coleman-street, Basinghall-street, Cateaton-street, Aldermanbury, Addle-street, Love-lane, Wood-street, Staining lane, Noble-street, and Silver-street; as length, it stopped at Pye-corner, near West Smithfield.

By this horrid conflagration, many thousand citizens were compelled to retire to the fields, destitute of all necessaries, and exposed to the inclemency of the weather; till a sufficient number of huts could be erected for their relief: his majesty immediately ordered a great quantity of naval bread to be distributed among them, and gave orders for the encouragement of the bringing of all sorts of provisions for their use.

This dreadful and destructive fire laid waste and consumed the buildings on four hundred and thirty-six acres of ground, four hundred streets, lanes, &c. thirteen thousand two hundred houses, the cathedral church of St. Paul, eighty-six parish-churches, six chapels, the magnificent buildings of Guildhall, the Royal Exchange, Custom-house, and Blackwell-hall, many hospitals and libraries, fifty-



fifty-two of the companies' halls, and a great number of other stately edifices; together with three of the city gates, four stone bridges, and the prisons of Newgate, the Fleet, the Poultry and Wood-street Compters; the loss of which, by the best calculation, amounted to 10,730,500. And, notwithstanding all this destruction, only six or eight persons lost their lives.

The irregularity of the buildings, the dark ill contrived wooden houses, and the narrow, crooked, and incommodious, streets of the city, had always been a subject of complaint. The extent of the conflagration now put it in the power of authority to rebuild London with greater uniformity and security; and such was the immediate attention of the court on this occasion, that his majesty issued a proclamation, while the ruins were yet smoking, to prohibit the rebuilding of houses, till public care might be taken for its re-edification with greater magnificence and uniformity than before, and with such materials as might most effectually prevent such another occurrence.

The parliament assembled with all speed; and, on the 13th of September, passed an act for erecting a court of judicature, for settling differences between landlords and tenants, respecting houses burned down and demolished by the late fire; and appointed the justices of the courts of King's Bench and Common Pleas, and the barons of the Exchequer, to be judges of the said court; who conducted themselves with such admirable impartiality and strict justice, that they gave universal content; and, in token of the general esteem of the citizens, their portraits were ordered to be hung up in Guildhall, where they remain to this day.

Soon after, an act of parliament was passed for rebuilding the city, which laid down rules and directions for all persons concerned therein.

It is a strange coincidence, that, as the fire began at Pudding-lane, it was stopped at Pye-corner, near Smithfield. The figure of a grossly-fat boy, with an inscription attributing this calamity to the sin of gluttony, placed on a house at Pye-corner, alludes no doubt to this circumstance; while the inscription on the Monument with equal absurdity imputes it to the Roman catholics.

The good consequences of this tremendous disaster, in preventing the returns of the plague, which for a series of ages had so frequently visited the capital, may teach us, that what we call calamities are frequently blessings in their effects. This terrible disorder has never appeared in London since the rebuilding of the city; which, under Providence, may partly be attributed to the enlargement of the streets, and the present attention to cleanliness. That great architect, sir Christopher Wren, exerted his fine genius in forming plans for rebuilding the city in the most noble and elegant manner; but private interest interfered, and obstructed the execution of his magnificent design. He was, however, permitted to display his taste in the erection of many public edifices, particularly a fine Doric pillar, two hundred and two feet high, called the Monument, raised near the spot where the conflagration began, in memory of the event.

On the 29th of October, 1675, when sir Robert Viner entered into his mayoralty, his majesty honoured the corporation with his company at Guildhall, and accepted the freedom of the city, in the chamberlain's office, from the hands of sir Thomas Player, then chamberlain. The lord-mayor, aldermen, and common-council, to show their sense of this instance of condescension, on the 18th of December following, waited on his majesty, at the Banqueting house, Whitehall, and presented him with a copy of his freedom, in a large square box of massy gold, with a seal inclosed in another box of the same metal, beautifully enriched with diamonds of immense value.

This cordiality did not last long. The frequent prorogations of the parliament began to raise an universal discontent, which was considerably increased by an opinion, that this and other unpopular measures were produced by the influence of the duke of York in the cabinet. He

was known to be a rigid papist; and, as one of the businesses most eagerly pursued by the parliament, when they did meet, was the bill for excluding him from the parliament, and indeed from the succession to the throne, the uneasiness of the people was manifested by numerous and repeated petitions to the throne; and the sense of the citizens of London, on this subject, was so strongly expressed in a petition presented to the king from them, as to give great offence to his majesty, whose answer purported, that "he looked upon himself to be the head of the government, and the only judge what was proper to be done in these cases."

The citizens were resolute to their purpose; and, accordingly, on Midsummer-day, 1679, Bethel and Cornish, two men on whom they could depend, were nominated for sheriffs, and, on a show of hands, elected by a considerable majority; but, a poll being demanded in favour of the court-candidates, a tumult ensued, which was represented by the mayor, and other supporters of the duke of York, as a riot; and the king issued a commission, on the same evening, for the trial of the rioters.

But, far from being over-awed by this exertion of authority, they persevered with more ardour than before in their opposition to papacy; and having, on the dissolution of parliament, which took place shortly after, re-elected their former representatives, in despite of every artifice made use of to procure the return of members devoted to the ministry, they gave them a paper of instructions, in the name of the citizens in common-hall assembled; in which, after thanking them for their unwearied endeavours in furthering their views during the last two parliaments, and more especially for promoting the bill for the exclusion of the duke of York; they conclude, by expressing their confident assurance, "that the said members will never consent to granting any money-supply, till they have effectually secured them against popery and arbitrary power."

From the sudden dissolution of parliament, the bill of exclusion, the darling object of the citizens, was lost; yet they chose every opportunity of showing their dislike to their future sovereign. An instance of this occurred shortly after, on occasion of an entertainment given, at Merchant-tailors' Hall, by the Artillery-company, to him, as their captain general. To lessen the gratification the duke might derive from this public mark of distinction, as much as was in their power, the anti-courtiers fixed on the same day for a public dinner, at Haberdashers' Hall, to be preceded by a sermon; the invitation to which ran in the following form: "It having pleased Almighty God, by his wonderful providence, to deliver and protect his majesty's person, the protestant religion, and English liberties, hitherto, from the hellish and frequent attempts of their enemies, the papists; in testimony of thankfulness herein, and for preserving and improving mutual love and charity among such as are sensible thereof, you are desired to meet many of the loyal protestant nobility, clergy, and citizens, on Friday, the 21st instant April, 1682, at ten of the clock, at St. Michael's church, in Cornhill; there to hear a sermon, and from thence to go to Haberdashers' Hall, to dinner; and to bring this ticket with you."

This scheme gave great offence to the court, it being represented to them as a matter of very dangerous tendency; to prevent which, an order of council was made, on the 19th of the same month, strictly charging the lord-mayor and aldermen, as they should answer the contrary at their peril, "to take immediate and effectual care to prevent and hinder the said meeting, as an unlawful assembly."

Party-diffensions now ran very high, and each side used their utmost efforts to secure the sheriffs of London and Middlesex in their interest. The lord-mayor, who was on the court-side, insisted on his right of nominating one, by drinking to him; a ceremony, by which it was understood, that the person so drunk to was put in nomination, subject to the election of the common-hall. But, depend-



ing on the strength of the lord-mayor's right to appoint, North, the person drank to, attended the court of aldermen some time before the day of election, and entered into bond to serve the office; and the lord-mayor issued his precept for holding the court on Midsummer-day, for confirming the appointment of North, and electing the other sheriff. This new form of the precept occasioned much confusion among the companies; some summoning their members to meet and choose sheriffs, &c. as formerly; some for confirmation and election; and some for choosing city-officers generally. On the day previous to the election, the opinion of the recorder being taken in the court of aldermen on the right of election, he declared, that it was vested in the commonalty, and that the sheriffs were judges of the poll, if there was one; in which opinion the court unanimously concurred. But, on Midsummer-day, the common crier, by direction of their mayor, proclaiming, "You gentlemen of the livery, attend your confirmation," the hall resounded with, "No confirmation." After a long and violent dispute, the mayor and aldermen retired, and left the livery at liberty to proceed to the election; when Papillion and Dubois had a considerable majority on the show of hands; but a poll was demanded and granted. At seven in the evening, the lord-mayor returned, and made an attempt to adjourn the court; but the sheriffs continued to take the poll till nine o'clock, when they adjourned it. The lord-mayor, disliking the proceedings of the sheriffs, made complaint to the king and council, of his having been grossly insulted; in consequence of which, the lord-mayor, with the aldermen and sheriffs, were ordered to attend the privy-council on the Monday following; when, being severally examined concerning the disturbance, the two sheriffs, Pilkington and Shute, with alderman Cornish, were committed prisoners to the Tower; and, at the same time, orders were given to the attorney-general to prosecute, with the utmost severity, all who should be found to have been promoters and encouragers of the late tumult.

On the ensuing Friday, the prisoners were, by a writ of habeas corpus, admitted to bail; and on the 1st of July, they called a common-hall; where, in defiance of the lord-mayor's order to the recorder to adjourn the hall to the 7th, they proceeded in the poll, and declared Papillion and Dubois duly elected. This so irritated the lord-mayor, that he and his party met at Guildhall on the 14th, when his lordship produced an order of council to begin all the proceedings anew. This order was vigorously opposed by many of the most eminent citizens, as an innovation of their rights and privileges; the lord-mayor, however, declared North duly elected by him, without the sanction of the common-hall, and proceeded to poll for the other; but, as none of those who had voted for Papillion and Dubois at the former election would vote at this, to give it a sanction, Box, another candidate, put up by the court, was elected without opposition. Box, however, finding his election could not be legally justified, declined serving the office; on which Mr. Peter Birch was chosen, and, with North, sworn in before the lord-mayor; while Papillion and Dubois were left to seek their remedy at law.

These arbitrary proceedings sufficiently evinced the determination of the court to carry their point by any means; and, the citizens being equally resolute in supporting their privileges, a more decisive blow was meditated, by which the king would become master, not only of the city of London, but also of every corporation. Accordingly, in Michaelmas term, a writ of *quo warranto* was issued against the city, to try the validity of its charter; in which it was asserted that the liberties and privileges of the city were usurped.

Notwithstanding all the arguments used by the citizens to support their conduct, and resist this infringement on their dear-bought liberties and privileges, yet the ministry were determined, at all events, to crush them. Accordingly, in Trinity term, 1683, the *quo warranto* being argued and determined, justice Jones pronounced the fol-

lowing sentence: "That a city might forfeit its charter; that the malversations of the common-council were acts of the whole city; and that the points set forth in the pleadings were just grounds for the forfeiting of a charter. Upon which premises the conclusion seemed to be, that, therefore, the city of London had forfeited its charter."

These unjust and arbitrary proceedings greatly alarmed the citizens; a court of common-council was summoned to deliberate on what measures were to be resorted to, in which the court-party prevailed so far as to procure an act of submission, which amounted to a voluntary surrender of the city's liberties, since it deprived them of the means of having the judgment reversed. The lord-mayor, with a deputation from the court, attended the king at Windsor, on the 18th of June, to acknowledge their misgovernment, solicit pardon, and beg for his majesty's commands and directions. Conditions were then proposed to them by the lord-keeper, and they were told that immediate compliance with them was the only way to stop entering up the judgment of the court, but that, on their submission, this measure should be abandoned. In the common-council called to receive the report of this deputation, the question for submission was carried by a majority of eighteen; but, after the king had thus compelled the citizens to submit to terms of his own proposing, on pretence that they had not tendered him a formal submission, he ordered the judgment upon the *quo warranto* to be entered up. This was no sooner done, than, by a commission under the great seal, the office of mayor was granted to sir William Pritchard, the present lord-mayor, and the office of sheriffs to Peter Daniel and Samuel Dashwood, during his majesty's pleasure. At the same time, sir George Treby, the recorder, was removed in favour of Thomas Jernier, who was knighted on the occasion. Eight of the aldermen, in the country or whig interest, were degraded, and the remaining sixteen made justices of the peace. Soon after, eight new aldermen were appointed; and, on the 20th of October, the king, in virtue of his assumed power, constituted sir Henry Tulse (one of the informers against alderman Pilkington) lord-mayor during his pleasure. The charter was not restored till the following reign.

It was in or about the year 1683 that the useful conveyance of letters and parcels by the *penny-post* was first set up in London and its suburbs, by a private undertaker, named Murray, an upholsterer by trade; who afterwards assigned the same to one Dockwra, who carried it on successfully for a number of years, until the government laid claim to the project, as being connected with the general post-office, which was a part of the crown-revenue; and a yearly pension of two hundred pounds was settled on Mr. Dockwra for his life.

In 1685, the manufactures and population of London received a considerable increase in the refugees who fled from France in consequence of the revocation of the edict of Nantes. The number of industrious artisans thus forced from their homes is stated to have amounted to eight hundred thousand, a great proportion of whom settled in the suburbs of London, particularly about Spitalfields, Soho, and St. Giles's, where their descendants still reside. To them London is indebted for either a knowledge of, or improvements in, the manufactures of silks, linen, paper, glass, hats, watches, cutlery, toys, &c. many of which are now brought to a state of unrivalled perfection. It is an observation worthy of attention, that these refugees have continued to speak the French language of the time at which their ancestors left France, and have preserved much of the native character and manners to this day. Their church-service is still, though protestant of the calvinistical persuasion, performed in French; and several of their preachers have been much admired, and regularly followed by those who wished to improve themselves in the French language. The descendants of these refugee-families, almost to the present day, have been very anxious to preserve the French language among them, by sending their children to the  
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different chapels, and the poorer sort by gaining admittance for them into the French Protestant School in Windmill-street, Tottenham-court road. But at length the race is nearly exhausted; that is, they are become English; their chapels are nearly deserted; and their school, wherein 80 children were formerly boarded, clothed, and well-educated, is now reduced, by the failure of contributions, to 18 girls only. Hogarth's picture of "Noon" represents their principal chapel, called the Greeks, in Crown-street, Soho, with the congregation coming out after morning-service: it is a most admirable representation, and the principal figures are portraits of well-known French protestants in that quarter about sixty years ago. At this chapel they use the liturgy of the church of England, very correctly translated into French, with the Psalms of old Clement Marot. About twenty years ago, while the Greeks could still boast a congregation respectable as to numbers, it was proposed to have a selection of the psalms translated into modern French verse, and set to new tunes. This was a thing of great importance in a small community, and could not be accomplished without a general agreement of the congregation, and a subscription to defray expenses. But the matter was soon put at rest by the observation of some very worthy old ladies, that it would be much better to leave the psalms and tunes "*comme le roi David les avoit écrits.*"

The death of Charles, which took place on the 6th of February, 1685, did not put an end to the arbitrary measures of the latter part of his reign. James II. had long governed in the king's name; and it was with a view to the introduction of popery that he had devised the plan of seizing the charters of corporate bodies, which he dreaded as the most effectual bars to his designs; so that the Londoners were placed in a worse situation, by his accession, than they had been in before. Alderman Cornish, who, when sheriff in 1680, had exerted himself to detect the popish plot, was singled out as a sacrifice to the new king's resentment. On the 13th of October, 1685, he was apprehended and committed to Newgate, without the use of pen, ink, or paper; and, on the Saturday after, received notice that an indictment for high treason was prepared against him, on which he was to be tried on the following Monday. It was in vain he applied for time to prepare for his defence; he was answered by the attorney-general, that he had not deserved so well of the government. He was tried on the appointed day, and, although the two evidences produced against him could not prove any fact to affect him, he was condemned, and, on the 23d of the same month, hanged, drawn, and quartered, facing his own house, at the end of King-street, Cheapside.

Long before James's accession to the throne, he had lost the affections of the people of every rank and station, and his subsequent conduct was so preposterous, that it hastened a revolution which prudence might have delayed, or perhaps prevented. When, at length, he found the increasing discontents had arisen to such a height, as to threaten the loss of his crown, he attempted conciliatory measures; but it was too late. Among other symptoms of his ill-timed repentance, he, on the 26th of October, 1688, restored the city-charter, by the hands of his chancellor Jefferies; in consequence of which, the *custos*, sir John Chapman, was constituted mayor until the ensuing feast of St. Simon and St. Jude; and the sheriffs were continued till the next day of election. A court of common-council was held on the following day, though it was Sunday, at which an order was made for restoring the liverymen of the several companies, that were on the livery at the time when judgment was given against the city; which order was immediately entered on the books of each company.

The prince of Orange landed at Torbay, on the 5th of November; and James left London, with an intention of marching against him with his army; but the defection became so general, that he speedily returned to the capi-

tal; where, agitated every moment with fresh proofs of the universal discontent, and not daring to repose confidence in any one, he precipitately embraced the resolution of withdrawing to France.

As soon as the king's flight was known, the lords spiritual and temporal met at Guildhall, and signed and published their declaration, to apply to the prince of Orange, and to assist his highness to obtain a free parliament, and to be ready to do all other matters that should tend to the public good. This was followed, the same day, by an address from the lord-mayor, aldermen, and common-council; and by another from the lieutenantancy of the city of London to the prince of Orange; in which they expressed similar sentiments.

Though the greatest precautions were used, it was impossible such an event should pass without some acts of violence. The populace, considering the papists as the authors of their late misfortunes and present distractions, plundered and burnt the mans-houses lately erected in the metropolis and its suburbs; and also attacked and plundered the houses of the Spanish and Tuscan ambassadors, where some of the most wealthy papists had deposited their valuable effects for safety. The losses of the ambassadors were, however, made good by the next parliament. Jefferies, the chancellor, being discovered about the same time, concealed in a sailor's dress, at Wapping, was seized by the mob, and treated with such severity, that he died shortly after of his bruises.

Being arrived at the period of the revolution, we may pause a moment to notice the surprising difference between the healthiness of London at present, notwithstanding its great increase of population, and what it was during the seventeenth century. At present the number of inhabitants in London, and the contiguous villages, which in fact make a part of it, is 1,099,104. We do not know exactly what it was in the seventeenth century; but, as it has been increasing ever since, and as, in the year 1753, the number of inhabitants did not exceed 750,000, we shall not probably err very much if we reckon the inhabitants of London, in 1688, at about half a million. Yet, in the years 1685, 1686, and 1687, the births and deaths were to each other as follows:

Years.	Births.	Deaths.
1685 - -	14,730 - -	23,222
1686 - -	14,694 - -	22,609
1687 - -	14,951 - -	21,460

So that, at this period, the deaths exceeded the births by no less a quantity than 7639, or more than one half of the whole births. At present the number of births exceeds that of the deaths. We shall instance only three years, as before:

Years.	Births.	Deaths.
1810 - -	19,923 - -	19,893
1811 - -	20,645 - -	17,043
1812 - -	20,404 - -	18,293

This diminution of deaths in so increased a population must be owing to the different mode of living, and the improvement in the width of the streets, and in cleanliness. The same improvements having taken place in every part of Great Britain, there can be no doubt that the value of human life is rather increased in this island; a circumstance very essential to be considered in the calculation of life-annuities, and in other matters of statistics and politics.

One of the first acts of authority performed by the prince of Orange, was to apply to the lord-mayor and common-council for a loan of two hundred thousand pounds; and the citizens cheerfully voted the money, which was raised in a short time. In the parliament which met on the 20th of March, 1690, the citizens of London received a fresh assurance of his majesty's great regard to the rights of the corporation, by his signing an act, declaring the proceedings of the former reigns, on the *quo warranto*, illegal and arbitrary. Every judgment given and recorded, for seizing the franchises of the city,

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were, by this act, reversed and made void. The mayor, commonalty, and citizens, of London, were declared to remain for ever a body corporate and politic. They were to have and enjoy all their rights and charters; and all charters, letters patent, &c. concerning any of the liberties, lands, and tenements, rights, titles, &c. made in consequence of the said judgment, were thereby declared void.

To prevent the recurrence of many disagreeable controversies in the nomination of aldermen, and the election of common-councilmen, an act of common-council was made, in 1691, by which it was enacted, that none but freemen, being householders, paying scot and bearing lot, should be entitled to vote on such occasions.

The city, being indebted to their orphans' fund, in the sum of 747,500*l.* occasioned by various accidents and public calamities, applied to parliament for relief in 1694; and obtained an act, by which a fund was established for the re-payment of the debt. This act, however, was procured by bribing some of the leading members of the house of commons; among other sums distributed on this account, sir John Trevor, the speaker, received a thousand guineas; which being discovered, he was, in the next session, expelled the house for corruption and breach of trust; as was another, who had received twenty guineas for the same purpose.

This year is distinguished, in the annals of London, by the institution of the Bank of England. See the article BANK, vol. ii. p. 672.

In the year 1697, king William being returned from Holland, after the conclusion of the treaty of Ryfwick, he was earnestly requested, by the lord-mayor and citizens, to make his public entry into the city. In compliance with which, on the 16th of November, his majesty set out from Greenwich, attended by his royal highness the prince of Denmark, the principal officers of state, and a great number of the nobility and gentry. His majesty was received at St. Margaret's hill, in Southwark, by the lord-mayor, aldermen, &c. in their formalities, on horseback; who, after congratulating him on the joyful occasion, conducted him through the city to Whitehall, amidst the acclamations of a prodigious concourse of spectators. The procession was solemn, and the city was embellished with the most pompous decorations.

Billinggate was opened on the 10th of May, 1693, by virtue of an act of parliament, as a free-market for the sale of fish, six days in a week; with permission to sell smackrel on Sundays, before and after divine service. Billinggate was once a small port, where almost every article of commerce was landed; and it now continues to be the only place in the metropolis to which the fishing-smacks bring their cargoes. It is also the chief resort of small vessels laden with oranges, lemons, Spanish onions, and nuts; and, in consequence, many orange-merchants live in the neighbourhood. From a list of the fish brought to market in the time of Edward I. it appears that several kinds, then probably esteemed dainties, are now condemned as unfit for food: amongst these may be reckoned the conger, the porpoise, and the seal. Great quantities of salmon are sent from the north fisheries to Billinggate, packed in ice, which is preserved for that purpose, throughout the year, in ice-houses. The fair ladies of this place are proverbially famous for the faculty of scolding: a Billinggate fishwoman is generally an adept in the science, and out-hectors all the sisterhood of vixens. Here a foreigner may learn the English language in all its purity, unadulterated by modern refinements.

King William died on the 8th of March, 1702: in consequence of which the princess Anne, daughter of the late king James, succeeded to the crown, to the universal joy and satisfaction of the nation. The great successes obtained over the French in the preceding campaign occasioned the queen to appoint the 12th of November for a public thanksgiving; on which day her majesty went in grand procession to St. Paul's cathedral, whither she was attended by both houses of parliament; and the citizens

exerted their utmost abilities to render that day more pompous and brilliant than had ever been done on any other occasion.

On the 16th of November, 1703, there happened the most dreadful storm of wind that had ever been known in the memory of man. It began about ten o'clock at night, and continued to rage with the greatest violence till about seven in the morning, when it gradually abated. During the course of the night the people were under the most dreadful apprehensions, fearful of being killed by the ruins of their habitations. About eight in the morning the wind was sufficiently moderate to admit them to look out at their doors, when the destruction that had been made struck every beholder, whose first consideration was to inquire after their friends and relations; and the next day afforded sufficient employment in viewing the universal havock all over the city and suburbs. Upwards of two thousand stacks of chimneys were blown down in and about London; the streets were covered with tiles and slates from the roofs of houses; the lead on the tops of several churches was rolled up like skins of parchment; and at Westminster-abbey, Christ's Hospital, St. Andrew's, Holborn, and many other places, it was carried off from the buildings. The roof of the guard-room at Whitehall was carried entirely away, and the great weathercock blown down. Two new-built turrets on the church of St. Mary Aldermay, one of the spires of St. Saviour's, Southwark, and the four pinnacles at St. Michael's, Crooked-lane, were entirely blown down; the vanes and spindles of weathercocks in many other places were bent; several houses near Moorfields were levelled to the ground; as were about twenty other whole houses in the out-parts, with a great number of brick walls, and the gable ends of houses out of number. Twenty-one persons were killed by the fall of the buildings, and about two hundred greatly maimed in the ruins, besides those drowned in the river. The loss sustained by the city of London alone, was estimated at two millions. The damage at sea, however, far exceeded that by land; for, in that dreadful night, no fewer than twelve men of war were lost, and upwards of eighteen hundred men perished; besides the loss of a great number of merchant-ships, computed at a much greater value. All the ships in the river, four excepted, were driven from their moorings, and thrown on-shore, between Shadwell and Limehouse, in the greatest confusion. Upwards of five hundred wherries were entirely dashed to pieces; above sixty barges were found foul of London-bridge; and as many more sunk or staved between that and Hammersmith. In short, the prospect on the river afforded a sight equally dismal with that on the land. It is not generally known that every year, on the same day, a sermon is preached at a meeting-house in Little Wild-street, Lincoln's-inn Fields, to commemorate and deprecate the return of so dreadful a visitation.

In the year 1704, an act of common-council was passed for regulating the nightly watch of the city, by which it was ordained, that a number of strong able-bodied men should be provided by each ward; and also that the deputy and common-council of every ward should have power to oblige every person occupying any house, shop, or warehouse, either to watch in person, or to pay for an able-bodied man to be appointed thereto by the said deputy and common-councilmen; the said watchmen to be provided with a lantern and candle, and well and sufficiently armed with halberts; and to watch from nine in the evening till seven in the morning from Michaelmas to the 1st of April, and from ten till five from the 1st of April to Michaelmas. The total number of watchmen appointed by this act was five hundred and eighty-three.

In 1708, the fiery zeal of contending parties broke out into a most violent flame at the prosecution of Dr. Henry Sacheverel, chaplain of St. Saviour's, Southwark, before the house of lords, on an impeachment of high crimes and misdemeanors by the commons, for preaching two sermons. The populace were persuaded by the Tories, that

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instead of the doctor's ruin, that of the church was intended; and, believing the same to be a contrivance of the presbyterians, breathed destruction to them and all other dissenters. Thus spirited up, they attacked the meeting-house of Mr. Burgefs, a presbyterian minister, in Newcourt, Little Lincoln's-inn Fields, and, breaking it open, stripped it of its doors, casements, sconces, wainscot, pews, and pulpit, which they carried into Lincoln's-inn Fields; and, while they were erecting the same into a pile, a party was sent to surprize Burgefs at his house, in order to have burnt him in his pulpit on the top of the same; but he luckily avoided their fury by escaping out at a back window. After this, they divided into different parties, and destroyed the meeting-houses in St. John's Square, Newstreet, Drury-lane, and Leather-lane. But before next morning this dangerous tumult was suppressed by her majesty's guards, sent for that purpose. The trained-bands were continually kept on duty during the trial of the doctor, who at last was condemned not to preach for three years, and his two sermons to be burnt at the Royal Exchange by the common hangman.

The number of houses and inhabitants being greatly increased in the city of London and its suburbs, the churches were thereby rendered insufficient for their accommodation; wherefore the parliament, in 1710, enacted, that "fifty new churches should be erected in or near the populous cities of London and Westminster, or suburbs thereof." For which purpose they laid a duty of two shillings upon every chaldron or ton of coals that should be brought into the port of London. This circumstance was egregiously mistaken by a foreign Londinographer, who asserts that St. Paul's and many other churches were built on "sea-coal mines."

Many irregularities being complained of in the coal-meter's office, in the city, a committee was appointed to inquire into them: whose report being approved of, the court of lord-mayor and aldermen made an order for their future regulation, in conformity to the ancient method and usage.

In the year 1713, peace being made with France, it was publicly proclaimed in London on the 7th of July; on which occasion both houses of parliament attended a general thanksgiving at St. Paul's. Her majesty, being ill of the gout, was unable to be present at the solemnity. She died on the 1st of August, 1714; when George-Lewis, elector of Hanover, was proclaimed king of Great Britain, and soon after made his public entry into London, accompanied by his son, prince George. In a few days after, the city and lieutenancy addressed his majesty, in form, at St. James's; who, in reply, said, "I take these addresses very kindly. I have lately been made sensible of what consequence the city of London is, and therefore shall be sure to take all their privileges and interests into my particular protection."

His majesty having received an invitation from the city, to dine at Guildhall on the approaching lord-mayor's day, he was graciously pleased to accept of the same; at which time, his majesty and the prince and princess of Wales, attended by a numerous train of nobility, went to the usual place of standing, opposite Bow-church, in Cheap-side, and, after having beheld the pompous cavalcade, were conducted by the sheriffs to Guildhall, where they were sumptuously entertained by the citizens, who exerted the utmost of their abilities to convince them of their loyalty and affection for his majesty's person and government. And, the lord-mayor having the honour to present the first glass of wine to the king, his majesty was pleased to order a patent to be passed for creating his lordship a baronet of this kingdom; and, at the same time, ordered a thousand pounds to be paid to the sheriffs, for the relief and discharge of poor people imprisoned for debt.

The king having informed the parliament of his receiving certain advices from abroad, of an intended invasion in favour of the pretender, the corporation of Lon-

don, and the merchants and other traders of the same city, presented separate addresses to his majesty on the occasion, containing the strongest assurances of their loyalty and support, in defence of his royal person and government. This threatened invasion, however, soon afterwards turned out to be an open rebellion, fomented and brought about in Scotland by the earl of Mar, who raised the pretender's standard at Braemar, on the 9th of September; but this rebellion was of short duration.

The winter of this year is remarkable for a hard frost, which began in the last week of November, and continued, with some short intermissions, until the 9th of February, 1716. The severity of it was greater than any man living could remember; the Thames having been frozen, nearly the whole time, so strongly, that all sorts of wares were sold on it; and, on the 19th of January, two large oxen were roasted whole upon the ice. The vast quantities of snow that fell, at different times, during this frost, made the streets of London almost impassable.

The most prominent of the transactions of the year 1720, never had, nor, it is to be hoped, ever will have, its parallel, in the annals of the metropolis, and may serve as a perpetual memento to legislators, of the danger of suffering the honest industry of a nation to be diverted from its regular course, by fallacious speculations and visionary projects. See BUBBLE, vol. iii. p. 467.

Advice being received, in the year 1722, of another conspiracy in favour of the pretender, viscount Townshend, one of the principal secretaries of state, by his majesty's command, wrote a letter to the lord-mayor, acquainting him with this circumstance. A very loyal and dutiful address was presented on the following day by the lord-mayor, aldermen, sheriffs, and recorder, of London, which was very graciously received. On the same day a proclamation was published for putting the laws in force against papists and nonjurors, commanding all papists and reputed papists to remove from the cities of London and Westminster, and all places within ten miles of the same. This was accompanied with every precaution a wise and able government could suggest. Amongst other things, the privy-council ordered the several lieutenancies, within the bills of mortality, to return a true and just account of the number of horses found within their several jurisdictions; when the sum total did not amount to more than 17,601, including saddle-horses, coach-horses, and draught-horses: but in this account there is no mention made of the borough of Southwark, nor of any part on that side of the river Thames. This conspiracy came to nothing.

The vast increase of buildings in the western suburb of London requiring a greater supply of fresh water than the existing works could furnish, an act of parliament was passed in this year, authorising a newly-erected company, called the Chelsea water-company, to dig basons, reservoirs, &c. for the better supply of the city and liberties of Westminster, and parts adjacent, with water.

The election of lord-mayor for the city of London, this year, coming on, as usual, at the common-hall, on the 29th of September, sir Gerard Conyers and sir Peter Delme, both of great fortune and merit, and also the two aldermen next the chair, were put in nomination, and declared to have the majority of hands. But a poll was demanded, and granted, for sir George Mertins and sir Francis Forbes; which began on the first of October and ended on the third. And next day the sheriffs declared that they had cast up the poll, and that the majority of votes had fallen upon sir Gerard Conyers and sir Peter Delme; who being returned to the court of aldermen, they made choice of the former; which, in all probability, brought on the following application to parliament. On the 14th of December, 1724, many citizens of London petitioned the house of commons, setting forth several grievances they laboured under in the said city, and praying, "That, for promoting the welfare, for preserving the liberties, peace, and tranquillity, of the said city, and for settling elections on a just and lasting foundation, the house would take the premises."



premises into consideration, and give the petitioners such relief as the house should think fit." Whereupon a bill was ordered to be brought in, for regulating elections in the city of London; and for preserving the peace, good order, and government, of the said city. This bill created a great ferment in the city, and was strongly opposed in the house of commons by three of the city-representatives, who received the thanks of the court of common-council for their strenuous endeavours to prevent it from passing into a law. As soon as the citizens knew that the bill was sent up to the house of lords, a great number of them petitioned the house against it, as being injurious to their liberties. The bill was passed into a law; but the fifteenth clause, by which a negative in passing acts of common-council was given to the lord-mayor and aldermen, was afterwards repealed.

George II. was proclaimed king on the 15th of June, 1727; and, having been invited, soon after, by the corporation of London, to dine at Guildhall on the approaching lord-mayor's day, his majesty came into the city, assisted at the dinner, which was most sumptuously served, and honoured the ball with his presence till eleven o'clock in the evening.—At his departure, he ordered the sum of one thousand pounds to be paid to the sheriffs, for the relief and discharge of poor insolvent debtors. The expense of this entertainment, as it is recorded in the chamber of London, amounted to 4889l. 4s.

In the year 1728, a daring project was concerted to rob the queen on her return at night from the city, as was afterwards confessed by one of the gang when under sentence of death. This scheme, however, was happily frustrated by the villains being busily employed, at the time her majesty passed, in robbing sir Gilbert Heathcote, an alderman of London, as he was returning in his chariot from the house of commons. This circumstance, together with the great number of robberies which had been committed in the most daring manner within the cities of London and Westminster, greatly alarmed both the court and city; and letters were immediately sent from the secretaries of state to all the magistrates, enjoining them to use their utmost endeavours to suppress such villainies, and to bring the offenders to justice.

An idea may be formed of the state of the commerce of London at this period by the number of vessels which arrived at its port between Christmas, 1727, and Christmas, 1728; viz. from foreign ports, British vessels, 1839; foreign ships, 213; coasters, 6837: total, 8889 vessels. To compare this with recent times, see the article ENGLAND, vol. vi. p. 803-805. and GREAT BRITAIN, vol. viii. p. 823-825.

On the last day of December, in the year 1731, the tide in the river Thames rose so high, that it overflowed Wapping, Tooley-street, and many other places; and did incredible damage by filling cellars and warehouses, and spoiling great quantities of different sorts of merchandise.

In the year 1734, the chamberlainship of the city of London being vacant, a great contest arose between the citizens and the ministry, respecting the election of a proper person into that office. The candidates were Mr. John Bosworth, a tobacconist, of Newgate-street; Mr. William Selwin, a silkman, in Paternoster-row; and Mr. John Thomas, a fishmonger, near the Monument. Mr. Thomas, making no show of hands in the common-hall, declined; but the numbers appeared so equal for each of the other candidates, that a poll was demanded by the friends of Mr. Selwin against Mr. Bosworth, who was declared to have the majority of hands. The poll was managed with all the dexterity and influence that can be imagined; and, though both the candidates were personally well respected by their fellow-citizens, and were looked upon to be equally qualified for the discharge of that important trust, yet the contest, for seven days, was the warmest ever known; the citizens being determined to preserve their freedom of election against any ministerial opposition whatever.

On the close of the poll, however, the numbers appeared so equal, that a scrutiny was demanded; and when the declaration was made, they stood as follows:

For Mr. Bosworth,	-	-	-	3212
Mr. Selwin,	-	-	-	3208

In consequence of which, to the great satisfaction of the citizens, Mr. Bosworth was declared duly elected, and chamberlain of the city of London. The ministry, however, so highly resented this strenuous opposition to a candidate of their choice, that they conferred the office of receiver-general of the land-tax, which had generally been annexed to the chamberlainship, on their disappointed friend, Mr. Selwin, who had obtained the ill-will of the independent voters of the city of London, by having unadvisedly solicited the ministerial party to oblige all their dependents to vote for him.

In the year 1735, the inhabitants of the precinct of Blackfriars claiming a privilege of exemption from the jurisdiction of the city of London, in right of the ancient monastery dissolved there by king Henry VIII. occasioned the lord-mayor and aldermen to ascertain their right thereto; which they did by a trial in the court of King's Bench, on the 10th of July; wherein John Bosworth, esq. chamberlain of the city of London, was plaintiff, and Daniel Watson, shalloon and druggot-feller, defendant. The action was brought against the latter, for opening a shop in Blackfriars, and retailing his goods there, without being a freeman of the city. The counsel for the plaintiff alleged, that Blackfriars actually belonged to the city of London when it was a monastery, and before trades were ever occupied there; to prove which, they produced several ancient records, viz. a charter of Edward I. and a record, 2 Richard II. calling it the *Friary of London*; and another, 21 Hen. VIII. mentioning a parliament, held at the Friars-preachers of the city of London, Nov. 3, 1530; and other records of this kind; they likewise cited a parallel case to this, 15 Car. I. when an action was brought against one Philpot, a shoemaker, of Blackfriars, for opening a shop, and vending shoes there, without being free of the city. After a fair trial, by an equal and indifferent jury of the county of Hertford, a verdict was given for the city, with five shillings damages. In consequence of this decision, Blackfriars became a precinct of the ward of Farringdon Within, and sends two members to represent it in the common-council of this city.

An act of common-council was passed, in November, for the better regulation of bakers; in which it was enacted, that, in addition to the fine, the name and place of abode of every baker, convicted of making bread under weight, shall be published.

The streets of London being greatly infested with robbers and house-breakers, owing to the insufficiency of the lights in the night, application was made to parliament, by the lord-mayor and common-council, to enable them to light the streets in a more effectual manner; in compliance with which, an act was passed, empowering the lord-mayor, aldermen, and commonalty, to erect a sufficient number of such glass lamps, and in such places, as they shall judge proper, to be kept burning from the setting to the rising of the sun, throughout the year; and giving them power to make a rate, to defray the expense thereof.

The city, in 1739, petitioned the house of lords against the Spanish convention, by which they found themselves aggrieved.—It was on this occasion that sir Robert Walpole took the liberty to call the citizens of London *sturdy beggars*; and, for the purpose of propagating a mean opinion of them, and taking off the weight of their petitions in matters of national concern, he circulated printed lists of the common-councilmen of London, with the addition of their several trades, or companies, to insinuate, that they were a contemptible body of tradesmen or mechanics:



chanics. The citizens, on their part, took every opportunity of showing their dislike to the minister's conduct; and, discovering that sir George Champion, the senior alderman next the chair, and member for Aylesbury, had voted in favour of the convention, they rejected him from the office of lord-mayor, and ever after held him in the greatest contempt.

On the 10th of September, about seven o'clock in the evening, there fell a most violent storm of thunder and lightning, accompanied with very heavy rain, which continued till near twelve at night. Though the thunder was not very violent, yet the flashes of lightning were as quick, and at the same time as strong, as perhaps were ever known in this part of the world. This tempestuous night was remarkable for the destruction of a large aviary of sparrows, which had for many years rooted in a grove of high trees adjoining to Mile-end turnpike. Such numbers of them were killed by the lightning, that, the next morning, the ground, within the circumference of the trees, was covered with their dead bodies. The Rev. Mr. Entick, in his History of London, asserts, that he was an eye-witness of this circumstance.

The winter of the year 1739 was a season of the greatest distress to the poor, in consequence of a most severe frost, which began on Christmas-day, and continued till the end of February. Its intenseness and bad effects exceeded all others ever remembered. The river Thames was so solidly frozen, that great numbers of people dwelt upon it in tents, and a variety of booths were erected for the entertainment of the populace. A few days after it began, a very high wind arose, which did considerable damage to the shipping: several vessels laden with corn, others with coals, &c. were sunk by the ice; many had holes beat in their sides by falling on their anchors: several lighters and boats were confined under the ice: in short, a more dismal scene presented itself on the river Thames than had ever been beheld by the oldest man living. The damage done between the Medway and London-bridge was computed at one hundred thousand pounds, besides many persons who lost their lives from the severity of the weather. The watermen and fishermen were entirely disabled from earning their livelihood, as were the lower classes of labourers, whose employment is in the open air; and the calamity was rendered more severe by coals and other necessaries being advanced in their price in proportion to the intenseness and continuance of the frost. Happily for the poor, the hand of liberality was never more extended; great benefactions were given by those of opulent fortunes, and considerable collections were made in most of the parishes in London; by the assistance of which, many families were preserved, that must otherwise have inevitably perished.

At the election for lord-mayor in the year 1740, the court of aldermen first chose the junior alderman returned to them by the livery, who requested permission to decline; which being granted, the livery returned the senior alderman again, with one who had passed the chair. The aldermen again rejected the senior alderman; and Humphrey Parsons, esq. the object of their choice, having consented to serve a second time, a motion was made in the court of common-council to return him their thanks; and, an amendment being proposed, a long and very warm debate ensued upon the right of the aldermen to vote separately, and put a negative upon any question; and the claim being persisted in by its supporters, some of the aldermen and a considerable number of the common-council left the court, protesting against the exercise of the right. At length, on the 11th of November, this question was finally determined, against the right, in both the courts of aldermen and common-council, by a considerable majority. Mr. Parsons did not live above four months; and on his death, which took place on the 21st of March, 1740, alderman Lambert was chosen to succeed him in the mayoralty for the remainder of the year; who, being accepted by the lord-chancellor on the even-

ing of his election, went next day in great state to the Tower, attended by the twelve companies, &c. and was sworn into his office by lord Cornwallis, the constable, in a booth erected for that purpose without the west gate, agreeable to ancient custom, when the barons of the Exchequer are out of town.

The election of an alderman for Broad-street ward was soon after attended with great trouble and expense. The candidates were Charles Ewer, esq. and Mr. Eggleton. On the close of the poll, a scrutiny was demanded; and, the numbers appearing to be exactly equal, the lord-mayor held a wardmote at Drapers' Hall for a new election; at which Charles Ewer, esq. meeting with no opposition, was declared duly elected. In consequence of this, Mr. Eggleton petitioned the court of aldermen, setting forth his right to the election. On the day following, a rule was made in the court of King's Bench, to show cause why a mandamus should not be granted to swear in Mr. Eggleton, alderman of Broad-street ward; and, on the twenty-eighth, the court of aldermen, by consent of both parties, returned that neither party was duly elected. So that, the determination of the election being left to the court of King's Bench, it was tried in the Michaelmas-term following, and decided in favour of Charles Ewer, esq. who was accordingly sworn in.

An accurate account of the number of houses in every precinct of the twenty-five wards within the bars, or limits of the lord-mayor's jurisdiction, Bridge-ward without not being included, was published, in 1741, by Mr. John Smart, of the Town-Clerk's Office; by which account it appears that the number of houses amounted, at that time, to twenty-one thousand six hundred and forty-nine.

From the great increase of the metropolis since the date of the charter of Charles I. by which the lord-mayor, recorder, and such of the aldermen as had served the office of mayor, and also the three senior aldermen who had not passed the chair, were constituted justices of peace for the city and its liberties, it was found necessary to extend this privilege to the whole body of aldermen; and a charter, dated August 15, 1741, was obtained to that effect.

In Michaelmas-term, 1742, a cause was tried before lord-chief-justice Willes, in which the Company of Weavers were plaintiffs, and Mr. Thomas Handyside defendant. Mr. Handyside was free of the weavers' company; but, not being free of the city, had refused to take up the livery when he was called upon for that purpose. It appearing, however, to the court, that every member of a company is eligible to the livery, though not free of the city, a verdict was given in favour of the plaintiffs.

The same day another cause was tried on an action brought by Anthony Wright against William Ayres, the lessee of the toll of London-bridge, who had received, and insisted upon a prescriptive right to receive, two pence for the passage of each cart laden with one ton weight, or upwards, passing over London-bridge. It appearing, however, by the evidence, that the usage had been to take one penny only for a cart with two horses, although laden with a ton or upwards, a verdict was given in favour of the plaintiff.

On the 25th of February, 1744, a proclamation was issued, commanding all papists to depart the cities of London and Westminster, and within ten miles of the same; for confining papists and reputed papists to their habitations; for seizing the arms and horses from such as refuse to take the oaths, &c. and for putting the laws in execution against the instigators of tumultuous proceedings. The kingdom of France having countenanced the pretender's son in an intention to invade Great Britain, gave rise to this necessary act of intolerance; and, in this, as in several cases, the innocent, we must confess, were involved with the guilty, and suffered the same severity of the law. The fear of their joining a prince of their own



religious persuasion was not groundless, and it apologized sufficiently for the rigour of the measure. War was proclaimed against France on the 31st of March following.

The journeymen staymakers and tailors having entered into a combination, and ceased to work, in order to obtain better wages than established by the law, the following resolution was passed by the justices at their meeting on the 26th of September of the same year, viz. "That, if any journeyman should refuse to work for the wages settled by act of parliament, he should be committed to hard labour for two months; and, that the master that paid more than the act allowed should forfeit five pounds." This resolution was no sooner published than it produced the desired effect; the combination ceased, and the journeymen returned quietly to their respective employments.

The streets of the city of London were at this time so pestered with street-robbers, that it induced the lord-mayor and aldermen to petition his majesty for "a speedy, rigorous, and exemplary, execution of the laws upon the persons of offenders, as they shall fall into the hands of justice." In consequence of this petition, on the 9th of January following, his majesty issued a proclamation, promising a reward of one hundred pounds, over and above all other rewards, for the apprehending of every person found guilty of robbery or murder.

The eagerness of the remains of the Stuart family to recover the throne which they had lost in the person of their ancestor James II. induced the two sons of the pretender to erect their standard in Scotland. A number of disaffected persons surrounded it in open rebellion; and a general dread began to prevail. Upon this occasion the city of London was very prompt in defence of the house of Hanover. The lord-mayor, aldermen, and common-council, attended by the sheriffs, recorder, and all the city-officers, waited upon his majesty at Kensington, with their address, as the representative body of the city of London; in which they congratulated his majesty on his safe return to his British dominions, and on the conquest of Cape Breton; and conclude, "The rash and daring attempts of the professed enemies of this nation, in favour of a popish and abjured pretender, have filled the hearts of us, your loyal citizens, with the utmost abhorrence and detestation; and we beg leave to give your majesty the most solemn assurance, that we will be ready upon all occasions to sacrifice all that is dear and valuable to us, in defence of your majesty's royal person and family, and in support of our happy constitution, both in church and state." The next day the merchants of London presented a most dutiful and loyal address on the same occasion. And so anxious were they for supporting the public credit, that above eleven hundred of the most considerable merchants, traders, and proprietors of the public funds, subscribed their names to the following agreement: "We, the undersigned merchants, and others, being sensible how necessary the preservation of public credit is at this time, do hereby declare, that we will not refuse to receive bank-notes in payment of any sum of money to be paid us; and we will use our utmost endeavours to make all our payments in the same manner." In consequence of this resolution, the demands, which had been very considerable at the bank a few days before for cash, began greatly to diminish. These hasty demands were said to have been occasioned by the papists and jacobites, with a design to hurt public credit as much as possible, and to get gold to send to the rebels; but in this they were disappointed by the directors ordering all payments to be made in silver, which also made the business of paying money go on very slow, and gave time for credit to recover itself. The run upon the bank continued but a few days.

Besides the associations formed for the defence of the city of London, as noticed under the article ENGLAND, vol. vi. p. 719, a large subscription was raised out of the chamber of London for such soldiers as were, or should thereafter be, employed in his majesty's service, during the winter sea-

son, in order to crush the rising rebellion. But, on the other hand, new acts of severity were exercised against popish priests resident in or within ten miles of London. It is easy to conceive how in these troublesome times the minds of all men in the metropolis must have been agitated; when at length the victory of Culloden put an end to their anxious suspense. See the article ENGLAND, before quoted.—The loyalty of the citizens prompted their gratitude towards their first magistrate; and sir Richard Hoare, who was lord-mayor in this troublesome year, received the particular thanks of the court of common-council and court of lieutenancy, for his diligence and steady attachment to his country, during the late time of imminent danger; for his constant readiness to call those courts together; and, in particular, for his personal attendance on all occasions.

In 1747, a bill, in consequence of a petition from a court of common-council, was brought in and passed, by which the duty of sixpence per chaldron, on coals and culm, was continued for thirty-five years longer, on the following conditions: First, that out of the produce of the said imposition, the city should pay three thousand pounds per annum to the Mercers' company; and, secondly, that the residue should be applied to the Orphans' fund; for the benefit of which, all the city manors, lands, &c. should stand charged with the yearly sum of two thousand pounds, over and above the eight thousand pounds applied by the former statute. It was also enacted, that, as the fund for raising the four per cent. interest on the Orphans' capital stock had produced a very large surplus, (including the sum of 21,735l. 17s. 9d. due from the citizens to the said fund;) to make good the yearly sum of two thousand pounds, which ought to have been raised on their personal estates, this surplus should be applied to pay off the principal sum of the Orphans' debt. Soon after the obtaining of this act, a committee was appointed to deliberate on the discharge of the Orphans' debt, and to consider what savings might be necessary, to enable the citizens to pay the additional sum of two thousand pounds per annum to this fund, which was to commence at Michaelmas 1750. This committee reported, that, in order to discharge the Orphans' debt, it would be necessary to borrow the sum of twenty-five thousand pounds; which was agreed to by the court of common-council, who empowered the committee to treat for the loan, at three pounds six shillings per cent. interest. From the sum thus borrowed, the chamberlain, on the 20th of June, 1751, was ordered to discharge the above sum of 21,735l. 17s. 9d. due to the fund from the city, and place it to the credit of the Orphans' fund, in discharge of the debt. In conformity to the terms of the before-mentioned statute, the corporation, from that time, constantly raised the sum of two thousand pounds per annum.

The patriotic and loyal zeal which animated the city of London, as we stated above, was evinced with so much liberality, for the encouragement of the soldiers employed in suppressing the late rebellion, that the surplus then remaining in the hands of the committee amounted to three thousand three hundred pounds; which sum was disposed of to public charities, in the following manner:

To St. Bartholomew's Hospital	- - - -	£1000
To St. Thomas's Hospital	- - - -	1000
To the Hospital at Bath	- - - -	1000
To the London Infirmary	- - - -	100
To the Westminster Infirmary	- - - -	100
To the Infirmary at Hyde-park Corner	- - - -	100
		<hr/>
		£3300

In the morning of the 25th of March, a fire broke out in Exchange-alley, which, notwithstanding a plentiful supply of water, and every possible assistance, consumed one hundred and eighteen houses before noon. Four lives were lost; and the property destroyed was valued, by the lowest computation, at upwards of two hundred thousand



fund pounds. A contribution was immediately set on foot for the relief of such of the sufferers as were objects of charity; whose claims amounted to eight thousand pounds; the sum collected on this occasion was 5,774l. 19s. 4d. the whole of which was divided among the claimants; and, for the more expeditious re-building of the houses destroyed by this accident, the common-council permitted as many non-freemen as might be found necessary, to be employed in the work.

The following regulations, being entirely municipal, seem to require a full detail in an account of the city of London. At a court of common-council, held the 7th of April, a bill passed for repealing all former acts of that court, touching the nomination and election of sheriffs of the city of London and county of Middlesex, and for regulating such nominations and elections for the future; in which it was ordained, That the right of electing persons to the office of sheriffalty shall be vested in the liverymen; and that the general election-day shall be the 24th of June, except it be Sunday, and then on the following day. That the person or persons elected to the said office, shall take the same upon him or them on the vigil of St. Michael the archangel, next following the said election, and hold the same for and during the space of one whole year, from thence next ensuing, and no longer, when some other persons shall be duly elected, and sworn into the same office in their stead. That, at the general elections for sheriffs, all the aldermen, who have not served, shall be put in nomination, according to their seniority, before any commoner. That the lord-mayor may, between the 14th day of April and the 14th day of June, in every year, nominate, in the court of lord-mayor and aldermen, nine persons, free of this city, who shall be put in nomination for the said office, before any other commoner, and in the same order as nominated by the lord-mayor. That, if any so nominated shall, within six days after notice, pay four hundred pounds to the chamberlain, and twenty marks towards the maintenance of the ministers of the several prisons, together with the usual fees, every such person shall be discharged from serving the said office, except he shall afterwards take upon him the office of an alderman. That any two liverymen, having a right to vote at the election of sheriffs, may nominate any person, free of the city, for the said office. That no freeman shall be discharged from such election or nomination, for insufficiency of wealth, unless he voluntarily swears himself not worth fifteen thousand pounds, in lands, goods, and separate debts; and the same be attested, upon oath, by six other freemen of credit and reputation. That every person elected shall, at the next court of lord-mayor and aldermen, give one thousand pounds bond to the chamberlain, that he will take upon him the said office on the 28th of September next following. That the person elected, who does not give bond to serve, shall, if an alderman or commoner of the lord-mayor's nomination, forfeit and pay six hundred pounds; but, if nominated by liverymen, he shall forfeit and pay only four hundred pounds, to be recovered by action of debt, in the name of the chamberlain of London, and to be applied to the use of the lord-mayor, commonalty, and citizens, of London, subject to the orders and resolutions of the court of common-council; except one hundred pounds to each of the new sheriffs, if two fines happen to be paid, or fifty pounds to each of the said sheriffs, should there be only one fine paid. That no person who has fined shall be ever after eligible, except he takes upon him the office of an alderman; neither shall any person be compelled to serve the said office more than once.

We have been witnesses, in our time, of several hoaxes played upon the credulity of the public; but perhaps none ever was so decidedly laughable and unaccountable, and showed so strongly the *gullibility* of all large cities, since the building of the *otiosa Neapolis* down to our enlightened days, as that performed in the year 1749. About the middle of January, an advertisement appeared in the

newspapers, informing the public, that, on the 16th instant, a person would appear at the new theatre in the Haymarket, who, after playing the music of every instrument in use, upon a cane belonging to any of the spectators, would walk into a common quart-bottle, placed upon a table in the middle of the stage, in sight of the audience, and would sing in it; and, during his stay in the bottle, any person might examine it, and be satisfied that it was a common wine-bottle. Some other feats were to be exhibited, equally entertaining; and, although it might be supposed impossible that mankind, even in a state of gross ignorance, could be so egregiously imposed upon, yet it is unquestionably true, that the scheme did take effect in the British capital, and in the middle of the eighteenth century. On the evening of the exhibition, the house was crowded with the nobility and gentry of both sexes, who sat very patiently for a considerable time, without the amusement even of a single fiddle; at length the audience grew tired and clamorous, and a fellow came from behind the curtain, and bowing said, if the performer did not appear, the money should be returned; at the same time, some person in the pit called out, that, if the ladies and gentlemen would give double price, the conjuror would get into a pint bottle. This was the signal for a riot: the greater part of the audience hurried out of the theatre, with the loss of cloaks, hats, wigs, and swords; part remained behind, who, being joined by the mob from without, tore up the benches, broke the scenes, pulled down the boxes, and entirely demolished the inside of the theatre; all of which they carried into the street, preceded by the curtain, fastened to a pole, as a flag of triumph; where they converted them into a large bonfire. A strong party of the guards was sent for, but did not arrive in time to save any part of the property. No material injury was sustained by any of the spectators, from the confusion in the house.

Had we not seen how easily the people are imposed upon even in the most common transactions of life; how we are decoyed in the streets by smugglers, and in shops by the exhibition of goods sworn to be what they are not; we could hardly, at this time, give credit to a most improbable fact of sixty-six, or more, years standing: for it is indeed astonishing that the *prima-facie* impossibility of the thing, viz. that a man (had he been as small as Bêbé, the dwarf of Frederic II.) could jam himself into a quart bottle, did not strike the dullest mind of the collected audience. But curiosity, that Tantalus-like passion, which is never satisfied, and lives and feeds upon the scanty food of expectation, though lashed, all the while, by the whip of disappointment;—curiosity was the acting spring, the *primus mobile*; and the example of two or three gulls, first caught, naturally brought, by multiplying confidence, immense quantities of the same species. Thus a crowd is gathered, before any suspicion arises whether the thing is possible or not. Strolling quacks, in country towns, often promise, in order to keep the crowd together and sell their nostrums, to show an animal not bigger than the thumb, weighing more than fifty pounds; and the gazing but disappointed assembly as often retires with the consoling hope of the phenomenon's appearance, without fail, the next day.

Some sailors having been ill treated by women of the town, in a house near the New Church in the Strand, a considerable body of them assembled, on the evening of the 1st of July, armed with cutlasses and bludgeons, and proceeded to the house, where they destroyed all the furniture and wearing-apparel, and turned the women into the street. On the following night, they attacked two more houses in the same manner; and, on the third day, they made a similar attempt upon one in the Old Bailey, from which the owners, apprehending their design, had previously removed the goods. It was at last found necessary to call in the assistance of the military, to suppress these dangerous proceedings; and several of the rioters were apprehended and committed for trial. This



was followed by a circumstance, which proves that the firmness and temper of a civil magistrate may frequently render the interposition of the military unnecessary. Fifteen criminals were ordered for execution on the 18th of October, among whom was one Bosavern Penlez, a young man convicted of being concerned in the aforesaid riot in the Strand. A rescue being apprehended in favour of Penlez, a party of foot-guards attended at Holborn-bars, to guard the prisoners to Tyburn; but Mr. Sheriff Janssen, for the dignity of the city and his office, mounted on horseback, when the criminals were put into the carts at Newgate; and, having provided a sufficient guard of the civil power, very genteelly dismissed the officer and his men at Holborn, and conducted the malefactors to the place of execution without their assistance. A great number of sailors, armed with bludgeons and cutlasses, attended at the gallows, and became very clamorous, from an apprehension that the body of Penlez would be delivered to the surgeons; but, Mr. Janssen assuring them it should not, they were pacified, and the criminals were executed without the least obstruction.

This year finished with a remarkable cause tried in the lord-mayor's court, between a club of free journeymen painters, plaintiffs, and Mr. Row, citizen and master-painter, defendant, for employing a person, not free, to work for him in the city. The defendant pleaded, and made it appear by evidence, that, from the want of free journeymen of the trade, it was not possible for the summer business of the city to be done without the assistance of at least an equal number of non-freemen; and that no freeman was ever refused, or could sometimes be got, on any terms. To which the counsel for the plaintiffs replied with a very learned argument upon a by-law made by the city in the reign of queen Anne. The jury went out at two o'clock in the afternoon, and returned twice without agreeing on their verdict; and being sent out again, and continuing a long time, the court ordered them to be locked up in the room, without fire, candle, or any sustenance, by an officer sworn to observe the same, and to attend them; in which situation they continued till six o'clock next morning, when they brought in a verdict for the plaintiffs. The masters of the several handicraft trades, finding themselves greatly aggrieved by this verdict, petitioned the common-council for liberty to employ *foreigners* (as non-freemen are called), under certain restrictions. This produced a counter-petition from the journeymen; the consideration of which was deferred till the 8th of February, when a committee of six aldermen and ten commoners met to adjust these disputes. At this meeting, a day was appointed for hearing depositions from the masters and journeymen; and, after several adjournments, the committee reported their opinion to the court: who, on the 28th of November, resolved, that the court of lord-mayor and aldermen be empowered to grant permission to any freeman, who could not procure a sufficient number of free-journeymen, to employ foreigners, provided he has one apprentice, or has had one within twelve months before making application for the license; and, in case no court of lord-mayor and aldermen is held, the lord-mayor may, on any Tuesday, grant such license, for a term not exceeding six weeks. A power is, however, reserved to the court of lord-mayor and aldermen, to revoke any license, though the time for which it is granted be not expired.

Our observations upon the credulity of the public are also applicable to the following fact. On the 8th of February, 1750, between twelve and one o'clock at noon, a smart shock of an earthquake was felt through the cities of London and Westminster, and parts adjacent; and, on the 8th of March, between five and six in the morning, the town was alarmed with another shock, much more violent, and of longer continuance, than the first. Many people, awakened from their sleep, ran terrified into the streets without their clothes; a great number of chimneys were thrown down; several houses were considera-

bly damaged; and, in Charter-house square, a woman was thrown from her bed, and her arm broke. The panic of the people, in consequence of these earthquakes, was greatly increased by the ridiculous prediction of a wild enthusiastic soldier in the life-guards, who boldly prophesied, that, as the second earthquake had happened exactly four weeks after the first, there would be a third exactly four weeks after the second, which would lay the whole cities of London and Westminster in ruins. Though this prognostication appears too ridiculous to merit the least attention, yet it produced the most astonishing effect on the credulous and already-terrified people. A day or two before the expected event, multitudes of the inhabitants abandoned their houses and retired into the country; the roads were thronged with carriages of persons of fashion; and the principal places within twenty miles of London were so crowded, that lodgings were procured at a most extravagant price. On the evening preceding the dreaded 5th of April, most of those who staid in the city sat up all night; some took refuge in boats on the river, and the fields adjacent to the metropolis were crowded with people; all of whom passed the night in fearful suspense, till the light of the morning put an end to their apprehensions, by convincing them, that the prophecy they had been weak enough to credit had no other basis than that of falsehood. Although the predicted time was now elapsed, yet the terror of the people did not thoroughly abate till after the eighth day of the month, because the earthquakes had happened on the eighth day of the two former months. When this time also passed, their fears vanished, and they returned to their respective habitations. The false prophet, who had been the instigator of such general confusion among the people, was committed to a place of confinement.

This year, the lord-mayor, sir Samuel Pennant, some of the aldermen, two of the judges, the under-sheriff, and many of the lawyers who had attended the March sessions in the Old Bailey, most of the Middlesex jury, and a considerable number of the spectators, died of the gaol-distemper, caught from the prisoners. In consequence of this disaster, a machine was soon after put upon the top of Newgate, to supply it with fresh air, the prison was well cleansed, and every other precaution taken to preserve the health of the prisoners.

On the 22d of October, 1752, a cause was heard before the lord-mayor and court of aldermen, about laying open the port of London for bringing in foreign oats, pursuant to a statute, 1 James II. empowering that court, in April and October, to determine the common market-prices of middling English corn, by the oaths of two substantial persons of Middlesex and Surry, being neither merchants, cornfactors, mealmen, nor factors for importing corn, nor interested in the corn, and each having a freehold estate of twenty pounds, or a leasehold estate of fifty pounds, per annum, and by such other ways as to them shall seem fit; and, if the same shall appear to be above sixteen shillings a quarter, they are to certify the same, with the two oaths annexed, to the commissioners of the customs, to be hung up in the custom-house. The persons that made the application were several masters of livery-stables, and inn-keepers; and their opponents were the cornfactors. After a hearing which lasted ten hours, it was decided for the cornfactors; five aldermen being for laying open the port, and five, with the lord-mayor, who threw in his casting vote, against it.

A subject of an extraordinary nature occurred in the beginning of the year 1753. A young woman, named Elizabeth Canning, pretended that, on the 1st of January, as she was returning home at night, she was attacked under Bedlam-wall by two men, who robbed her of part of her clothes, gagged her, and dragged her along to the house of one Wells, near Enfield Wash, where she was confined in a cold damp room for a month, without any sustenance but a few stale crusts of bread and about a gallon of water; but that, having at last made her escape out of a window, she returned almost naked to her mother,



ther, who lived near Moorfields. The story, notwithstanding its improbability, operated so powerfully on the passions of many, even of the best informed classes, that large subscriptions were raised for the prosecution of the supposed delinquents; and the mistress of the house at Enfield, her servant, and an old gipsy-woman, whom Canning charged with having robbed her of her stays, were apprehended and tried. Wells was acquitted of the felony, but was punished as a bawd. Hall, the servant, being intimidated by the magistrate who examined her, turned evidence for Canning; and Squires, the gipsy, was convicted of the robbery, though she produced the most convincing evidence that she was at Abbotsbury, in Dorsetshire, on the night it was said to have been committed. During the course of the trial, Canning and her witnesses contradicted themselves in many particulars; but the prepossession in her favour was so great, that the most palpable falsehoods advanced by her and her adherents were admitted as incontrovertible truths; while the witnesses for Squires were either so overawed by the rabble that they durst not appear in court, or, if they had sufficient resolution to give evidence in her favour, were insulted in such a manner, that their lives were sometimes endangered.

Sir Crispe Gascoigne, who was at this time lord-mayor of London, conducted himself in this affair with the greatest justice and impartiality. Considering the improbability of the charge, and the heat, passion, and furious zeal, with which it was prosecuted, and being convinced of the old woman's innocence by a great number of affidavits, voluntarily sent up from the country by persons of undoubted veracity, he, in conjunction with some other worthy citizens, determined to oppose the torrent of popular prejudice. Application was made to the throne for mercy. The affair was referred to the attorney and solicitor general, who, having examined the witnesses on both sides, made their report in favour of Squires, who was first repited, and afterwards received his majesty's free pardon.

A bill of indictment was preferred by the lord-mayor against Elizabeth Canning for perjury. Her friends did the like against the witnesses from Abbotsbury in favour of Squires. The Abbotsbury people appeared; but, no evidence coming against them, they were acquitted. Canning, being admitted to bail, at first absconded, but afterwards surrendered to take her trial, which continued by adjournment five days; when she was convicted of perjury, and committed to Newgate. When she was brought up to receive sentence, a new trial was moved for on the affidavit of two of the jurors, who swore, that, although they believed her guilty of perjury, they did not believe it to be wilful and corrupt. The decision of this point was put off till the next sessions; and, on the 30th of May, 1754, it was adjudged by five judges then on the bench, that the verdict was good, and agreeable to evidence. After which the court passed judgment, that she should suffer one month's imprisonment, and then be transported for seven years. Her supporters, however, made such diligent applications in her favour, that they obtained permission for her to transport herself; and she went to America, in a private ship, with every accommodation money could procure her, and means were used to secure her a favourable reception on her arrival. So truly sensible were the citizens of London of the rectitude of sir Crispe Gascoigne's conduct in this affair, that, at the expiration of his mayoralty, thanks were voted to him by the common-council "for his steady perseverance in the cause of justice; his generous protection of the distressed, and his remarkable humanity."

A very important cause was tried in Michaelmas term, in the court of King's Bench, Guildhall, on an action brought by Mr. Richard Holland, a leather-seller, in Newgate-street, against the collectors of toll, in Smithfield, during the time of Bartholomew-fair; when Mr. Holland's witnesses were examined; but, no person appearing on the

other side, a verdict was given in favour of Mr. Holland, on fifteen issues, with costs of suit. By which determination, all the citizens of London are exempted from paying toll at the said fair for the future. In support of the ancient privilege of the citizens of London, to be exempt from toll for their goods throughout all England, Mr. Holland had also applied for, and obtained, a certificate, from the lord-mayor and court of aldermen, in the mayoralty of sir William Calvert, by which the privilege of exemption was not only allowed to him, but extended to every freeman of the city of London. The public-spirited example of this gentleman was immediately followed by the freemen residing in the several markets of the city, who determined to oppose the oppressive demands of the farmers of them, in exacting toll. In consequence of this determination, twelve different actions were brought by the farmers of Newgate-market, against the housekeepers around it, for refusing to pay the toll they had been accustomed to demand and receive; and in July, 1754, one of the issues was tried in the court of Common Pleas, at Guildhall, and the plaintiffs were nonsuited; ever since which, the people have continued free and unmolested.

An act of parliament was passed, on the 20th of March, 1755, to prevent the holding of a market in the Borough High-street; which was soon followed by another, on the petition of the inhabitants of Southwark, to hold a market on a spot of ground, west of the High-street, called the Triangle.

The fishery of the river Thames has always been an object of care for the magistrates of the city of London. A beautiful and productive river, which, while its surface carries, in innumerable ships, the treasures of the world, harbours in its watery recesses, and in the free and extensive body of its waters, all sorts of wholesome and delicious fish, is certainly worthy of the most strict and provident attention. The lord-mayor and aldermen were empowered, by an act of parliament of this year, to make rules and ordinances, from time to time, for the government of all persons concerned in that fishery.

In the year 1758, London-bridge underwent a thorough repair, and the houses, which had continued thereon for at least three hundred and fifty years, were entirely removed. When this bridge was originally founded is not known with any accuracy. We read in Stow's Survey, that "in the yeere of Christ 994, Sweyn king of Denmarke besieging the cite of London, both by water and by land, the citizens manfully defended themselves and Ethelred (king of Kent), so as part of their enemies were slaine in battaile, and part of them were drowned in the river of Thames, because in their hastie rage they took no heed of the bridge." Surely this observation cannot give us any great idea of that wooden fabric; for, had it been of any height or consequence, the Danes could not have overlooked it. However, it appears to have been built between the years 993 and 1016; for in the former of these years, Unlaf the Dane, according to the Saxon Chronicle, sailed up the river as far as Staines; and in the latter, Canute king of Denmark, when he besieged London, caused a channel to be formed on the south side of the Thames, about Rotherhithe, for conveying his ships above the bridge. According to traditional accounts, London was indebted for the ancient wooden bridge to the last prior of St. Mary Overy's convent; though it seems more probable that the monks only gave their consent to the erection of the bridge, on receiving a recompense for the loss of the ferry, by which they had been supported; and that this conjecture is not without foundation, appears from the appropriation of lands for the support of London-bridge at so early a period as the reign of Henry I. "In the yeere 1114, the 14 of Henry I. the river of Thames," says Stow, "was so dried up, and such want of water there, that between the Tower of London and the bridge; and under the bridge, not only with horse, but also a great number of men, women, and children, did wade over on foot;" which we may suppose to have happened at neap-tides, whilst a



strong western wind, blowing into the face of the tide, suspended its coming up; as the same thing has occasionally happened since; but particularly on the 13th of December, 1711.

In the year 1136 the bridge was consumed by fire; and in 1163 it was in such a ruinous state as to be rebuilt under the inspection of Peter, curate of St. Mary Colechurch in London, who was celebrated for his knowledge in architecture. At length, the continued and heavy expense which was necessary to maintain a wooden bridge becoming burthenome to the people, (who, when the lands appropriated for its maintenance proved inadequate to their object, were taxed to supply the deficiency,) it was resolved, in the year 1176, to build one of stone, a little to the west of the other; and this structure was completed in the year 1209. The same architect was employed, who died four years before it was finished, and was buried in a beautiful chapel, probably of his own construction, dedicated to St. Thomas, which stood on the ninth pier from the north end, and had an entrance from the river, as well as the street, by a winding staircase. In the middle of it was a tomb, supposed to contain the remains of its architect. This bridge, with the chapel over it, is the subject of the annexed Plate.

Of this chapel, the same author (Stow) gives us the following interesting account: "King John gave a certain void place in London to rebuild on, the profits thereof to remain towards the charges of building and repaying of the same bridge. A mason, being master-workman of the bridge, builded (from the foundation) the large chappell on that bridge of his own charges; which chappell was then endowed for two priests, foure clarkes, &c. besides chantries since founded by John Hatfield and others. After the finishing of this chappell, which was the first building upon those arches, sundry houses (at times) were erected, and many charitable men gave lands, tenements, or summes of money, towards the maintenance thereof; all which was sometimes noted, and in a table faire written for posterity, and remaining in the chappell, till the same chappell was turned to a dwelling-house, and then [this writing was] removed to the bridge-house. We find that the sum paid for one whole year, from Michaelmas 22 Hen. VII. amounted to 81*l.* 17*s.* 2*d.* for repairs and allowances; by which account then made may be partly guessed the great charges and discharges of that bridge at this day, when things be stretched to so great a price." The tower, which was at the north end of the drawbridge, was built in the year 1426, and shared the same fate as the houses, as will be mentioned below. There was another over the gate at the fourth end towards Southwark. The whole fell down in 1436; but, by the contributions of several wealthy and well-minded citizens, it was rebuilt, and thirteen houses more were added.

But, though so much art and expense were employed in building the bridge with stone, it suffered very much from a fire in the streets at each end; so that, from this accident and other circumstances, it was in such ruinous condition, that king Edward I. granted a brief to the bridge-keeper to ask and receive the benevolence of his subjects towards repairing it. At this time, as our Engraving will show, there were no houses on the bridge, nor probably for two hundred years afterwards, as we read of tilts and tournaments being held there in 1395. The houses were erected at the beginning of the fifteenth century, and were not removed till the time we are speaking of, 1758.

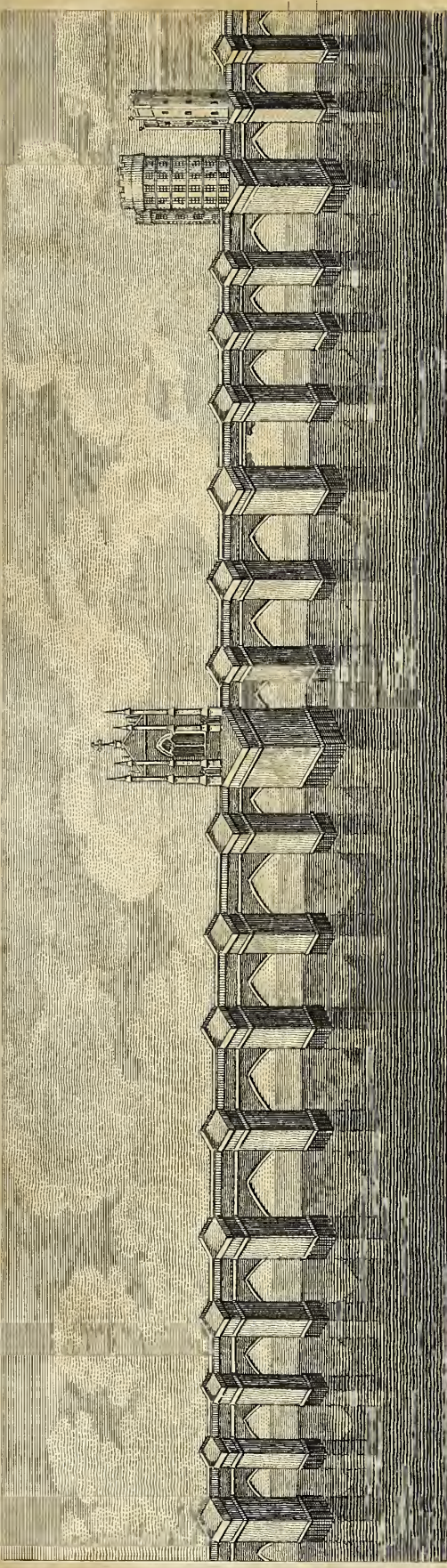
The Thames, in this part of it, is 915 feet broad, which is the length of the bridge. The street that covered it consisted, before the houses fell to decay, of lofty edifices, built with some attention to exterior regularity; it was twenty feet wide, and the buildings on either side about twenty-six feet in depth. Across the middle of the street ran several lofty arches, extending from side to side; the bottom part of each arch terminating at the first story, and the upper part reaching near the tops of the houses;

the work over the arches extending in a right line from side to side. They were designed to prevent the buildings from giving way, and were therefore formed of strong timbers, bolted in the corresponding wood-work of the houses that flanked them. Thus the street on the bridge had nothing to distinguish it from any narrow dark street in the city but the high arches just described, and three openings, guarded with iron rails, which afforded a view of the river. But the appearance from the water baffled all description, and displayed a strange example of curious deformity, as is generally the case when houses are erected upon bridges. Nineteen arches, of different heights and breadths, with stielings increased to a monstrous size by frequent repairs, served to support a range of houses as irregular as themselves; the back part of which, broken by hanging closets and irregular projections, offered a very disgusting object; while many of the buildings overhung the arches, so as to hide the upper part of them, and seemed to lean in such a manner as to fill the beholder with equal amazement and horror. In one part of this extraordinary structure there had formerly been a draw-bridge, which was useful by way of defence, as well as to admit ships to the upper part of the river, and it was guarded by a tower. It prevented Fauconbridge the Bastard from entering the city in 1471 with his armed followers, on the pretence of liberating the unfortunate Henry from his imprisonment in the Tower. It also checked, and indeed seemed to annihilate, the ill-conducted insurrection of sir Thomas Wyatt, in the reign of queen Mary. In the time of civil dissension, which rendered this kingdom a continual scene of turbulence and bloodshed, this tower was employed to expose the heads of traitors; and an old map of the city, in 1597, represents this building as decorated with a sad and numerous exhibition of them.

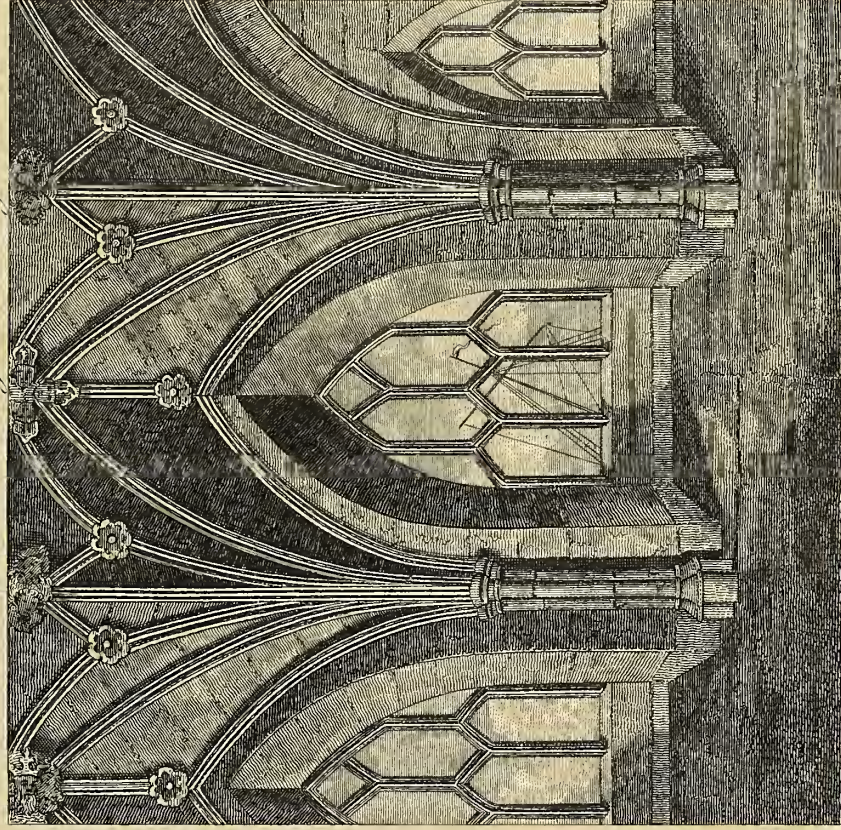
In the year 1746 the corporation of London came to the resolution of taking down all the houses on the bridge, and enlarging one or more of its arches to improve the navigation beneath it; but it was ten years before this resolution was carried into effect. In the course of the repair and enlargement, when it was begun, it was found necessary to construct a temporary passage over the river, to preserve the communication between London and Southwark uninterrupted during the alteration and repair of London-bridge. For this purpose, a wooden bridge had been erected alongside of it, bending at each end, and opening into the entrances of the stone-bridge. Great was the astonishment of the citizens, when, on April 11th, 1758, about eleven o'clock at night, this timber bridge appeared in flames. It continued burning till noon the next day, when the ruins fell into the river; and thus a total stop was put to all trade that depended upon the intercourse between London and the opposite shore, excepting what could be carried on by boats. The inhabitants of Southwark were much distressed by the destruction of the troughs that conveyed water to them over the bridge during its repair. How this fire happened was never known. The lord-mayor licensed forty boats extraordinary to work on the three succeeding Sundays as ferry-boats, whose stations were advertised in the public papers; and great numbers of workmen were employed to make a present passage over the remains of the old bridge. The common-council immediately ordered another temporary bridge to be erected with the utmost dispatch; and so diligently was this order executed, that it was completed, and opened for carriages in less than a month. It was upon this occasion that an act was passed to amend the former act for the repair of London-bridge; which granted 15,000*l.* for that purpose; repealed the late tolls imposed for passage over and under the bridge; and declared that persons wilfully attempting to destroy any part of the bridge, or of the works belonging to it, should suffer death without benefit of clergy; this was because it had been suspected that the temporary bridge had been set on fire maliciously.

When they began the work of removing the houses from

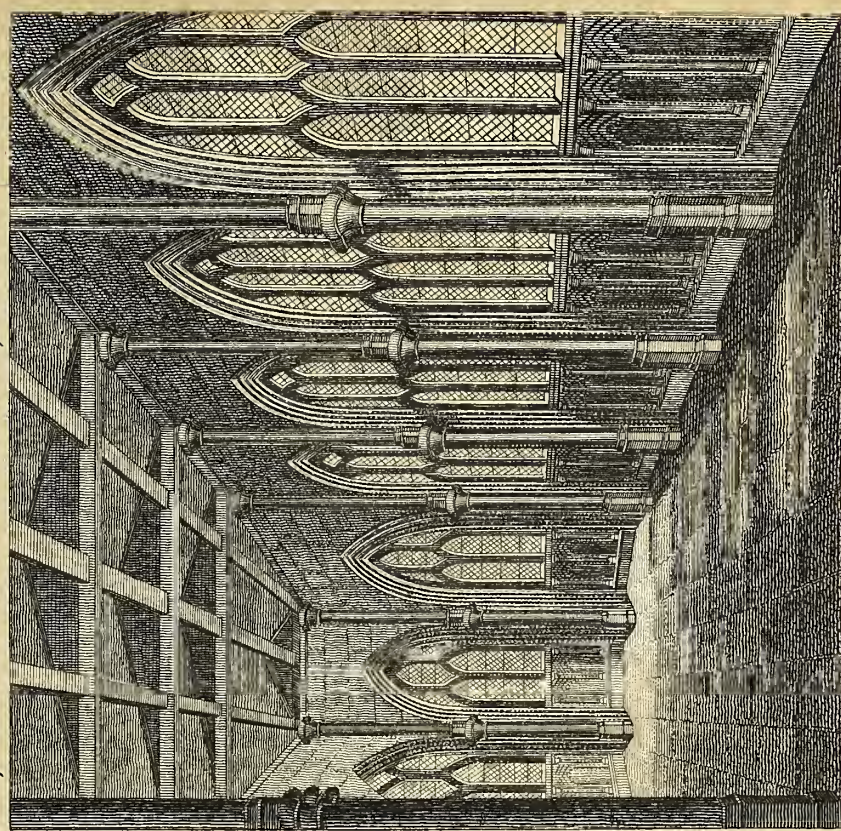




*London Bridge in its original state in 1209, before Houses were built upon it*



*Part of the South side of the Crypt under St. Thomas's Chapel.*



*Inside View of St. Thomas's Chapel from W. to E.*

*London Bridge, as the Act directs, June 27, 1862, No. 6, 1862.*

*a. High Water.  
b. Low Water.*













*Aldgate.*



*Aldersgate.*



*Ludgate.*



*Bridgegate.*

*The four original City Gates.*

*London. Published as the Act directs, Dec<sup>r</sup> 7<sup>th</sup> 1831 by C. Jones*



from the bridge, according to the plan, it was expected that St. Magnus' church, the tower of which stood in a direct line with those houses, must have been taken down also, in order to continue the foot-path; but, very fortunately, the distinguished architect of that beautiful edifice had foreseen, that the time must arrive when the improved taste of the metropolis would demand the alteration which was now at length to take place; and the workmen soon discovered that he had providently formed an arch under the tower, and had filled it up with rubbish: nothing therefore was required but to open the arch, and the church remained untouched. The repair and enlargement of the bridge were at length completed, in 1758, at the expense of nearly 100,000*l.* but without answering its principal object, which was, to diminish the fall at the ebbing of the tide, and consequently to lessen the danger of a passage which has proved a watery grave to so many people. Instead of making repairs, it is the opinion of good judges that the whole ought to have been removed, as a very magnificent structure might have been erected: at a much less expense; and it has been said that this is intended to be done; but that, previously, a new and very handsome bridge is to be erected from the bottom of Queen-street, Cheap-side, on a line with King-street and the Mansion-house. A view of London-bridge, in its present state, is given on the ARCHITECTURE Plate XXXVIII. vol. ii. and, for a few particulars relating to the water-works, see p. 83 of this article.

Though London-bridge was now completed, and opened to the public, another bridge had been for some years thought necessary, in consequence of the increased trade of the city with its suburbs and with the country-towns beyond the Thames. Several plans having been proposed to the committee appointed for managing the construction of a new bridge near Black Friars, the preference was given to the conception and drawing of Mr. Mylne, a Scotch architect; and the first pile for the bridge was driven in the middle of the river, on the 7th of June, 1760. At the same time many of the streets of the city, particularly that leading to the intended bridge, were considerably widened and improved, pursuant to resolutions passed in the common-council, and confirmed by an act of parliament. And, amongst other regulations under that act, it was thought proper to pull down the city-gates. In consequence of which, the committee of city-lands sold Aldgate for 177*l.* 10*s.* Cripplegate for 91*l.* and Ludgate for 143*l.* to be pulled down and taken away by the purchasers within a limited time.

This act relative to the gates may be said to have closed the late king's reign, as far as the city of London is concerned. We shall therefore, in this place, present the reader with an historical account of those ancient bulwarks and boundaries, accompanied with engravings of such as no longer subsist.

Previously to the discovery of gun-powder, and the nearly irresistible strength of modern artillery, the gates of cities were generally strongly fortified, flanked with towers, armed with barbicans and portcullises, defended by drawbridges over ditches and fosses, in order to withstand the assaults of an enemy. The gates of ancient towns are celebrated by poets and historians, both sacred and profane. Samson carried off the gates of Gaza, and Milo those of Crotona; and left both places without defence.

There appears to have been anciently but four gates in the wall of the city of London; and these were placed nearly according to the division of the compass on the four cardinal points of the horizon, east, north, west, and south, as we learn from Fitzstephen. Their names were; Ealdgate, or Aldgate, on the east; Aldersgate, on the north; Ludgate, on the west; and Bridgegate, on the south. "But," says the same ancient chronicler, "in the reign of Henry II. there were seven double gates in the wall of this city;" and Stow supposes the three others to have been, the Postern upon Tower-hill, Newgate, and Bishopf-

gate. These openings were contrived in process of time to facilitate the ingress and egress of goods in and out of the city, and for the accommodation of citizens who cultivated their fields and gardens in the pomerium around the wall.

1. *Ealdgate*, now *Aldgate*, so called, it seems probable, from its great antiquity, and not from its eastern situation, as some authors have been pleased to suppose, is reckoned the first of the four original and principal gates of London. "It has had," says Stow; "two pairs of gates, though now but one; the hooks of them both remaine." He adds, that there had been two portcullises, the place of which, and grooves in the masonry to let them down, were still manifest in his time. The earliest mention we find of this gate, is in a charter of king Edgar, about 967. Being in a very ruinous condition, it was pulled down in the year 1606, and rebuilt; but it was not completed till 1609. In digging the foundation, several Roman coins were discovered, resemblances of two of which, being of the time of Trajan and Dioclesian, Mr. Bond, one of the surveyors of the work, caused to be cut in stone, and placed on each side of the east front, where they remained till the demolition of the gate. In a large square, on the same side of the gate, was placed the statue of James I. in gilt armour, with a golden lion, and a chained unicorn, both couchant at his feet. On the west side of the gate was a figure of Fortune, gilt, and standing on a globe, with a prosperous sail spreading over her head; under which was carved the king's arms, with the motto *Dieu et mon Droit*, and a little below it *Vivae Rex*: somewhat lower, on the south side, stood Peace, with a dove perched on one hand, and a gilded wreath in the other. On the north side was the figure of Charity, with a child at her breast, and another in her hand. On the top of the gate was a vane, supported by a gilt sphere; on each side of which stood a foldier holding a bullet in his hand, on the top of the upper battlements. Over the arch of the gate were carved the following words:

Senatus Populusque Londinensis  
Fecit, 1609,

HUMPHREY WELD, *Mayor*.

There were two posterns through this gate; that on the south side of which was made as late as the year 1734. There were likewise apartments over the gate, which were appropriated to the use of one of the lord-mayor's carvers, but had, of late years, been used as a charity-school. We must observe, that the figure of this gate, given in Plate III. does not agree with the above description, on account of the drawing having probably been made when the ornaments mentioned above had already fallen to decay; but the two medallions after the coins are conspicuously preserved.

2. *Aldersgate* was the second of the four original gates, as Stow supposes, although Maitland could find no mention of it before the conquest. As to the etymon of this gate, authors considerably vary. We are of opinion that it originated from one or a group of alder-trees, growing naturally and thriving by the side of this entrance; the probability of which is strengthened by the well-known preference which these trees give to wet, fat, and marshy, soils:

Crassique paludibus alni

Nascuntur. *Virg. Georg. II.* 110.

And the circumstance of a deep well on the east side of the gate, the water of which rose nearly level to the ground, is a proof of the great moisture and humidity of the spot. We cannot agree with Stow, who believes that this, as well as the preceding gate, were both called Old-gate, which is repugnant to good sense and invariable custom.

This gate being in so ruinous a condition as to be in danger of falling, the lord-mayor, aldermen, and common-council, ordered it to be taken down, which was accordingly done in the year 1616, when it was rebuilt in a substantial manner; Mr. William Parker, merchant-tay-



lor, having bequeathed a thousand pounds towards the expense of a new edifice. In a large square over the arch of the gate was the figure of James I. on horseback. Above his head were quartered the arms of England, Scotland, and Ireland. In a niche on the east side was the prophet Jeremiah, with the words of the 25th verse of the 17th chapter of his book. In a niche on the west side stood the prophet Samuel, with the 1st verse of the 12th chapter of the 1st book of that prophet. On the south side was the effigy of James I. in his royal robes, sitting in a chair of state, done in relief. This gate was very much damaged by the great fire in 1666; but was repaired and beautified, at the expense of the city, in the year 1670. The apartments over the gate were appropriated to the use of the common-crier of the city; and by the sides of the gate were two posterns for the convenience of foot-passengers.

3. *Ludgate*, according to Geoffrey of Monmouth, quoted by Stow, derived its name from king Lud, a Briton, who, according to the former, built it about sixty-six years before the Christian era; and at p. 50 it will be seen, that London itself may probably owe its existence to the same king, or chief. On the other hand it has been urged, that the ancient Britons had no walled towns; and that the name therefore, might, with much greater appearance of probability, be derived from the rivulet Flood, Flud, Vloat, Fleote, or Fleet, which ran into Fleet-ditch; and it was very probably called Ludgate, instead of its original name, *Fludgate*.

Our favourite chronicler tells us, that in 1215, during the warm contentions between the barons and king John, this gate was the passage through which the army made its entry into London, pillaged the houses of the richest Jews in the city, and destroyed them: but soon after the damage caused to the gate and adjoining wall was repaired by the leaders of the army, and with the very stones from the Jewish houses that had been pulled down. In confirmation of this, we are told that a stone was found in 1586, when this gate was rebuilt, upon which the following inscription appeared easily legible and in Hebrew characters: "This is the dwelling-place of Rabbi Moses, the son of Rabbi Isaac."

In the year 1260, this gate was repaired, and beautified with images of Lud and other kings; but under the reign of Edward VI. these unfortunate statues, being mistaken for popish idols "by those who," says Stow, "judged every image to be an idol," had their heads smitten off; but in the reign of queen Mary, by a contrary wind that blew the flame of zealotism the other way, these statues were repaired, "as by setting new heads upon their old bodies." Being then old friends with new faces, they were not much regarded, and remained quiet in their niches till a general decay of the whole fabric called for a new building; and in 1586, the 28th of Elizabeth, this gate was rebuilt. Old Lud took his former station; so did the other kings on the east side; whilst the statue of the reigning queen adorned the west front. At the pulling down of this gate in 1758, the statue was preserved, and placed at the east end of St. Dunstan's church, Fleet-street, where it still remains, and affords no bad specimen of the statuary of that time.

In the year 1373, this gate was constituted a prison for poor debtors who were free of the city; and it was afterwards greatly enlarged by sir Stephen Forster. This gentleman, we are told, had been a prisoner there, and was begging at the gate, when a rich widow, passing by, asked him what sum would procure his discharge; and, on his answering twenty pounds, (which at that time was a considerable sum,) she generously advanced the money. His liberty being thus obtained, his kind benefactress took him into her service, in which, by his indefatigable application to business, and his obliging behaviour, he gained the affections of his mistress, and married her; after which he had such great success in trade, that he became lord-mayor of London, and obtained the honour of

knighthood. In his prosperity, sir Stephen thought of the place of his confinement, and, acquainting his lady with a design he had formed of enlarging the prison, she also determined to contribute to the execution of so benevolent a plan. Hereupon, they caused several of the houses near the gate to be pulled down, and in their stead erected a strong square stone building, containing the following rooms, viz. the porch, the paper-house, the watch-hall, the upper and lower lumberies, the cellar, the long ward, and the chapel; in the last of which were the following inscriptions: "This chapel was erected and ordained for the divine worship and service of God, by the Right Honourable Sir Stephen Forster, knight, some time lord-mayor of this honourable city, and by dame Agnes his wife, for the use and godly exercise of the prisoners in this prison of Ludgate, anno 1454.

Devout souls that passe this way,  
For Stephen Forster, late maior, heartily pray,  
And dame Agnes, his spouse to God consecrate,  
That of pitie this house made for Londoners in Ludgate—  
So that for lodging and water prisoners here nought pay,  
As their keepers shall all answer at dreadful domes-day."

These venerable founders not only settled a salary for a chaplain of this prison, but ordered that all the rooms in these additional buildings should be for ever free to all unfortunate citizens, and that they, on providing their own bedding, should pay nothing at their discharge for lodging or chamber-rent; but the avaricious disposition of the keepers broke through this appointment, and, for many years, they took rent for the rooms, contrary to the express order of the generous donor. Ludgate-prison, however, which is now removed to the north side of Giltspur-street Compter, still retains some privileges and advantages, which are claimed by citizens of London only.

4. *Bridgegate*. This last of the four original gates was of great importance to the city, as it stood exposed to the attack of enemies on the south or Surry side. In the year 1436, this gate with the tower upon it fell down; and, being rebuilt, was burnt, in the year 1471, by some riotous mariners of Kent. The gate erected after this, being greatly damaged by fire in 1726, was soon afterwards taken down and rebuilt; it was completed in 1728, two posterns being added for the convenience of foot-passengers. Over the arch, on the south side, were the king's arms, with the following inscription underneath: "This gate was widened from eleven to eighteen feet in the mayoralty of Edward Bacher, knt. S.P.Q.L."

Stow, and later writers also name a considerable number of gates on the river side, viz. Dowgate, Wolfgate, Ebgate, Oistergate, Botolphgate, Billingigate, &c. But they appear to have been only wharfs, or places for landing goods. None of these were of any note except Dowgate, called properly *Dar* or the *water-gate*, where there was a trajectory, or ferry, in the Watling-street, which crossed the Thames at this place, and was continued to Dover.

The Four Original City Gates are represented on Plate III. in the order we have described them; and, if they should be found not to answer fully to the descriptions, it must be recollected, that, as they are no longer in existence, accurate drawings could not be made. We have always been of opinion, that, before any valuable relics of antiquity are destroyed, accurate drawings and descriptions of them should be taken by authority, for the information of future historians.

5. *Bishopsgate* was situated one thousand four hundred and forty feet north-west from Aldgate. Though the building of this gate is dated by some as early as the year 300, by others A. D. 675, Stow could find no mention of it earlier than the year 1210, when William Blount, one of the sheriffs of London, sold his land and gardens, *without Bishopsgate*, to the wardens of London-bridge. Henry III. granted several privileges to the Hanseatic merchants, for which they were bound to keep this









*Bishopsgate.*



*Moorgate.*



*Cripplegate.*



*City Gates; No. 2 Newgate.*



gate in repair; and also to defend it whenever it should be attacked by an enemy. It was elegantly rebuilt by them in 1479. On the south side, over the gateway, was a stone image of a bishop with a mitre on his head; he had a long beard, eyes sunk, and an old mortified face, and was supposed to represent St. Erkenwald. See Plate IV. On the north side was another figure of a bishop with a smooth face, reaching out his right hand to bestow his benediction, and holding a crozier in his left, who is thought to have been bishop William the Norman. This last was accompanied by two other figures in stone, supposed to represent king Alfred, and his son Eldred earl of Mercia. In the year 1551, the above-mentioned merchants prepared stone for rebuilding the gate; but, that company being dissolved about this period, a stop was put to the work, and the old gate remained till the year 1731, when it was quite taken down, and rebuilt at the expense of the city. When it was almost finished, the arch fell down; but, though it was a great thoroughfare, and this accident happened in the middle of day, no person was hurt. Over the gateway was a carving of the city-arms, supported by dragons, and on each side was a postern for the convenience of foot-passengers. The rooms in the ancient gate were appropriated to the use of one of the lord-mayor's carvers; but, in the stead thereof, he has been of late years paid twenty pounds per annum by the city.

Near this gate (says Mr. Weever) was buried Nennius, duke of Locria; the son of Hely, brother to Lud and Cassibelan kings of Britain. Nennius was, it appears, a great warrior, and displayed most extraordinary courage in the course of the Roman invasion. With his own hand he killed Labienus the tribune; and routed Julius Cæsar himself; but not before he had received a wound of which he died: His body was rescued by the Britons. He still grasped the sword of Cæsar, which, with every funeral honour, was placed by his side in his coffin. Nennius is said to have been buried near Bishopsgate; but it will be recollected, that, at the time of the battle in which he is supposed to have been killed, which was soon after the Roman legions passed the Thames, and marching from the west environed the north side of Trinovant, this town had neither gates nor walls; nor had the island any bishops: the civic walls were built by Constantine the Great about A. D. 300. at which time it is supposed by some that Bishopsgate was erected by Restitutus bishop of London, a prelate who assisted at the council of Arles, and subscribed after the bishop of York. But, although the northern side of the metropolis was a thick forest, there is, from the antiquities discovered in the part of it that we are now contemplating, reason to believe that it was a cemetery of the ancient Britons, as it afterwards certainly was of the Anglo-Romans, who used to erect their funeral piles, and inter the ashes of their dead, without the gates of their cities; whence *fanum* has, in contradistinction to *templum*, been supposed to signify a cemetery. That Nennius was buried in this field, or burial-place, is therefore very probable, because at remote periods, even when the first sewer was formed, there was found in or near the spot alluded to several coffins of stone evidently of British and Saxon manufacture, containing the bones, as appeared by their vehicles, of eminent persons; and also, scattered in different parts, many human bones which it was supposed had been buried in coffins of wood. To the east of the Hospital of St. Mary Spital, and in a field called Lalefworth, it happened about the year 1576, when the earth was excavated for the purpose of making bricks for the new erections in Spital-fields, that many earthen urns were found, containing ashes and burned bones, evidently of the Roman inhabitants of the district.

6. *Moorgate*. In the year 1415, the wall of the city was broken near Coleman-street, and a postern built, which was afterwards called Moorgate, from its vicinity to Moorfields. In 1511 this postern was rebuilt, dikes and bridges were made, and the ground levelled, and made more commodious for the citizens to pass to their adjacent fields and

gardens. The late edifice, which was one of the most magnificent gates of the city, was erected in the year 1647, and consisted of a lofty arch, and two posterns for foot-passengers. The upper part of the gate was adorned with Corinthian pilasters, supporting their proper entablatures, and with a round pediment, in which were the city-arms; and the apartments over the gate were appropriated to the use of one of the lord-mayor's carvers.

About the year 1636, the city-wall between Bishopsgate was broken down opposite Winchester-street, and a postern-gate made there for the accommodation of foot-passengers; but this has been taken away, and the foot-way considerably enlarged. In the year 1635 the posterns of Basinghall and Aldermanbury were erected; but these also have been taken away, by order of the lord-mayor, aldermen, and common-council; and the several passages through London-wall to Fore-street are now open, elegant, and commodious.

7. *Cripplegate*. At the distance of one thousand and thirty-two feet to the west of Moorgate, stood Cripplegate, so named from a number of cripples who formerly begged there. The great antiquity of this gate cannot be doubted; for, in the history of Edmund king of the East Angles, written by Albas Floriacensis, and since that by John Lydgate, it is asserted, that, in the year 1010, the Danes ravaging the kingdom of the East Angles, Alwin bishop of Helmeham caused the body of king Edmund the martyr to be conveyed from Bury St. Edmund's, through the kingdom of the East Saxons, and into London, by the way of Cripplegate, where it is pretended that the body wrought miracles, making some of the lame walk upright, praising God. Its antiquity likewise appears from the charter of William the Conqueror, confirming the foundation of the college in London called St. Martin the Great, in which are these words: "I do give and grant unto the same church, and canons, serving God therein, all the lands, and the moor without the postern, which is called Cripplegate, on either part of the postern." This gate was formerly used as a prison, to which debtors, and persons charged with trespasses, were committed. In the year 1244, this gate was rebuilt by the company of Brewers of London; and, in the year 1483, Edmund Shaw, mayor of the city, bequeathed by his will four hundred marks, which, with the remains of the old gate, was to build a new one; and this was accordingly performed in the year 1491. The last account we have of any reparation of this gate is in the year 1663, when the following inscription was placed upon it; "This Gate was repaired and beautified, and the foot-postern new made at the charge of the city of London, the fifteenth year of the reign of our sovereign lord King Charles II. and in the mayoralty of Sir John Robinson, Knight and Baronet, Lieutenant of the Tower of London, and Alderman of this Ward; A. D. 1663."

This gate, which was a plain solid edifice, and void of all ornament, had more of the appearance of a fortification than any other gate of the city. The rooms over it were occupied by the water-bailiff of the city; and the gate had only one postern. Mr. Maitland has given it as his opinion, that, in the year 1010, this was the only gate in the north wall of the city, as it stood more convenient for one of the original gates than Alderfgate; and he thinks that this gate was originally erected over the Roman military way which was called the Ermine-street, and led from London to Hornsey. It is not impossible that the custom of reading proclamations at the end of Wood-street, in Cheap-side, may have arisen from the circumstance of its having been one of the old Roman military ways.

8. *Newgate* was situated at the distance of one thousand and thirty-seven feet south-west from the spot where Alderfgate stood; and it is the opinion of most of our antiquarians, that it obtained its name from being erected in the reign of Henry I. several hundred years after the four original gates of the city. Howel dissent from this opi-



nion, and asserts that it was only repaired in the above-mentioned reign, and that it was anciently denominated *Chamberlain-gate*; but, if this be true, it is very extraordinary that this gate is not once mentioned before the conquest. It appears, however, from ancient records, that it was called Newgate, and was a common jail for felons taken in the city of London, or the county of Middlesex, as early as the year 1218; and that so lately as the year 1457, Newgate, and not the Tower, was the prison for the nobility and great officers of state. Newgate, being much damaged by the fire of London in 1666, was repaired in the year 1672. The west side of this gate was adorned with three ranges of Tuscan pilasters, with their entablatures, and in the intercolumniations were four niches, in one of which was a figure representing Liberty, having the word *Libertas* inscribed on her cap; and at her feet a cat, in allusion to the story of sir Richard Whittington. (See p. 67.) The east side of the gate was likewise adorned with a range of pilasters, and in three niches the figures of Justice, Mercy, and Truth. Newgate stood across the east end of Newgate-street; and was removed in the year 1777; at which time the present Newgate was built on one side of the scite, and Giltspur-street Compter on the other.

These four ancient Gates are represented on Plate IV.—We now have but one non-existing gate to mention, which is,

9. *The Postern-gate.* This stood at the east end of Postern-row, on Tower-hill; and, by a part of it which was remaining when Stow wrote his Survey of London, appeared to have been a strong, handsome, arched gate. It was erected soon after the conquest, partly with Kentish stones, and partly with stones brought from Caen in Normandy. The destruction of this gate commenced in the year 1190, when William Longchamp, bishop of Ely, and chancellor of England, (the favourite of Richard I.) caused a part of the city-wall to be broken down to enlarge the Tower of London, which he then encompassed with a wide ditch, and an embattled wall, which is the outer wall of the Tower at this time. The Postern-gate, being thus deprived of the support of the city-wall on one side, fell down in the year 1440, and was never rebuilt; but in the place of it was erected a mean building of timber, lath, and loam; which is likewise decayed, and all remains of it totally removed. In the place where this gate stood, posts are now set up to prevent the passage of carts and coaches, room being left, between the posts, for foot-passengers. Adjoining hereto was till lately a double descent, by steps on each side protected by railing, to an excellent spring of water, called the Postern-spring. On the 4th of June, 1763, (the king's birth-day,) a dreadful accident happened here. It had long been a custom to exhibit fireworks upon these occasions, at the public expense, on Tower-hill. At this time the concourse of people was so great, that a vast number were pressed against this railing, and it gave way: of the multitude which were precipitated to a depth of near thirty feet, six were taken up dead, fourteen more died of their bruises, and many others were much hurt. The fireworks were never afterwards repeated; and the railing was replaced by a dwarf-wall. This has, however, been since removed, the cavity filled up, and a pump erected on the scite.

10. *St. John's Gate.* It is a well-known fact, that St. John's Gate, as it is called, near the end of St. John's street, was not originally a city-gate, but the solemn entrance to the famous priory of the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem or Knights Hospitallers. This foundation came into the possession of great wealth, and attained to the honour of being the chief seat of the Knights Hospitallers in England. Their prior ranked as the first baron in the realm, and lived in royal splendour. The rebels under Wat Tyler, determining to mortify their haughty luxury, burnt their house to the ground; but it was soon restored in a grander style than before. It was suppressed by Henry VIII. who appropriated it to the use of a repository for martial stores and the royal hunting-equipage. In the

following reign, the protector Somerset destroyed the church, with its fine steeple, (which was beautifully sculptured, gilt, and enamelled,) with the design of applying the materials towards erecting his own palace, in the Strand. Queen Mary partly restored this priory; but her protestant successor, Elizabeth, entirely suppressed it. It soon after went to decay, and the remaining gate became a public way from Clerkenwell into the city through Smithfield. This old building consists of a lofty Gothic arch, and on each side over the gate were not long since several escutcheons, which are engraved in Pennant's London, but are now entirely undistinguishable. The arms were carefully carved, and had inscriptions under them. This remnant offers a plain but grand idea of what the whole of the monastery may have been in its flourishing state. From this gate the Gentleman's Magazine first issued into the world in the year 1731; and has continued ever since to exhibit a view of the place in the front of every number.

11. *Temple Bar.* Neither was this a city-gate till the year 1670. By it the Strand is divided from Fleet-street, and the western limits of the city finally marked. Before the building of it, that is, before the fire of London, in 1666, nothing but posts, rails, and chains, intercepted the road. On the side towards the east, are, in niches, the statues of James I. and Anne of Denmark his queen, or, as others say, of queen Elizabeth; which has been conjectured because, in that case, the gate would present the effigies of four successive sovereigns; as Charles I. and Charles II. during whose reign it was built, are in the niches towards the west. The whole architecture, according to the style of the time, is good and elegant. The fabric is of Portland stone, and the work of John Bulliel, who died in 1701. The supporters of the king's arms, the lion and the unicorn, are placed on each side of the pediment as appropriate ornaments; and the height of the arch is about twenty feet. On this gate has been the sad exhibition of the heads of those who fell victims, in 1746, to principles now fortunately extinct and nearly forgotten. The improvements that have taken place of late on the western side, by laying open the area between the Bar and St. Clement's church, and the enlargement of the space on each side that ancient and curious church, do honour to those who planned and executed them. The houses thereabout are of an uncommon height, and add grandeur to the spot.

Near Temple-Bar stood, till within a few years, the Devil Tavern, so called from its sign, of St. Dunstan seizing the old gentleman by the nose with a pair of tongs. Ben Jonson has immortalized it by his *Leges Conviviales*, written for the regulation of a club of wits, who assembled here in a room called the Apollo.

We have now the satisfaction of entering upon the reign of his present majesty. No accession to the throne, either in Great Britain or in any other state of Europe, was ever more auspicious. Born an Englishman, though of a foreign race, George III. received the reins of government under more happy circumstances, or amidst more universal applause from his subjects, and in particular from the citizens of London, than any of his predecessors. The spirit of the Whigs and Tories was worn out, and the Brunswick dynasty most securely seated upon the throne. The torch of superstition was waning apace; and the tumultuous din of war was soon to be exchanged for the charming voice of peace. The whole of the metropolis shouted with rapturous joy on the day of the king's proclamation, at which the lord-mayor and aldermen, with a great number of persons of the first distinction, surrounded by a vast concourse of spectators, were present.

On the 28th of October, 1760, the lord-mayor and aldermen of London attended his majesty, at Leicester-house, with compliments of condolence and congratulation; an address was presented to him by the citizens, in their corporate capacity; as also another to the princess-dowager of Wales, his mother. This example was followed by the merchants and traders of the city, the clergy of London



and Westminster, and all the bodies politic and corporate in the three kingdoms.

Lord-mayor's day happening this year on a Sunday, Sir Matthew Blackiston, the mayor elect, was not sworn into his office till the day following; when, on account of the recent death of the king, who was not yet interred, the usual ceremonies were omitted, and he went privately in his coach, attended by the aldermen, to be sworn into his office.

About this time, two causes were tried in the court of King's Bench, Guildhall, respecting the right of the city to take toll for provisions exposed to sale before houses in the markets. They were tried before a jury of non-free-men; and the parties in the first were, the Citizens of London, plaintiffs, and Edward Smith and Ralph Twyford, salesmen, in Newgate-market, defendants. The other parties were the same plaintiffs, and John Cope, a salesman, defendant, for the sale of provisions in White-Hart-freet, an avenue or passage leading to Newgate-market. In each of these causes, the jury gave a verdict for the city; by which the citizens ultimately established their right to the tolls, not only in the markets, but also in the avenues or passages leading thereto.

Among the acts of parliament passed during this first session, was one for laying an additional duty on strong beer. Loud clamours were excited by this tax among the class of labouring people, especially in the metropolis, where some few publicans attempted to raise the price double the amount of the tax; but, as they did not act in concert, those houses in which the experiment was made were immediately abandoned by their customers. The streets resounded with the noise of vulgar discontent, which did not even respect the young sovereign; and, if the price of strong beer had been actually raised to the intended amount, in all probability some dangerous tumult would have ensued.

The business of the session being brought to a close, the parliament was dissolved on the 20th of March, 1761; and writs were issued out for the election of a new one.

A treaty of marriage having been concluded between his majesty and the princess Charlotte-Sophia of Mecklenburgh-Strelitz, the nuptials were solemnized by the archbishop of Canterbury, on the 18th of September, in the presence of the royal family, and the principal part of the nobility. The whole nation united in testifying their joy on this occasion; the amiable character of the princess promising future felicity both to her royal consort and his subjects. The lord-mayor, aldermen, and common-council, presented their congratulations to the royal pair on their nuptials; as also to the princess-dowager of Wales. It was on this occasion that the common-council appeared in mazarine-blue silk gowns, agreeable to an order of that court, made a short time before; which greatly contributed to heighten the solemnity and grandeur of their public appearance.

On the 22d of the same month, his majesty's coronation was performed in the abbey-church, at Westminster, with the usual solemnities. Their majesties and the princess-dowager went, in the morning, through the park, from St. James's, in chairs, and their attendants in coaches, to Westminster-hall; from thence they walked, about twelve o'clock, in grand procession, to the abbey. After the ceremony, which lasted six hours, they returned to the hall, where they dined most magnificently, in the presence of numberless spectators richly dressed. All the way of the procession was lined with crowded scaffolds, and the abbey also was as full and splendid as possible. On the queen's entrance into the hall, three thousand wax tapers were all lighted in less than five minutes. The royal standard was hoisted at the Tower, the ships in the river displayed their flags, the streets were universally illuminated, and all kind of business was entirely laid aside. A little before the procession began, proceeded that of the princess-dowager of Wales, from the house of lords, across Old Palace-yard, on a platform erected for that

purpose, to the south-cross of Westminster-abbey. She was led by the hand by prince William-Henry, dressed in white and silver. Her train, which was of silk, was but short, and her hair flowed down her shoulders in hanging curls. The rest of the princes and princesses, her royal highnesses's children, followed in this order: Prince Henry-Frederic, also in white and silver, handing his sister, the princess Louisa-Anne, dressed in a slip with hanging sleeves; then prince Frederic-William, in the same dress, handing his youngest sister, the princess Caroline-Matilda, dressed also in a slip with hanging sleeves. The other persons who made up this procession were those who had not a right to walk with their majesties; and the procession was closed by three Mahometan ambassadors, in the proper dresses of their country, having turbans of fine muslin on their heads, and long gowns of flowered and laced silk; their sashes were crimson, and in each of them were enclosed a dagger and poniard. The great diamond in his majesty's crown fell out in returning from the abbey to Westminster-hall, but was immediately found and restored.

The nation in general, and the corporation of London in particular, being greatly discontented at the measures of the court, and particularly at the resignation of Mr. Pitt, whose conduct in administration they highly esteemed, the court of common-council, on the 22d of October, unanimously resolved to instruct the city members on the sense of the citizens respecting the present critical conjuncture. Accordingly, instructions were drawn up and delivered to the four members; the principal articles in which were: To endeavour at a repeal or amendment of the late act for the relief of insolvent debtors, in respect of the inconveniences arising from the compulsive clause; (which was accordingly done by stat. 2 Geo. III. c. 2.) To promote all necessary measures for the establishing good economy in the distribution of the national treasure. To oppose all attempts for giving up such places as might tend to lessen our present security, restore the naval power of France, and expose us to fresh hostilities; particularly to preserve our sole and exclusive right to our acquisitions in North America, and its fisheries; and lastly, to concur in prosecuting the war with the utmost vigour, so as to obtain a safe and honourable peace.

At the same time another motion was made, that the thanks of the court be given to the Right Hon. Mr. Pitt, for the many and important services rendered to his king and country. And a third motion was made, that the committee, in their thanks to Mr. Pitt, do lament his resignation, &c. These motions, with the exception of the last, on which there was a division, were carried unanimously.

According to ancient custom, the lord mayor who is first elected to that office after a coronation invites the king and queen to dine at Guildhall on lord-mayor's day. Sir Samuel Fludyer, being chosen to that office, had the honour of entertaining their majesties on this occasion. The ceremonial was conducted with the greatest magnificence, all ranks striving to manifest their loyalty and attachment. The pageants and decorations were more pompous than had been on any former occasion; and the entertainment was elegant, sumptuous, and well conducted. His majesty and all the royal family expressed their entire approbation of it; and the nobility and foreign ministers acknowledged it to have been far beyond any they had ever seen. At a court of common-council, held on the 18th of November, it was resolved that a statue of his majesty should be erected in the Royal Exchange; and that his picture, with that of the queen, should be put in Guildhall. Their majesties, having been acquainted with the intentions of the court, condescended to sit for their pictures, which were soon after placed over the bustings in Guildhall; and the statue of the king was placed beside that of his grandfather in the Exchange.

We should be wanting in attention and regard to the spirit and manners of the times now under consideration, were we not to take notice of an impotence of the moit  
flagrant



flagrant impudence that ever was played upon the curiosity and credulity of the Londoners. It was carried on at the house of one Parsons, clerk of the parish of St. Sepulchre, and resident in Cock-lane, Smithfield. His daughter, a girl of ten years of age, being tutored for the purpose, pretended to be visited by the spirit of a young woman who had formerly lived in the house, and had died about a year and a half before this period. This woman, who went by the name of *Fanny*, had lived with a Mr. Kent, a broker, who had been the husband of her sister, and would willingly have taken Fanny to wife; but, this union being forbidden by the canon-law, the parties agreed to dispense with the ceremonies of the church, and lived together, until, to the great grief of her lover, she died of the small-pox. Kent, it seems, had incurred the resentment of Parsons by pressing him for the payment of some money he had lent him; and this is supposed to have been the source of this diabolical contrivance. His daughter, who had been a favourite of Fanny's, pretended to see her spirit; she was seized with apparent fits and tremblings; strange noises of knocking, scratching, whispering, fluttering, &c. were heard in the presence of the girl; and a woman, who lived in the house, and was an accomplice in the scheme, pretended to explain these different noises; all of which tended to show that she had been poisoned by her admirer. The circumstances of this strange visitation being reported, with many idle exaggerations, interested the public to such a degree, that nothing was talked of in all assemblies, from the highest to the lowest, but the *Cock-lane ghost*; to which there was a continual flux and reflux of people of all ranks; even some of the dignitaries of the church lent a countenance to the fraud, by joining in the superstitious throng who daily flocked to hear it. To such a height did this silly infatuation at length arrive, that all the suggestions of reason proved ineffectual to stop it; the most glaring inconsistencies were reconciled in support of the supernatural visitation, while the unfortunate object of it was universally detested as an infamous murderer; who, having robbed a poor girl of her innocence, and become fatiated with her person, had consigned her to an untimely end. In vain he published the affidavits of the physician and apothecary who attended her in her last illness; in vain he availed himself of the testimony of those who were with her in her last moments, and saw the tender parting between her and the man whom her spirit was now supposed to impeach. The more pains he took in his own justification, the more deeply were the people impressed with the conviction of his guilt. Under this dreadful persecution, he had recourse to the protection of the law, by commencing a suit against the father of the child, an ecclesiastic who had been very instrumental in promoting the imposture, and some others who had been more or less active in ruining his reputation and fortune. They were indicted for a conspiracy, and tried before lord-chief-justice Mansfield, who resisted an attempt that was made to prove that the visitation was supernatural: he treated such a supposition with the contempt it deserved, and pronounced the whole to be an infamous imposture, contrived and carried on to effect the ruin of an innocent person; and the jury before whom it was tried convicted all the parties of the conspiracy. Parsons was condemned to stand in the pillory three times in one month, and to be imprisoned for two years; his wife was imprisoned for one year; the woman who acted as interpreter was committed to Bridewell, to be kept to hard labour for six months; and the clergyman and another person who had been active in the transaction were dismissed with a severe reprimand, after having compromised the affair with the prosecutor, to whom they paid a considerable sum of money, as a reparation for the injury he had sustained.

On the 5th of July came on at Guildhall, a cause which had been long depending between the city and the dissenters, concerning the eligibility and obligation of the latter to serve the office of sheriff; when, after several learned

pleadings, the judges gave their opinion, that dissenters were not obliged to serve that office. This determination was afterwards confirmed by the house of lords.

On the 27th of September, it appeared, that, by the rains which fell for some days past, a high tide in the river Thames, and a strong gale of wind at north, the rivers within twenty miles of London were so raised, that the like had never been known in the memory of man; and the damage that was sustained, more especially on the river Lea, was almost incredible. In less than five hours, the water rose twelve feet in perpendicular height. About Stratford, West Ham, Plaistow, Waltham-abbey, and along the marshes, they were very fatal to the inhabitants. Most of their cattle in the fields were carried off; likewise stacks of hay and wood, with the loss of the hogs that were in their sties and yards, together with all the horses that were in the stables. In some parts of Stratford, the flood reached the chamber-windows, and the face of the waters was covered with the bodies of the heats that perished. From the nearest computation that could be made, not less than five thousand hogs perished in this flood, together with all the horses and other cattle that were in the meadows, whose numbers were very considerable. The flood extended itself over all the causeways, and several people were lost in the high roads: a woman and horse, and a gentleman in a post-chaise, with the horses and post-boy, all perished in the water; and three of the passengers in the Bury machine, with two of the horses, were also drowned. The china-works, beyond Bow-bridge, were overflowed in such a manner, that the current rushed through the great arch like the tide through the arches of London-bridge. The calico-grounds, in the neighbourhood of Bow and Stratford, were overflowed, and great quantities of linen carried off. The houses, from Bow-bridge to Stratford, were under water; and the inhabitants were compelled to take refuge by getting out of their windows.

The negotiations for peace, which had been some time in hand, having been brought to an issue, the secretary of state sent, on the 8th of November, to inform the lord-mayor, that the preliminaries of pacification were signed on the 3d instant; in consequence of which, a cessation of arms was proclaimed at London on the 1st of December; and, on the 22d of March, 1763, the definitive treaty, which had been signed at Paris, on the 10th of February, was proclaimed at the usual places in London; but so dissatisfied were the citizens with the terms of it, that the common-council could not be prevailed on to address; and that which was obtained from the aldermen, was carried up by eight of that body, with a *locum tenens* at their head. For the contents of this treaty, see the article ENGLAND, vol. vi. p. 735.

Ever conspicuous in deeds of charity, and ready to help the distressed, the city offered her protection, in the month of August, 1764, to about six hundred Palatines, and other German protestants, who were landed at the port of London in the greatest distress. They had been induced to quit their own country, by a German officer, on a promise of settlements in America, with, as he stated, the concurrence of the British court. This promise he was unable to perform; and, as it afterwards appeared, no authority had been given to him to make any such agreement. On the arrival of these poor deluded people, they found themselves in a strange country, without money or friends. Some who had the means of paying for their passage were permitted to land; but such as had not were kept on-board the ships; and both were in a starving condition. In this deplorable state they experienced the benevolence of Britons; their case being made known to the public by the Rev. Mr. Wachsel, minister of the German Lutheran church in Ayliffe-street, a subscription was instantly opened for their relief; food, clothing, and medical assistance, for their immediate necessities, were supplied by the inhabitants of the neighbourhood in which they were; tents, for their reception,

were.



were given by order of the king; and, at length, they were sent by the government to South Carolina, with every thing necessary for them during the voyage, and proper means for their comfortable establishment on their arrival.

At this time the silk-weavers experienced great distress, but an act passed for their relief put an end to several riotous proceedings which had for some time alarmed the city. The importation of French silks had been the cause of these disturbances, and the assurances to the master-weavers that it would be discontinued, aided by the timely interference of the magistrates and of the parliament, brought the whole to a peaceable accommodation.

A dreadful fire broke out on the 1st of June, 1765, in a maff-yard, near Rotherhithe church, which, in a few hours, destroyed two hundred and six houses, together with a brig and several lighters in the river. The wind carried the flames to a considerable distance; but luckily they were driven from the Thames, otherwise the consequence to the shipping must have been very fatal. These losses were computed at ten thousand pounds; but the unhappy sufferers, many of whom had not insured their property, were relieved by the munificence of the public, who raised such contributions as greatly exceeded the estimates of the claimants.

This and many other fires which happened during the course of the year, appear to have been either produced, or greatly increased, if they occurred accidentally, by evil-minded persons; for, about this time, many incendiary letters were dropped in different parts of London, and several trains, laid for this desperate purpose, were discovered and defeated within a few weeks. Notwithstanding this, another dreadful conflagration took place on the 7th of November, about three o'clock in the morning, at the house of one Rutland, a peruke-maker, in Bishopsgate-street, next door to the corner-house in Leadenhall-street. The wind being high, the flames spread to the corner-house, and from thence to the opposite side; when these, for want of water and proper assistance, soon communicated to the other two, so that the four corner-houses were all on fire at the same time. The house, which formed the corner of Gracechurch-street and Cornhill, was only damaged, but the other three were all destroyed; as were also all the houses from the corner of Cornhill, next Bishopsgate-street, to the church of St. Martin Outwich, at the corner of Threadneedle-street. The church and parsonage-house, as well as the back part of several houses in Threadneedle-street, were greatly damaged. All the houses in White-Lion-court were entirely destroyed; among which was the White-Lion-tavern, that had been bought but the evening before for between two and three thousand pounds. The back part of Merchant-Taylors' Hall was greatly damaged; five houses on the Exchange-side of Cornhill were entirely consumed, as were several others in Leadenhall-street. Near a hundred houses were destroyed or damaged; and the loss was computed at 100,000*l*. Several lives were lost, not only by the fire, but by the falling of chimneys and walls. A gentleman, who ventured among the ruins next day, thinking that some persons might be still alive under the rubbish, waved his hat, to engage the attention of the spectators, and declared that he was sure many were actually under the spot on which he stood. Upon this, the firemen went immediately to work with their pick-axes; and, on removing the rubbish, they drew out, alive, two men, three women, and a child about six years old. The following day, as some of the workmen were clearing away the rubbish from the cellar of one of the houses, a stack of chimneys suddenly fell down; by which accident eight persons were killed, and several others had their limbs crushed in a shocking manner. Many of the sufferers by this fire not being insured, a subscription was opened for their relief, which soon produced a handsome sum; one thousand pounds of which was subscribed by his majesty. The Grocers' and Ironmongers' companies each

subscribed a hundred pounds, and the lord-mayor fifty; a part of which was distributed among the unfortunate widows and children of the men who were killed by the falling of the stack of chimneys.

The annals of the city present us, at this period, with several regulations, issued from the court of common-council, by which the rights of the citizens, and the support of the poor were considerably improved. At a court held the 23d of January, 1767, it was unanimously resolved, that, on account of the distresses of the poor, (which at that time were very great, occasioned by the inclemency of the season,) one thousand pounds should be subscribed out of the chamber of the city; and that a subscription-book should be opened in the chamberlain's office, for the donations of all well-disposed persons; which money should be appropriated to the relief of such poor persons, inhabiting within the city and liberties, as did not receive alms of the parishes; and a committee was appointed, consisting of the lord-mayor, and all the aldermen, and fifty-two commoners, who immediately withdrew, and began a subscription among themselves; to which the lord-mayor gave one hundred pounds, and the rest of the gentlemen very liberally. By this noble plan great numbers of people were happily relieved from the most abject state of distress.

On the 14th of September, 1767, Elizabeth Brownrigg (wife of James Brownrigg, painter, in Fetter-lane, Fleet-street) was executed at Tyburn, for the murder of Mary Clifford, her apprentice. The child's death was occasioned by a series of such uncommon barbarities, as, had they not been well attested on the trial, would have appeared almost incredible. The husband and son, who were in some degree concerned, were acquitted of the murder, but afterwards tried for an assault; of which being found guilty, they were sentenced to be imprisoned in Newgate six months, and to enter into recognizance for their good behaviour for seven years. Before the left Newgate, her husband and son took an affectionate leave of her in the cell. She appeared very penitent in the way to, and at, the place of execution; where the number of spectators was so great, that many persons were considerably bruised by the pressure of the crowd.

The year 1768 began with a very severe frost, which greatly contributed to the calamity of the lower sort of people, who were already much distressed from the exorbitant price of provisions. On the 9th of January, the river, below bridge, bore all the appearance of a general wreck; ships, boats, and small craft, lying in a very confused manner, some on-shore, and others sunk, or overset by the ice. A fishing-boat was discovered, near Deptford-creek, jammed in by the ice, and all the people in it frozen to death; one of whom, a youth about seventeen, was found sitting erect, as if alive.

Dreadful affrays happened at this time, between coal-heavers and sailors; which ended in the execution of two of the former for the murder of one Battie.

In the same year, the king of Denmark being on a visit to his majesty, the citizens of London were desirous of showing their respect to him; in consequence of which it was resolved in a court of common-council to invite him to an entertainment at the Mansion-house, which being accepted, the 23d of September was the day appointed for receiving the royal guest, who intimated his desire of coming to the city by water. In consequence of this, on the appointed day, the city-barge, attended by the companies' barges, proceeded to New Palace-yard, where the king embarked; and, in order to give him a more extensive view of the banks of the river, a circuit was made as high as Lambeth, and then down to the Steel-yard, after which they returned to the Temple-stairs, and, on landing, were conducted to the Middle-Temple Hall, where an elegant collation was prepared by the benchers of the two societies. From the Temple his majesty was conducted to the Mansion-house in the city state-coach, followed by the noblemen of his suite, and the aldermen



and sheriffs in their carriages; on alighting, he was received by the committee appointed to manage the entertainment, in their mazarine-gowns; and, being conducted into the great parlour, received the compliments of the city, to which his majesty returned a very polite answer. The dinner, which was exceedingly magnificent, was served in the Egyptian-hall; the galleries of which were filled with the ladies of the common-council, elegantly attired; and an excellent band of music was stationed in an orchestra erected for the occasion. His majesty took leave of the corporation about eight o'clock, having expressed his highest satisfaction at the elegance of the entertainment. The procession was very grand, the entertainment sumptuous; and at a court of common-council held on the 10th of October, the freedom of the city was unanimously voted to his majesty, to be presented in a golden box of two hundred guineas value: he was admitted into the Grocers' company; and his freedom, being afterwards given to his ambassador here, was by him transmitted to Copenhagen.

On the 3d of January, 1769, the election for alderman of the ward of Farringdon without came on at St. Bride's church; the candidates were Mr. Wilkes and Mr. Bromwich; but, on the close of the first day's poll, the disparity of numbers was so great, that the latter gentleman declined the contest, and the lord-mayor declared Mr. Wilkes duly elected. Some doubts, however, were started respecting the legality of closing the books before the time appointed for that purpose; and a second wardmote was held for a new election on the 27th, when, no opponent appearing, Mr. Wilkes was again declared duly elected. That distinguished patriot was at this time in confinement for the causes detailed at length in our article ENGLAND, vol. vi. p. 736, 741, 744, 768. This reward, therefore, and that of the chamberlainship subsequently bestowed, were intended to evince the high sense which the city had of his exertions in protecting them from the oppression of *general warrants*, and his other efforts in the cause of freedom. And accordingly, upon his liberation, which took place on the 24th of April, 1770, he was sworn in alderman of the ward of Farringdon without, and took precedence from the time of his election.

Soon after this, Mr. Beckford, who was lord-mayor for the second time, attended by the sheriffs and several of the aldermen, went in state to the Old Bailey, and laid the first stone of the prison called Newgate. This was the last transaction of this worthy magistrate's life. The citizens of London, honouring him for his firmness and intrepidity in defending their rights against the undermining workings of the ministry, passed a resolution, in the first common-council after his death, for erecting a statue to his memory in Guildhall. See vol. ii. p. 842, 3.

The opposition to the impress-service was carried to such a height, in the city of London, at this period, that, on the 15th of January, 1771, a motion was made in the court of common-council, to censure Mr. Alderman Harley for having backed the warrants; and, on the 22d, the following resolution was carried: "That if any person shall be impressed within this city or liberty into his majesty's service, by virtue of any warrant granted or backed by any of his majesty's justices of the peace for this city, this court will immediately direct their solicitor, at the city's expense, to prosecute, in the name of the person so impressed (if he desires it), not only the justice of the peace who granted or backed the said warrant, but the constable or peace-officer who executed the same." This question, however, was put to rest by a letter from the secretary of state to the lord-mayor, informing him that the dispute between the two governments was amicably adjusted.

During this session of parliament was passed the famous *paving-act*. The stat. 10 Geo. II. c. 22. had established a system of paving, lighting, cleansing, and watching, the city of London; and other regulations had been made from time to time, particularly an act of parliament in 1762, which occasioned the removal of the large sign-frames

which went all across the streets; but the statute which totally and finally removed signs and sign-posts, balconies, spouts, gutters, and those other encroachments and annoyances which were felt as grievances by the inhabitants, did not pass till this year. The stat. 11 Geo. III. c. 29. contains a complete and masterly system of that branch of the police which is connected with municipal regulations; and may be considered as a model for every large city in the empire. This statute extends to every obstruction by carts and carriages, and provides a remedy for all nuisances which can prove, in any respect, offensive to the inhabitants; and special commissioners, called commissioners of sewers, are appointed to ensure a regular execution. This statute was afterwards improved by stat. 33 Geo. III. c. 75. by which the power of the commissioners is increased, and some nuisances, arising from butchers, dustmen, &c. further provided against.

The custom of hanging signs over the door, or at any other part of the house, is of ancient date; for the Romans used them, as appears from Quintilian, who says, *Tabernæ erant circa forum, et scutum illud signi gratiâ positum*; "There were shops around the market-place, and this shield hung there as a sign." A bush of ivy or a bunch of grapes was often used for the same purpose; and hence the proverb, Good wine needs no bush.

In England, signs originated by law in the time of Charles I. but they had partially subsided long before; for the very charter of that king, whereby the citizens were directed to "hang out signs for the better finding of their respective dwellings," is a proof that in many instances such indications were already pendant over shops in the city and elsewhere. The rage for these gaudy, and too-often tawdry, pensile works of the brush, had at length risen to such a pitch, that the streets of London and Westminster (aped by the country-towns) exhibited as many and various paintings as any famous sale at Christie or Phillips's rooms. Expense was not spared on the occasion; and the *envie de métier* among tradesmen was such, that one generally wished to outshine another. Indeed, we are told, that a young man, opening his shop for the first time, was often at a loss to find money for the sign-post, upon the *beautiffulness* of which his future welfare and success considerably depended.—The choice of a witty device, or splendid *enluminure*, was therefore of great consequence; and indeed, if we may relax from the indispensably-serious tenor of our annals, by relating a few anecdotes upon this subject, we shall evince that these *silent advertisers* were of great import to their proprietors.

Although the following anecdote originated in a foreign country, we do not think it foreign to our purpose; and have no doubt, we are even sure, that it has its counterpart in many places of our island.—An inn-keeper at Cassel, having considerably profited by his numerous customers under the sign of "the Grey Ass;" supposing himself well established in his trade and house, began to be tired of the vulgar sign which hung over his door. The arrival of the landgrave of Hesse furnished him with an opportunity of making, as he thought, a very advantageous change.—In an evil hour, the Grey Ass was pulled down and thrown aside, and a well-painted and faithful likeness of the prince substituted for it, as a most loyal sign. A small and unfrequented house in the same town immediately took up the discarded device, and speculatively hoisted "the Grey Ass." What was the consequence?—Old codgers, married men with scolding wives at home, straggling young fellows, (*potus et exlex*,) all the fraternity of free toppers, resorted to the house, filled the tap-room, crammed the parlour, assailed the bar; the Grey Ass had the run and the vogue, whilst the venerable *Prince of Hesse* swang mournfully and deserted at the other place, and enticed no visitors, foreign or domestic; for it is to be observed, that the Grey Ass had such reputation all over Germany, that every foreign nobleman or gentleman who came to Cassel was sure to order his coach or chaise to be driven to the inn of that name; and this order of



course was still continued; for how was it to be known, by travellers coming from Vienna, or from Hungary or Bohemia, that a certain inn-keeper at Cassel had altered his sign? "Honour and wealth, what are ye but a name!" To the inn, therefore, which was named the Grey Afs, they still went. What could the deserted inn-keeper do?—To deface the fine portrait of his master would have been high-treason, yet losing his customers was downright starving. In this cruel dilemma he dreamt of a new scheme, and had it executed: the portrait was preserved; but he wrote under it, "*This is the real original Grey Afs.*"

The same rivalry for signs existed in London, and indeed sign-painting became an important trade. Harp-alley was the common mart for them, where they could be bought from five shillings to five pounds. In the year 1743, a most beautiful representation of "good Queen Bess" hung in Ludgate-street to the gaping admiration of the passers; and the Three Pigeons in the same street is still remembered. No expense was grudged for these ornaments; and indeed there was such a profusion of gold every where, that a wag wittily remarked at the time, that sign-painters seemed to possess the faculty of Midas, since they turned every thing they touched into gold. The Golden Crown, the Golden Sugar Loaf, the Golden Leather Bottle, and even the Golden Half-moon, were to be gazed at every where.

The devices of or upon signs were often allusive to the trade of the house.—A cook of the name of *Lebec* (the beak), and another of the same profession of the name of *Brawn*, hung their own effigies over their shops, in allusion to their calling. One of those punning signs exhibited the head of Henry VIII. a fish, and a white ball, because the name of the master below was *Henry Whiting*. The Swan, with one or two necks, was a pun brought from France, where the word *Cygne*, a swan, sounds like that of *Signe*, a sign. They had there a swan with a cross, which they called *Le Signe de la Croix*, "the Sign of the Cross." Yet, some one will ask, how do you account for the two necks bestowed on the swan? This *Swan*, or *Sign*, of the *Cross*, had a cross entwined with his neck; and, at the time of the reformation, the popish figure of the cross having been brushed away, the painter twisted another neck in its stead. The *Last*, a very common sign for a public-house, and now generally understood to be an invitation to shoemakers, or a designation that shoemakers frequent it, originated from some publican writing over his door "This is the *Last*;" viz. the last house in the street or town where you can get any thing to eat or drink; with an *inuendo*, that, if you do not stop here, you run risk of dining with duke Humphrey. This trick was not confined to London, for we recollect to have seen in several towns of France, public-houses, or *cabarets*, with a sign exhibiting the motley group of a *He-goat*, an *Owl*, and a *Mound*, or globe. To guests what it meant was not an easy thing; but, placing the French words, *Bouc*, "a he-goat," *Duc*, "an horned owl," and *Monde*, "a mound," one after another, it was then discovered that it signified *Le Bout du Monde*, or "the World's End." The cunning publican insinuating by his enigmatical device, that his house was the *last* on the road.

Many public-houses in London and in the country, have on the door-posts or windows several squares of different colours, like a draught-board; and, if they have no other sign, this serves for one, and is called the Chequers. This practice originated from the earl of Warren, whose arms were "chequed or and blue," having the disposal of licenses for houses of that description.—The *Angel*, meaning "a messenger," suited, as a sign, the places of resort for carriers and errand-men. We should be sorry to suppose that the *Goose and Gridiron* alluded to the saint who suffered martyrdom on that culinary utensil; yet we doubt not but the *Flower-pot*, in Bishopgate-street, preserves some remains of "the Annunciation;" the Virgin being generally painted with a vase replete with lilies and other

flowers. The transient blast of superstition, under the denomination of puritanism, blew off the *Virgin* and the *Angel*, and permitted the less-obnoxious nosegay to remain. On the eve of days consecrated to the Virgin Mary, anciently in this, and even now in foreign countries, her statues were adorned with garlands of flowers, and surrounded with wax tapers. A serenade with musical instruments used to close the religious scene at the corner of the street. The house was called either the *Annunciation* or the *Salutation*.

We shall mention a few more punning signs.—The *Bull and Mouth* is a corruption of *Boulogn Mouth*. The *Bear* was a pun for *Beer*; the *Brown Bear* for *Brown stout Beer*; and, when it appeared with a bunch of grapes in its mouth, it was a sure sign that, besides malt-liquor, wine was sold in the house.

The *Bell Savage* has been resolved into the pun of a wild man, or savage, striking on a bell. If we make it feminine, *Belle Sauvage*, it means "a cruel fair;" and some think it was merely a contraction of *Arabella Savage*, the name of the landlady. But *Belle Sauvage* signifies also a wild woman; and in conformity with this is the account given in the *Spectator*, No. 28. who derives it from a most beautiful woman described in an old French romance as being found in a wilderness in a savage state. The story and its poetical recitation are well-known there, and the tune is of great sweetness and simplicity. The fact is related in this manner: Genevieve, wife to one of the ancient dukes of Brabant, having resisted the insult of the steward, was accused by him of adultery. She was condemned to death by her husband; but found means to escape with her child, and ran to the forest des Ardennes, where she concealed herself and brought up her little boy by the help of a hind, whom, wondrous to tell! she had so tamed as to make her suckle the infant whose natural food had been dried up by grief and want of suitable nourishment. Seven years after her disappearance the steward died, having first made a full confession of his guilt; and, not long after, the duke, following the hind whom he had pierced with an arrow, discovered his innocent consort, who was then covered entirely with her hair, and in a wild state. The romance to which this gave occasion dates of the 15th century; and is, in style, similar to our *Chevy Chase*. But to come from romance to history; it appears by some ancient records, that the erection which occupied the ground on which this inn now stands was called *La Belle Savoyarde*, alluding perhaps to Eleanor queen of Henry III. who was a daughter of the count of *Savoy*.

The *Spectator* mentions another sign, "The Cat and the Fiddle," in which he finds a conceit; perhaps between the strings of the instrument and the guts of the quadded, or, more likely, between the mewings of Grimalkin and the ear-torturing scrapings of a bad fiddler.

The *Three Nuns and a Hare* was a common sign in his time; the *Three Nuns* remain to this day by the Seven Dials, but *Puss* has run away.—He was scandalized at the sign of a *Goat* over the door of a *perfumer*, and at the *French King's Head* (alas! was it a sort of prognostication?) at a *sword-cutter's*; but he laughs heartily at a Frenchman, who, near Charing Cross, hoisted for his sign a *Punch-bowl*, and *Two Angels* squeezing a lemon into it. The *Spectator* does not give us the key of this curious device; but we may easily conceive that the *tasteful* foreigner, who had seldom, if ever, drunk good punch in his own country, found it here so heavenly a liquor, that he thought angels must have had a hand in the making of it.

The Sun, the Rising Sun, owes its blazing appearance on sign-posts to the alluding motto, which was generally, "The best drink (under the Sun.)" In the year 1739, there was on the Hounslow road a little alehouse, with this moving inscription: "Poor Jack striving to live;" and we doubt not but the unassuming motto drew customers to the tap-room.—The following curious inscription is at the sign of the *Snail* in the King's Road:



The snail is slow,  
And I am low!  
What d'ye think?—  
Pray stop and drink.

This sort of dialogical invitation, we remember to have met with often in Picardy and Normandy, in the road to Paris. To save travellers the trouble even of thinking, the publican, or *cabaretier*, has in large letters, not always very correctly spelt, these words: *Où irons-nous?—Entrons ici—Chez Pierre Le Roux, &c.*—"Where shall we go? Let's in here, &c. &c."

The following couplet was very common under sign-posts eighty years ago:

Drink here and drown all sorrow;  
Pay to day, and trust to-morrow.

A caution of some import to several ambulant tipplers.

The Pope's Head and Cardinal's Hat taverns, in Cornhill, date a century at least before the reformation; for Stow mentions them both as existing at the time of Henry VI. He says that "at that time the wine-drawer of the Pope's Head tavern (standing without door in the High-street) used to sell a pint of wine for a penny, with bread allowed free."

The Magpye and Stump, is a manifest invitation to good fellows to walk in, and, their elbow "leaning on the beechen table," to chatter away as the well-known bird does on the stump of a tree.—The *Dolphin* is of a very ancient date, as ancient perhaps as the year 1213, when Louis, *Dauphin* of France, was invited over to England: we have seen, in p. 63 of this article, that Louis and the Londoners were good friends to the time of his departure. Perhaps, however, this sign is connected with the proverb, "He drinks like a fish;" and a sort of stimulating address to the customer; an invitation to come in and drink as fishes do; without harm and without ceasing.—The Mermaid may have emerged out of the same conceit.—The Saracen's Head reminds us of the crusades; and the Blue-coat-Boy of Edward VI. and his munificent foundation. The Pewter Platter, Bunch of Grapes, and Bush, may range under the invitatorial signs.

It appears that, when a man married a woman who lived under a sign, he adopted and impaled the device, as we do coats of arms; hence the heterogeneous compounds which we often remark in the remains of that ancient custom—as the Kings and Keys, Cat and Bagpipes, Cow and Snuffers, &c. &c.

A very ingenious author, in an essay inserted in the *Gentleman's* and *London Magazines* for the year 1738, observes, that "whoever takes notice of the signs in England, will find that they all, or nearly all, tend to exemplify national bravery; and that he who contrives the most heroic sign is sure of most custom. Some hang out the heads of great commanders, such as Monk, Marlborough, or Ormond; others exhibit the machines and requisites of war, as Ships, Guns, Cannons, and Castles. The very sign, or, to speak more properly, (for *signum*, from which we derived *sign*, means in Latin the warlike standard, the colours, of a regiment or legion,) the arms of England, display the undaunted temper of the people: the Lion, the Unicorn, and the Horse, lately added to the quarterings."

This leads us to speak of the badges of princes or states which have been used as signs. Thus, the Falcon was the badge of Edward III. the White Hart, with a ducal coronet and chain or, alluded to Richard II. the Blue Boar to Richard III. the Swan to Henry IV. two Ostrich-feathers to Henry VI. the Sun to Edward IV. the Black Bull to the same; the Red Rose was the badge of the house of Lancaster, the White Rose distinguished that of York; the Greyhound was the symbol adopted by Henry VII. the Royal Oak reminds us of Charles II. and the White Horse, being the badge of the electorate of Hanover, is used, as well as the George, in compliment to the present reigning family.

Near Drury-lane, was a public house with the sign of the Queen of Bohemia's Head; a sort of immortality, says Pennant, given by the heroic William lord Craven to his admired mistress, whose battles he first fought, animated by love and duty.—The same author mentions the Falcon near St. Bride's church, as being the sign of Wynkyn de Worde's house, or inn; and adds, that he printed his "*Frutye of Times*" at the sign of the *Sonne*.

The Dragon has been adopted as a sign by some Welsh publican in commemoration of his Cambrian origin, the dragon being a badge of the principality of Wales.—The Green Dragon may allude to the event related under the article KNIGHTHOOD, vol. xi. p. 793. and, perhaps, took its station over the door of some inn in the neighbourhood of the houses belonging to the knights of St. John of Jerusalem. There is in Bishopgate-street a most excellent carving of this fabulous animal, in a very spirited attitude, at the bottom of the yard of an inn well known by that name.—The Goat in Jackboots seems to be also of Welsh origin.

The *Dun Cow* reminds us of an old story of the famous Guy earl of Warwick.—We are told, that the first sign-post which strikes the sight at the landing on the quay of Dublin, is that belonging to the inn called "The Cow;" and that, by a curious *nationality*, the sign really bears a stronger likeness to a *Bull*. Whether this mistake alludes or gave origin to the denomination of *bull*, generally applied to those blunders which are generated by rapidity of thought overcoming the facility of utterance, we leave others to decide.

The Three Balls, exhibited at the shops of pawnbrokers, by the vulgar humorously enough said to indicate that it is two to one the things pledged are never redeemed, were originally nothing but *pills*, as the following statement will prove. It is a well-known fact in the history of Europe, that the first money-lenders were some inhabitants of Lombardy, who spread themselves all over Europe, and obtained a sort of settlement in almost every considerable city, as appears by the streets which bear still their name; viz. *Lombard-street* in London, *Rue des Lombards* at Paris, &c.—The most natural way to indicate their dwellings was to hang over their doors, as a sign, the arms of their sovereign, the illustrious house of the *Medici*: now these very arms are nothing but balls, bolusses, or pills, red and blue upon a gold ground, in allusion to the name *Medici*, which means "Physicians," from one of which profession this family had its rise. The original colour was kept up for a long time, and gave a denomination to several *Blue-ball-alleys*, where these money-lenders used to hide their usurious practices; but they have since found it necessary to gild their pills, as a better decoy for their needy customers.

Another sign appertaining to a particular profession was Abfalom hanging to a tree by his hair, and king David lamenting at a distance. This was adopted by a wig-maker, who caused a label to issue from David's mouth, containing these words:

O Abfalom, my son, my son;  
Hadst thou but worn a peruke, thou hadst not been undone.

This sign was exhibited, a few years since, in Union-street, Borough; and is not uncommon in France.

In Fleet-market, on the eastern side, were small houses with a sign-post representing *two hands conjoined*, with "Marriages performed within" written beneath, whilst a dirty fellow assailed the ears of the passengers with the iterated and loud compellation of "Sir, will you be pleased to walk in and be married;" as if the dread of any stoppage in the trade of conjugality was threatening mankind with premature extinction. The parson was seen walking before his shop, as an ambulant sign, "ready (says the same author) to couple you for a dram of gin or a roll of tobacco." The Stat. 26 Geo. II. c. 33, (anno 1752.) at length put an end to this most scandalous practice.

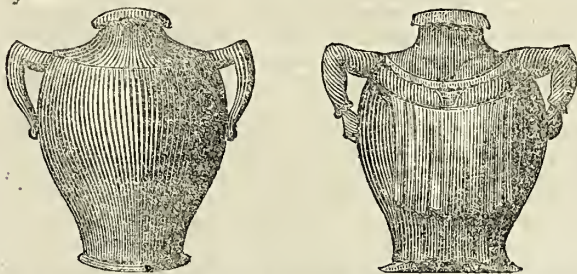


The Good Woman (without a head.) Some persons, whose reading and experience have brought them in contact rather with bad women than good, and who perhaps have read the story of a woman who spoke very well without a tongue, (a story which is attested by Wilcox bishop of Rochester, and was read before the Royal Society in a letter from Lisbon, dated Sept. 3, 1707; and which gave occasion to the following epigram:—

*Qu'une femme parle sans langue,  
Et même fasse une harangue;  
On le dit, et je le crois bien!  
Mais qu'avec une langue elle puisse taire,  
Oh! ma foi, voilà le mystère!  
En vérité je n'en crois rien.*

That without tongue a woman could  
Chat and prattle, talk aloud;  
As a fact I must receive it.—  
But, that a woman with a tongue  
Could hold her peace, and hold it long;  
Pshaw! I can't believe it. (Z.)

Some such persons, we say, have been of opinion, that a woman never could be absolutely good unless her head were entirely off; and hence have deduced the origin of the sign, which is still to be seen at an oil-shop in St. Giles's, midway between the church and Tottenham-Court Road; at another in Bishopgate-street; and at another in London Road. But, when the reader is told, that this sign has never appeared but at an oil-shop, and that it is commonly believed that the first-mentioned house has been in the same trade, and with the same sign, or something like it, ever since the days of Charles I. he will perhaps agree with us, that the sign was originally, at that distant period, nothing but an Italian oil-jar, which, being very badly painted, and become much worse by decay, might have been likened by the customers to an headless old woman with her arms a-kimbo; and might really have been as much like one as what it was intended for. Then we may suppose the next occupier of the house, either deceived himself, or humouring the mistake of others, might, when he renewed his sign, really turn it into a woman without a head. Or, even supposing the mistake to have been made by the sign-painter, from being unable to distinguish the figure he had to copy from; this will not appear so very absurd, when we have given, as below, a representation of a jar and an old woman side by side.



We have read of stranger metamorphoses, and of stranger errors in drawing; for one of which we shall cross the Atlantic, and go to North America. A certain great shopkeeper, or merchant, of New York, who had never learned to write, used notwithstanding to keep his own accounts. His practice was, to make a gross representation, in his book, of the article he had sold, with certain marks for dates and prices. Mr. Landseer, in his Lectures on Engraving, strongly objects to the word *copying* as applied to the reduced drawing of a large picture or other object: he prefers the word *translating*. Our merchant, therefore, when he sold any article, did not *copy* it into his book—no, he *translated* it; and it is well-known that most things suffer by translation: so it was in the instance we are going to relate. A neighbour called in one morning to settle an account. Our merchant opens his draw-

ing-book: On such a day, says he, you had a cask of vinegar, on such a day a side of bacon, on such a day a cheese. The debtor protested he never had had any cheese, but the creditor was positive; for (says he) here it is in my book. The debtor, after some consideration, says; I cannot recollect having had any thing of you near that time, except indeed a *grindstone*. "You are right," says the merchant; "a grindstone it was; the mistake was mine; for I did not leave a hole in the middle of it, to distinguish it from a cheese."

In spite of the entertainment which these motley exhibitions afforded, they were doomed to be taken down in the year 1762 and 1771. The danger of their falling upon the heads of the passengers, the interruption they created to the sight in the streets, and their disagreeable creaking by day and night in high winds, united for their destruction, to the no small disadvantage and regret of several artists in that line; for it was a lucrative, though inferior, branch of the art of painting, and furnished employment to many clever hands. Sometimes men of superior talents condescended to employ their brushes upon sign-posts, which, though in high situations, were not always in high esteem, but brought nevertheless a great profit to the performers. Mr. Wale, a royal academician, was occasionally a sign-painter; the principal sign which he painted was a whole-length of Shakespeare, about five feet high, which was displayed before the door of a public-house, the north-west corner of Little Ruffel-street, in Drury-lane: it was enclosed in a most sumptuous carved-and-gilt frame, and suspended by rich iron-work: but it happened that this splendid object was not long exhibited; for the act we are speaking of was passed very soon after, and caused it to be removed: it was then sold for a trifle to a broker, at whose door it stood for several years, till it was totally destroyed by weather and other accidents.—Van Somer was another sign-painter of reputation, who put any price he liked on his works.—In the beginning of his present majesty's reign, among the most celebrated practitioners in this branch of the profession, was a person of the name of Lamb, who possessed a considerable degree of ability; his pencil was bold and masterly, well adapted to the subjects he treated, and the best colourist, in fact the *Titian*, of his brotherhood. We have seen and admired some of his performances, preserved, out of curiosity, by a most respectable sign, herald, and house, painter of our time, Mr. Thornton, of Carter-lane, who has himself evinced a great deal of proficiency in a branch of the chromatic art, now reviving under a less gaudy and more chaste regulation than in former times.

It was observed at the time, that the citizens of London were very loath to part with their signs. Being obliged to remove them from the sign-posts which obstructed the foot or horse pavement, they stuck them commonly against their houses, at the risk of darkening a window or two, where many of them remained till they were quite decayed, when of course they were not renewed, the numbering of the houses making them quite unnecessary. We ourselves have perhaps partaken of the unwillingness of the owners to part with these ornaments, and have therefore detained the reader longer than we intended. Proceed we now with our annals.

On Sunday the 23d of March, 1772, a violent storm of hail, thunder, and lightning, happened in London and its neighbourhood, during divine service in the afternoon. The congregations, in many churches, were struck with the utmost consternation; particularly at St. John's, Horseleydown, where, the hailstones breaking some of the windows, a great part of the people, in the midst of the sermon, precipitately ran out, and the remainder were thrown into the utmost confusion. At Lambeth-church, every one fled from the windows, the charity-children were frightened into a general outcry, and the service was, for some time, stopped. On the morning of the 23d of December, in the same year, there happened one of the greatest fogs in London, that had ever been remembered; by



which great damage was done. The darkness was so great, that the carriages of the nobility and gentry were attended by lights, the same as at midnight. Many accidents occurred during the continuance of this fog, which lasted through the night; and, in the morning, several people were found dead in the fields round the metropolis, who, not being able to find their way, were supposed to have perished from the inclemency of the weather. The excessive rains that fell in the course of the month of March following, (1774.) raised the waters in many rivers (but principally those westward of London) to a greater height than had been known in the memory of man. The levels, on the sides of Chelsea and Battersea, were entirely overflowed, and considerable damage done to the gardeners' grounds and young plantations. The force of the current in the river was so strong, that two west-country barges were carried out of the channel, and left in Battersea-fields when the flood abated. Many of the western roads were rendered impassable; and the towns in general, adjoining to the rivers, received considerable injury from the violence of the inundation.

The election of a chamberlain was warmly contested in the beginning of 1776. Sir Stephen Janssen having signified his intention of resigning that office, a common-hall was held, on the 20th of February, for the choice of his successor; when aldermen Wilkes and Hopkins were put in nomination as candidates. The show of hands appeared to be greatly in favour of Mr. Wilkes; but, a poll being demanded in favour of Mr. Hopkins, it began on the same day, and was finally closed on the 27th; when the numbers were, for Mr. Alderman Hopkins, 2887; and, for Mr. Alderman Wilkes, 2710: in consequence of which, the former was declared duly elected. The contest was renewed between Mr. Hopkins and Mr. Wilkes every Midsummer-day till the death of the former, but always without success on the part of the latter, who now seems to have lost some of his popularity; for, on the 19th of November, 1777, when a motion was made in the court of common-council, that an annuity of five hundred pounds per annum be paid by the chamberlain to John Wilkes, esq. alderman, during the pleasure of the court; it was carried in the negative by a great majority. And a motion was then made, and seconded, "That it is the opinion of this court, that the granting any annuity to John Wilkes, esq. or the paying any of that gentleman's debts, out of the city-cash, whether contracted in his mayoralty or not, would be an improper application thereof, and a most dangerous precedent;" which question was carried in the affirmative.

At a court of aldermen, held on the 15th of March, Mr. Hopkins resigned his gown, as alderman of Broad-street ward; and at a wardmote, held at Drapers' hall, on the following day, Richard Clark, esq., the present chamberlain, was unanimously elected in his stead. This was the twentieth vacancy in the court of aldermen within seven years, viz. from the 24th of April, 1769; when Mr. Wilkes was elected, on the death of Sir Francis Gosling. The annals of the metropolis do not afford a similar succession of changes within the same period.

The legality of pressing freemen of the city of London, was a fertile source of discord between the administration and the citizens. In the latter part of the year 1776, the lord-mayor had claimed an exemption for the watermen of his barge; the city claimed an exemption from pressing within its jurisdiction; but the court of King's Bench held, that these claims were not supported by adequate proof.

While this dispute continued, several naval officers were taken into custody, charged, by men whom they had impressed, but without getting them out of the city-jurisdiction, with assaults; the consequences were, that the impressed men were discharged, and, in some cases, the officers were held to bail. But the most prominent circumstance of this description was in the case of one Millachip. When he was impressed, alderman Bull wrote to

the secretary of the admiralty-board, requesting his discharge, on the ground of his being a freeman and liveryman of London. The answer returned, was, that the lords of the admiralty did not apprehend that this exempted him from being impressed, if otherwise liable. In consequence of this, a common-council was held, in which a letter to the admiralty, in the name of the court, was read and agreed to; and a resolution passed, that, if Millachip's discharge was not granted, legal measures should be taken to procure it; and the city-solicitor was ordered to follow the directions of a committee appointed for that purpose. This application being equally ineffectual with the former, a writ of *habeas corpus* was obtained from the court of King's Bench, by virtue of which Millachip was brought from on-board the admiral's ship, and discharged. In a few days after this, as he was going down the river in his lighter, he was again taken by a press-gang, and put on-board a man of war; in consequence of which, the committee met, and came to resolutions to apply for another *habeas corpus*, and to bring actions against the lieutenant and regulating captain, for detaining him; but the question never came to a legal decision.

The American war, which had been, from the beginning, very unpopular, was expressively deprecated by the court of common-council, held on the 3d of March, 1778, in an address and petition to his majesty against the farther prosecution of that war; and it is incalculable what advantages might have arisen, if the minister had lent an ear to the representations of that most reputable body.

Freedom of opinion is always dear to an Englishman, but especially to a citizen of London. An instance of this is recorded on the 19th of November, when a motion was made in the usual form, to give the thanks of the court to Sir James Esdaile, for his conduct during his mayoralty; but, after warm debates, it passed in the negative, and a motion for censuring him was carried by nearly two to one. The court of aldermen, however, were of a different opinion from the livery; and, on the 25th of the same month, voted their thanks to him, for his careful, prudent, and impartial, discharge of that high office.

The year 1779 was ushered in with one of the most destructive hurricanes that ever affected the metropolis. Almost every public or private building, in or near town, sustained some damage from it; while most of the ships in the river were driven from their moorings, and ran foul of each other; some were driven on-shore, and filled with water, and great damage was done among the small craft. Several houses were entirely blown down, a very great number were stripped of their roofs, and the stacks of chimneys destroyed were almost innumerable; among others, one belonging to Buckingham-house broke through the roof into the apartments of three of the young princes, who were in bed, but they received no hurt. All were not so fortunate; many lives were lost, and a vast number of persons terribly maimed, by the fall of buildings, in different parts of the town; and the accounts from every part of the kingdom were equally melancholy.

A cause was tried in the court of King's Bench, on the 5th of August, respecting the right of a claim, set up by the city of London, to a duty of six-pence per load, on hay sold in Smithfield, not the property of freemen of London. This was disputed by the inhabitants of Finchley, who pleaded an exemption in favour of the bishop of London and his tenants, granted by King John; but, as it did not appear that the manor of Finchley belonged to the bishop at the time of the grant, a verdict was given for the city of London.

On the 22d of November, 1779, Mr. Hopkins being dead, Mr. Wilkes was at last, by a great majority, elected chamberlain of the city. He had served the office of lord-mayor in 1774; and in the place he had long sought for, as a retirement and honourable recess from litigiousness and the torments of a political life, he died in the year 1797. It is well known that he was a man of uncommon talents, of a mind staunch and firm in resolution, as well as quick  
and



and keen in apprehension; of ready wit and most entertaining conversation; not without a propensity to sarcasm, but always ready to give up his opinion when his opposer was able to bring arguments or facts which could produce conviction. Of his moral character the less that is said the better; but no one ever discharged the duties of chamberlain more respectably: he was better qualified to give advice than to take it.

The month of June of the year 1780 (Kennet mayor) was stigmatized by a most tremendous insurrection, which threatened the total destruction of the cities of London and Westminster, and the memory of which will live long in the minds of men as a detestable specimen of what stern intolerance and blindness of religious zeal can do. *Tantum religio potuit suadere malorum!* Lucr. B. i.

Although we have given a general account of this unfortunate transaction under ENGLAND, in our sixth volume, yet in the present article we think it will be expected of us to be somewhat more particular.

The dreadful scene of riot and confusion commenced on the 2d of June. On the morning of that day, in consequence of an advertisement from the Protestant Association, a vast number of people assembled in St. George's Fields, to proceed to Westminster, in a body, with a petition to the house of commons, for the repeal of a law passed in the preceding session for the relief of the Roman catholics. About eleven o'clock, they were joined by their president, lord George Gordon, who, having made a short speech to them, recommending a peaceable deportment, formed them into four divisions; in which order they marched over London-bridge, through Cornhill, Fleet-street, and the Strand, following their respective banners, on which was expressed the name of the division, with the words "No Popery!" At Charing-Cross they were joined by fresh numbers of their own body, who proceeded with them to the house of commons. On their arrival at New Palace-yard, they found their president and the committee, who had taken the route of Westminster-bridge, waiting to receive them. By this time their numbers were increased so much, that the two Palace-yards, Westminster-hall, and all the avenues to both houses of parliament, were entirely filled with them. In this situation they waited the arrival of the members, many of whom were grossly insulted by them. The archbishop of York was the first attacked; the bishop of Lichfield had his gown torn; the wheels were taken off the bishop of Lincoln's carriage, and his lordship narrowly escaped; lord Bathurst, president of the council, was treated very roughly; the windows and pannels of lord Mansfield's coach were broken to pieces; the duke of Northumberland lost his watch; the lords Townshend and Hillsborough came together, and were greatly insulted; lord Stormont's coach was broken to pieces, and himself in the hands of the mob for near half an hour; lords Ashburnham and Boston were treated with the utmost indignity, particularly the latter, who was so long in their power, that it was proposed to the house to go in a body, and endeavour, by their presence, to extricate him; but, in the interim, his lordship escaped. Many others of the peers were personally ill-treated; and Wellbore Ellis was obliged to take refuge in Westminster-hall, whither he was pursued, the windows broken, the doors forced, and Mr. Justice Addington, with all the constables, expelled. Mr. Ellis escaped with the greatest difficulty.

During these unwarrantable proceedings, lord George Gordon came several times to the top of the gallery-stairs, and harangued the mob, informing them of the bad success their petition was likely to meet with, and pointing out the members who opposed it. It was considered by some as a mark of pusillanimity in the house of commons, that, upon the arrival of the guards, at night, they did not commit one of their own body, who had so shamefully violated their privileges, and brought them into such disgrace and danger, to the Tower; but it is doubtful whether such an attempt, on that day, would not have in-

creased the fanatic fury of the populace to a height which might have overpowered every endeavour to restrain it.

Before the rising of the house of commons, several parties of the rioters had filed off, and proceeded to the demolition of the chapels belonging to the Sardinian and Bavarian ministers. The guards had been ordered out to protect the two houses of parliament; and were now sent for to check the destructive rage of the mob, but did not arrive until every thing moveable was taken into the street, and burnt; however, thirteen of the rioters were apprehended at the Sardinian chapel.

On the following day (Saturday) the riots had apparently subsided, no material depredations having been committed; but on Sunday, in the afternoon, the rioters assembled again, in large bodies, and attacked the chapels and dwelling-houses of the catholics in and about Moorfields. They stripped their houses of furniture, and their chapels, not only of the ornaments and insignia of religion, but they also tore up the altars, pulpits, pews, and benches, and made fires of them, leaving nothing but the bare walls. About nine o'clock a party of the guards arrived; on which the populace dispersed, but not without some accidents occasioned by the greatness of the crowd. The lord-mayor, with the aldermen Clarke and Peckham, and the sheriff Pugh, had before endeavoured to stop the riot, but to no purpose.

On Monday the rioters collected again, in Rope-makers-alley, Moorfields, where they demolished the school-house and three other houses. A second party went to Wapping, where they destroyed the catholic chapels in Virginia-lane and Nightingale-lane, and committed many outrages; and a third party did the same in the Borough. Mr. Rainsforth, tallow-chandler, of Stauhope-street, Clare-market, and Mr. Maberley, of Little Queen-street, Lincoln's-inn-fields, who had appeared as evidences against some of the rioters on their examinations before the magistrates, had their houses stripped, and the contents committed to the flames. Sir George Saville's house, in Leicester-fields, underwent the same fate, because he had prepared and brought the bill into parliament for the relief of the catholics.

All the military in town were ordered upon duty on Tuesday; but, notwithstanding every precaution, lord Sandwich was wounded in attempting to go down to the house of peers, his carriage was demolished, and he was rescued, with difficulty, by the military. About six o'clock in the evening, one party went to the house of Mr. Justice Hyde, in St. Martin's street, Leicester-fields, which they destroyed; another party paraded through Long Acre and Holborn, to Newgate, declaring, as they went along, that they would release the confined rioters. When they arrived at the prison, they demanded their comrades of Mr. Akerman, the keeper; but he persisted in his duty, and refused; on which the mob broke the windows; some battered the doors and entrances into the cells with pick-axes and sledge-hammers; others climbed the walls with ladders; while several collected fire-brands, and whatever combustibles they could find, and flung into his dwelling-house. The flames spread from Mr. Akerman's house to the chapel, and thence through the whole prison; in consequence of which, all the prisoners, to the amount of three hundred, among whom were four ordered for execution on the following Thursday, were released.

Even this was but a moiety of the mischief of this terrible night. Not satiated with the destruction of this great building, a party was sent among the catholics in Devonshire-street, Red-lion-square; another to the house of Mr. Justice Cox, in Great Queen-street, which was soon destroyed: a third broke open the doors of the New Prison, Clerkenwell, and turned out all the confined; a fourth destroyed the furniture and effects, writings, &c. of Sir John Fielding; and a fifth desperate and infernal gang went to the elegant house of lord Mansfield, in Bloomsbury-square, which they, with the most unrelenting fury, set fire to, and consumed. The loss here was immense,



both to lord Mansfield, as an individual, and to the public. A most valuable collection of pictures, some of the scarcest manuscripts said to be in the possession of any private person in the world, with all his lordship's notes on great law-cases and the constitution of England, were sacrificed; and lord and lady Mansfield were with difficulty preserved from their rage, by making their escape through a back-door, a few minutes before these miscreants broke in and took possession of the house. The military was sent for, but arrived too late; they were obliged, however, to fire in their own defence, and six men and a woman were killed, and several wounded. Not contented with the havoc and destruction they had been guilty of in Bloomsbury, they went from thence to his lordship's country seat, at Ken-wood, which would certainly have shared the same fate, had they not been repelled by a party of horse, which had been sent thither for the preservation of this delightful place. The inhabitants were obliged, this night, to illuminate their windows.

It is impossible to give any adequate description of the events of Wednesday. Notice was sent round to the public prisons of the King's Bench, Fleet, &c. by the mob, at what time they would come and burn them down. The same kind of infernal humanity was exercised towards Mr. Langdale, a distiller, in Holborn, and several other Roman catholics. Three boys went through the streets, and, in particular, down Holborn, in the middle of the day, with iron bars got from the railing before lord Mansfield's house, extorting money at every shop, huzzaing, and shouting "No Popery!" and, though numbers were passing and repassing, the inhabitants durst not refuse them money, nor attempt to secure them. Small parties, of the like daring nature, were formed in other parts, and the whole city was laid under contribution. One man, in particular, was mounted on horseback, and refused to take any thing but gold. Two men, in the broad day, not contented with the former mischief, got into Mr. Maberley's house, in Queen-street, and staid for upwards of an hour, knocking down the wainscoting, and every bit of wood-work they could with safety to themselves; and, though a great many peaceable well-dressed people looked on, no one molested them. In the afternoon, all the shops were shut, and bits of blue silk, by way of flags, hung out, at most houses, with the words "No Popery" chalked on the doors and window-shutters, by way of deprecating the fury of the insurgents, from which no person thought himself secure; insomuch that a certain foreigner, well known for his excellent action at Sadler's Wells and elsewhere, thought it safest to write up "No Religion."

As soon as the day was drawing towards a close, one of the most awful and dreadful spectacles this country ever beheld was exhibited. The mob had not only declared their resolution of firing the prisons, and some private houses, but had avowed their intention to destroy the Bank, Gray's Inn, the Temple, Lincoln's Inn, the grand arsenal at Woolwich, and the royal palaces. An universal stupor had seized the minds of men; they looked at one another, and waited, with a resigned consternation, for the events which were to follow. Government, indeed, had exerted itself to the utmost, as far as their power, under the direction of the civil magistrates, would extend. Now, however, it was become necessary to make use of the royal prerogative, and give discretionary power to the military. Nothing could convey a more awful idea of the mischief which was dreaded, than the strong guard which was placed in the Royal Exchange, for the protection of the Bank; as nothing, perhaps, could have equalled the national desolation, had the diabolical purposes of the insurgents, upon this place, succeeded. Besides this, soldiers were distributed at Guildhall, in the inns of court, in almost every place tenable as a fortification, and in some private houses; and the cannon was disposed to the best advantage in St. James's Park.

With minds thus pre-disposed to terror by so many objects of devastation, and in a city, which, but a few days before, enjoyed the most perfect tranquillity, let those, who were not spectators, judge what the inhabitants felt, when they beheld, at the same instant, the flames ascending, and rolling in vast and voluminous clouds, from the King's Bench and Fleet prisons, from New Bridewell, from the toll-gates on Blackfriars-bridge, from houses in every quarter of the town, and, particularly, from the bottom and middle of Holborn, where the conflagration was horrible beyond description. The houses that were first set on fire, at this last-mentioned place, both belonged to Mr. Langdale, an eminent distiller, and contained immense quantities of spirituous liquors. It is easy to conceive what fury these would add to the flames; but to form an adequate idea of the distress of the neighbouring inhabitants, or, indeed, of the inhabitants in every part of the city, is not so easy. Men, women, and children, were running up and down with beds, glasses, bundles, or whatever they wished most to preserve. In streets where there were no fires, numbers were removing their goods and effects at midnight. The tremendous roar of the insatiate fiends who were the authors of these horrible scenes was heard at one instant; and, at the next, the dreadful report of soldiers' muskets, firing in platoons, and at various places; in short, every thing that could impress the mind with ideas of universal anarchy, and approaching desolation, seemed to be accumulating. Sleep and rest were things not thought of: the streets were swarming with people; and uproar, confusion, and terror, reigned in every part.

It is hardly possible to collect, in one point of view, the havoc of this night. Had half the mischief the mob had threatened been effected, nothing less than national bankruptcy and destruction could have ensued; that they were prevented at those places, on the safety of which the very existence of the empire might be said to depend, was owing, not to their want of will, but of power, and to the exertions of government. They made two attempts upon the Bank; but were so much intimidated by the strength with which they beheld it guarded, that their attacks were but feebly conducted. They were led on to the first by a brewer's servant on horseback, who had decorated his horse with the chains of Newgate, but were repulsed at the first fire from the military; and their second succeeded no better. They made an effort to break into the Pay-office, likewise, and met the same fate. Several of them fell in these skirmishes, and many more were wounded; as the importance of these places made it necessary to show but little lenity.

It is impossible to ascertain the number of unhappy wretches who lost their lives in the course of this dreadful night. The attacks of the military were not so fatal to them as their own inordinate appetites. Numbers died with inebriation, especially at the distilleries of the unfortunate Mr. Langdale, from whose vessels the liquor ran down the middle of the street, was taken up by pailfulls, and held to the mouths of the besotted multitude, many of whom killed themselves with drinking non-rectified spirits, and were burnt or buried in the ruins. Eight or nine of these miserable wretches were found, and dragged out. The same scenes of beastly drunkenness happened in many other places; as at Mr. Cox's, at lord Mansfield's, &c. At Newgate, likewise, many had made so free with the liquor, that they could not get away, and were burnt in the cells. In the streets, men, were lying upon bulks and stalls, and at the doors of empty houses, drunk to a state of insensibility, and to a contempt of danger: boys and women were in the same condition, and some of the latter with infants in their arms.

On the following day, the metropolis presented the image of a city recently stormed and sacked: all business at a stand; houses and shops shut up; the Royal Exchange, public buildings, and streets, possessed and occupied by troops; smoking and burning ruins, with a dreadful void



and silence, where, so lately, all had been hurry, noise, and business. The arrangement of the military, on this day, produced so good an effect, that there was no riot or disturbance in any part of the town during the night; and the next day (Friday) peace and tranquillity were restored; the only uneasiness felt, was, that the metropolis was under martial law. To calm the minds of the inhabitants on this subject, a hand-bill was circulated in every quarter of the town, to inform the public, that the prisoners would not be punished by martial law, but by the ordinary tribunals.

A council was held on Friday morning; in consequence of which, a warrant was issued by the secretary of state for apprehending lord George Gordon. He was brought to the war-office in the evening, where he underwent a long examination before several of the lords of the privy-council, and, at half-past nine o'clock, was committed close prisoner to the Tower. The guards that attended him were by far the most numerous that ever escorted a state-prisoner. A large party of infantry was in the front: his lordship followed in a coach, in which were two officers; behind the coach was general Carpenter's regiment of dragoons; after which came a colonel's guard of the foot-guards; and, besides these, a party of militia marched on each side of the coach.

Though the ill-judged assembling of the Protestant Association, by collecting an immense concourse of idle dissolute people, may be considered as the origin of this dreadful insurrection, it would be unjust to charge the great body of them with the intention of carrying their point by such means. On the contrary, as soon as they found the evil consequences of their meeting, and the use made of their name, a circular letter was sent to every member, earnestly requesting him not to wear the blue cockade, which had been assumed by the mob, and, by every means in his power, to prevent tumults, which must inevitably impede the accomplishment of their wishes.

The want of method, so conspicuous in the proceedings of the rioters, saved the city, and, we may add, the country; for, had they, in the first moments of dismay, attacked the Bank and public offices, instead of the chapels, and houses of individuals, national ruin must have followed; for there can be no doubt that they would have succeeded, when the supineness of the civil power, in the first days of the riots, is considered. Though parties of soldiers were continually dispatched to the assistance of the magistrates, these were too much intimidated to act with effect; and the officers of the military durst not take the responsibility upon themselves. This negligence became a subject of complaint; and the lord-mayor was ordered to attend the privy-council, to account for his inactivity; before whom he made no scruple of acknowledging, that "the rioters were so violent, and such was his temerity, that he thought death would be his portion." His conduct, on this occasion, called forth Mr. Burke's ironical talents; who pleaded, in his lordship's behalf, in the house of commons, "that all men were not made alike: the lord-mayor, he supposed, was of a timid nature, and without the natural courage and capacity that fit some men to act a wise and decided part in trying situations; neither had he made up the disadvantages of his natural infirmity and timidity, by study and culture. As he never dreamt, in his younger days, of filling so important a station as that of lord-mayor of the city of London, it was probable he had neglected those talents that might be requisite, in certain emergencies, to discharge the duties of it: for these reasons, he hoped they would have mercy on the poor lord-mayor, in consideration of his natural weakness, and total want of education!"

Shortly after the suppression of the riots, special commissions were issued for trying the rioters, in London and the Borough. The total number executed in London was eighteen.

At a court of common-council, held on the 8th of July, a motion was made to address his majesty, thanking him

for his care and attention to the citizens of London, in granting them such aid as became necessary to subdue the late dangerous riots; they being too formidable for the control of the civil authority; which, after long and violent debates, was carried in the affirmative, by a small majority. By this apparent reluctance, it might seem as if the city had not felt grateful towards the government for sending military aid in order to restore peace and quiet within the walls of London and its liberties; but, upon consideration, we shall find that it arose from the well-ordained jealousy which the corporation always feels at seeing a military force, not commanded by themselves, within their precincts.

The trial of lord George Gordon for high treason took place in the court of King's Bench, on the 5th of February, 1781; when he was acquitted; and, as a counter-judgment, Mr. Alderman Kennet (the lord-mayor) was found guilty of not using all the means in his power to quell the rioters in Rope-makers' Alley, Moorfields, and for not reading the riot-act. The trial took place at Guildhall, before lord Mansfield (who had smarted under the hands of the rioters) and a special jury.

At the end of this year, a petition, address, and remonstrance, to the king, was voted in common-hall, and the usual deputation appointed to wait upon his majesty to know when he would receive it. This produced a letter from the lord-chamberlain to the lord-mayor, informing him, that his majesty would not receive the remonstrance on the throne. In consequence of which, a common-hall was held on the 1st of February, 1782, in which it was resolved, "That whoever advised the king to deviate from the accustomed mode of receiving the *livery of London* sitting on his throne, is an enemy to the rights and privileges of the citizens of this great capital of the British empire:" and a committee was appointed for the purpose of obtaining a restoration of those rights.

A cause was tried at Hicks's Hall, in the month of March, of considerable importance to the rights of the freemen of the city-companies. The prosecution was instituted by one of the companies against a tradesman, admitted to his freedom by themselves, for carrying on his trade without having served an apprenticeship to it, contrary to the statute of queen Elizabeth. On the trial, however, it was proved that, although the defendant had not served a regular apprenticeship, he had acquired a sufficient knowledge of the trade to enable him to exercise it with skill, which was held to be within the meaning of the statute; and a verdict was given for the defendant.

A court of aldermen was held on the 8th of October, to receive the report of the committee appointed to examine the merits of a petition from the company of shipwrights, praying to be allowed their livery. The report stated that the free shipwrights were an ancient company, they having traced the enrolment of an apprentice as far back as the reign of Richard II. and that, therefore, it was the opinion of the committee, that they ought to have livery; with which opinion the court coincided, and precepts were ordered to be issued accordingly in future.

About this time the depredations committed in and about the metropolis, by footpads and street-robbers, had increased to such a height, and were attended with such peculiar circumstances of atrocity, that severe measures were found necessary to check them. Accordingly, a letter was sent from the secretary of state to the recorder, directing him to report all cases of robbery, accompanied by acts of cruelty, to his majesty, immediately after conviction, who had determined to grant no pardon or respite to such offenders, on any solicitation whatever.

Great discontents prevailed among the sailors in the month of March, 1783, on account of the numbers of foreigners who, having been taken into the merchant-service during the war, and being still continued therein, prevented the men discharged from the king's service from procuring employment. Being thus deprived of the means of obtaining a livelihood, they attacked some vessels in



the river, and unrigged them, and at length assembled in a considerable body, determined to proceed to the Admiralty, and afterwards to St. James's, to seek redress. On their approach, all the entrances into the Park were shut and guarded; but about seven hundred of them scaled the walls on the Westminster side. As soon as they were discovered in the Bird-cage walk, a detachment of the guards was ordered to meet them. On their approach near each other, a conversation took place between some of the sailors, Mr. Justice Addington, and the officer of the guard; when the sailors informed them, that they fought only for some means of future employment, and this they meant to do peaceably: on which the magistrate informed them, that the meeting of such large bodies was dangerous and illegal; but that, if they would draw up a clear account of their wants and grievances, he would endeavour to get them redressed; with which they appeared to be perfectly satisfied, and retired with regularity and order.

At a court of aldermen held on the 22d of July, the recorder and common-jeffant made a report on the long-pending cause referred to their consideration respecting the Jews, whether they can legally claim the freedom of this city, and exercise the rights and franchises of freemen. Their opinion was, that Jews publicly baptized, and conforming to the laws of the country, may, after the renunciation of their errors, be entitled to the privileges of citizens of London.

On the 29th of August, a letter was sent by the secretary of state to the lord-mayor, informing him that the definitive treaties of peace were to be signed on the 3d of September; and, on the arrival of the news that this event had actually taken place, a second letter was sent, in order that public notice thereof might be given in the city; and, on the 6th of October, peace was proclaimed with the usual solemnities, amidst an innumerable concourse of people, who testified their joy by loud and reiterated acclamations.

The mode of executing criminals at Tyburn had long been complained of as tending rather to introduce depravity, by a want of solemnity, than to operate as a preventive of crimes, by exhibiting an awful example of punishment to the dissolute. To remedy this serious evil in the police of the metropolis, both the place and manner of execution were changed. A temporary scaffold was constructed, to be placed as occasion required in the open space before the debtors' door of Newgate, having a moveable platform for the criminals to stand on, which, by means of a lever and rollers, falls from under them. The whole of this building is hung with black; and the regulations observed on these mournful occasions are calculated to produce that impression on the minds of the spectators which is the true end of all punishment. The first execution here took place on the 9th of December.

The end of this year was remarkable also for the entrance of Mr. Pitt into the important offices of first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer. From this period until the month of March, 1784, was exhibited the singular spectacle of a minister in a constant minority, yet retaining his situation through the support of the king and the nation, in despite of reiterated petitions and representations from the house of commons to the throne to procure his dismissal. In such a conjuncture, the city of London could not be expected to be inactive; and accordingly, an address of thanks, from the lord-mayor, aldermen and common-council, to his majesty for dismissing his late counsellors, was presented, on the 16th of January; containing the strongest assurances of their determination to support him in the constitutional exercise of his prerogatives. This address was very graciously received. Similar addresses were presented from the merchants and traders of London, the city of Westminster, the borough of Southwark, the county of Middlesex, and many other places. The freedom of the city was also presented to Mr. Pitt; and, on the 28th of February, an elegant entertainment was provided for

him at Grocers' Hall, of which company he had accepted the freedom; to which he went in procession, attended by the committee appointed to present him with the freedom of the city, the sheriffs, and the town-clerk. At Temple-bar, they were met by the city colours, and those of the Grocers' Company. In the evening there was an illumination: many windows were broken by the mob, on his return from the city; and, in St. James's-street, an affray happened between them and some chairmen at Brookes's, in which the latter proved victorious, and Mr. Pitt was obliged to quit his carriage, and retire to White's for protection. His coach was much injured; and, in revenge, the mob that dragged it went and broke Mr. Fox's windows, in St. James's Place.

The great and memorable contest, between administration and the house of commons, having been so far determined in favour of the former, that a long mutiny-bill was passed, without which a dissolution of parliament could not have taken place; it was thought most advisable to have recourse to that measure, in order to get at the true sense of the nation. Accordingly, the parliament was dissolved on the 25th of March. In the general election which followed, the ministry gained a most complete majority; and Mr. Pitt set forward in his political career with the brilliant assurance that court and the people were equally his friends.

The grandest musical performance ever attempted in any country, was exhibited in Westminster-abbey, in May and June of this year, in commemoration of Handel. It originated in a conversation between some amateurs, in which it was lamented, that no public occasion existed for collecting all the vocal and instrumental performers of eminence into one band, which would produce a performance on so grand and magnificent a scale as no other part of the world could equal. The birth and death of Handel, the former of which was a complete century, and the latter exactly a quarter of a century, before this period, were immediately recollected as offering a desirable opportunity for making the attempt. The plan was speedily communicated to the different musical societies in the metropolis; and, coming at length to the knowledge of the king, was honoured with his sanction and patronage. Westminster-abbey, where the remains of the great musician were deposited, was thought the properest place for the performance; and it was determined to appropriate all the profits arising from it to charitable purposes. No sooner was the project known, than the greater part of the practical musicians in the kingdom manifested their zeal for the enterprise; and many of the most eminent professors, waving all claim to precedence, offered to perform in any subordinate station. The first performance took place on the 26th of May; the number of performers amounted to five hundred and twenty-two, and that of the audience to nearly five thousand; of which at least two thirds were ladies. Feathers and all extraneous ornaments being forbidden, the neatness and simplicity of their dresses added to their natural charms, and produced such an assemblage of beauty as no other country in the universe could boast of. There were five performances in the whole, the second of which was at the Pantheon; and the total amount of the receipts for tickets, including two rehearsals, was eleven thousand eight hundred and forty-two guineas: after payment of the expenses, which amounted to about five thousand pounds, the remainder was given to charities, as follows; to the Musical Fund, six thousand pounds; to the Westminster Hospital, one thousand pounds.

The attention of the metropolis was excited in a high degree, on the 15th of September, by the first aerial voyage ever undertaken in this kingdom. Mr. Lunardi ascended from the Artillery-ground, with a balloon thirty-three feet in diameter, amidst the admiration and dread of an immense concourse of spectators, about two o'clock in the afternoon; and, after a voyage of three hours, descended



scended in a meadow, five miles beyond Ware in Hertfordshire. See the article AIR-BALLOON, vol. i. p. 218-221.

It is with pleasure that we adduce a new instance of the strenuousness of the city of London to preserve its original rights, privileges, and prerogatives. In the month of June, 1785, a bill was introduced into the house of commons, for regulating the police of the metropolis, which was understood to be the production of a gentleman who had taken uncommon pains with it, and had consulted those best enabled to assist in maturing such a plan; but it was not fortunate enough to obtain the approbation of the corporation of the city of London. A petition was presented from the court of aldermen, complaining in high terms of the projected measure. Their alarm was represented, by one of their body, to be equal to that which would have been excited if a general conflagration had been begun in the city of London. The petition stated, that, under colour of correcting abuses, the bill overturned the forms established by the wisdom of our ancestors, and effected an entire subversion of the chartered rights of the greatest city in the world. It was in vain urged, that the commissioners appointed by the bill would have no power within the jurisdiction of the corporation of London; that it was expressly provided, that no warrant from them should be executed in the city, until it was backed by the lord-mayor, or one of the aldermen; and that, when executed, the person apprehended in virtue of it was ordered to be carried before some of the city-magistrates: nothing could allay the apprehensions of a body so tenacious of their privileges; and, in the end, their opposition proved fatal to the bill.

The long-contested question, relative to the power of the court of aldermen to remove one of their body, was finally determined in the court of King's Bench, on the 11th of June. Some years before, in consequence of several accusations brought against alderman Woodbridge, repeated summonses were sent to him, to attend in his place in the court of aldermen, to answer to them; all of which being unattended to, he was declared to have forfeited his seat, and a wardmote was held for the election of an alderman in his stead. At a subsequent period he attended, and claimed to be received as alderman: which being refused, he obtained a *mandamus* from the court of King's Bench, to be restored; the return to this *mandamus* had been argued in November preceding, but the court required further time to decide upon it; and, on this day, the final argument was heard, when the court unanimously pronounced judgment in favour of the city, declaring their opinion, that the court of aldermen had the power to remove one of the aldermen, upon a just and reasonable cause; and that, in the present instance, their exercise of that right was perfectly legal.

A cause was tried at the Lent assizes for the county of Surry, which lasted three days, and ended in the condemnation of a shipwright at Rotherhithe, who, by erecting a floating dock, had obstructed the navigation of the Thames, and encroached upon the rights of the corporation of the city as conservators of the river. Long debates also took place concerning the rights of the corporation over the town and borough of Southwark; and resolutions were taken against foretellers, by whose nefarious practices, in buying up the cattle before they arrived at Smithfield market, the price of provisions had considerably increased. An application to the legislature was recommended, in order to prevent the continuance of these evils.

A commercial treaty with France was in the course of negotiation in the latter part of this year, by some of the provisions of which, the right of package, scavage, and balliage, of the city of London, would have been taken away, as well as the rights of the fellowship and all other free porters, free watermen, lightermen, &c. On the discovery of this, a committee of the court of aldermen were appointed to make the necessary representations on the subject to Mr. Pitt, who gave them an assurance, that, although their rights would have been unintentionally in-

vaded and taken away if this application had not been made; yet, being now fully possessed of them, he should certainly think it his duty to protect them in the most ample manner.

The shop-tax, which had always been obnoxious to the traders and citizens of London, attracted again the serious consideration of the court of common-council, whose annals are fraught with resolutions most conducive to the welfare of the rest of the community; and a petition to the house of commons, with another concerning the slave-trade, were prepared in February 1788. The shop-tax was soon after repealed; but the slave-trade continued throughout the whole of Mr. Pitt's administration, and was not got rid of till the year 1807. It was observed, that Mr. Pitt made some very eloquent speeches in favour of the repeal, but always suffered himself to be out-voted. It was not until it was made a government-measure, which was during the last short administration of Mr. Fox, (though that excellent statesman did not live to complete his work,) that it met with success.

In the year 1788 also, an uncommon fall of rain deluged the streets of London to a most alarming degree; during which a ball of fire burst about the middle of George-street, and damaged several houses. And the ensuing winter was remarkable for a very severe frost, which began on the 25th of November, and lasted exactly seven weeks. The greatest cold was on the 5th of January, 1789, when the thermometer stood at eleven degrees below the freezing point, in the middle of the city. During this frost, the Thames was completely frozen over below London-bridge, and was covered with booths, puppet-shows, and wild beasts, so as to have the appearance of a fair. The watermen, being deprived of their usual means of obtaining a livelihood, broke the ice close to the shore, and laid planks across the openings, which they suffered no one to pass without paying. On the thaw, which came very suddenly, the scene was dreadful beyond example; the large bodies of ice floating on the river made it necessary to moor all the ships to the shore; many however drifted; and one, lying off Rotherhithe, was so pressed by the strength of the tide and the weight of ice, that it carried away the beams of a house to which it was fastened, and levelled it with the ground, by which accident five persons were killed in their beds.

During this inclement season, the distresses of the poor were not forgotten. Liberal subscriptions were entered into by the affluent for their relief; and a court of common-council met on the 13th of January, to take the state of the poor into consideration, when the sum of fifteen hundred pounds was ordered to be paid out of the city-cash, for the relief of such poor inhabitants as did not receive alms of the parish. At this court, a letter was read from the prince of Wales's treasurer to the chamberlain, inclosing his royal highness's draft for one thousand pounds, to be applied in the same manner as his majesty's bounty had usually been; but which, from the unfortunate state of the king's health, was this year delayed. On which it was unanimously resolved to return the grateful acknowledgments of the court to his royal highness, for his spontaneous and truly-princely beneficence.

The city of London, sympathising with the rest of the kingdom, had to deplore at this period a visitation of the most severe kind which afflicted our beloved monarch, and was but a prognostic of the unfortunate situation in which he has since continued for so long a period: but, listening to the fervent and sincere prayers of his royal family and his people, Providence ordered that this dreadful disease should, for that time, retire from him, and that he should be restored to the love and respect of a feeling and grateful nation.

The 10th of March, 1789, was the day appointed for making an official declaration of his majesty's complete recovery. In the morning, the bells rang in all the churches; and, at noon, the Park and Tower guns were fired. On the river, every vessel was decorated with the



colours of the nation to which it belonged: French, Spanish, Dutch, Portuguese, Prussian, Russian, Dane, and Swede, vied with each other in exhibiting tokens of joy; many of them had devices on their streamers, with the words "Long live the King," in large capitals, either at the mast-head or on the bowsprit. Of the illuminations at night, it is impossible to give an adequate description. They were literally general: all the inhabitants seemed to strive who should give the most beautiful and picturesque devices, and testify their loyalty in the most conspicuous manner. In short, so general was the tribute of affection to our beloved monarch, that, could he have surveyed the splendour, and witnessed every accompanying demonstration of gladness, he would have quitted the scene with feelings as proud as ever animated the bosom of a king. It was a trophy that reflected as much true dignity on the sovereign as it did honour to the nation.

On the 19th, the city-addresses of congratulation to the king and queen were presented. It was his majesty's particular request that, on this occasion, when the pressure of the national business bore heavy upon him, the numerous attendance of the court of common-council might be dispensed with; in consequence of which, the court came to a resolution that the addresses should be presented by the lord-mayor and sheriffs, assisted by the recorder. Addresses to their majesties, on this happy event, were also voted in a common-hall, held on the 7th of April.

The 23d of April being appointed, by royal proclamation, to be observed as a day of general thanksgiving, his majesty was pleased to go in public to the cathedral-church of St. Paul, accompanied by the queen, the royal family, both houses of parliament, the great officers of state, and the whole corporation of London. The universal joy and loyalty which pervaded the cities of London and Westminster, the grandeur of the spectacle exhibited, in the more than triumphant, the religious, entry of our beloved sovereign, filled the mind with the most sublime and awful ideas.

The procession began a quarter before eight, by the house of commons, in coaches (167 members attending), followed by the speaker, in his robes, seated in his state-coach, with his mace-bearer and chaplain, from Palace-yard; and, passing through the entrance at the Horse-guards into St. James's Park, went out at the Stable-yard, and ranged along Pall Mall and Charing Cross, followed by three knights-marshalmen, the clerk of the crown, masters in chancery, and the twelve judges, in the capacity of assistants to the house of peers. After them, the peers in coaches, in the order of precedence, as they were marshalled by the black rod; beginning with lord Malmesbury, as youngest baron, and ending with the duke of Norfolk, the premier duke. The lord high chancellor, in his robes of office, and in his state-coach, closed this part of the procession.

Soon after the members of both houses had passed, the male branches of the royal family appeared in different carriages, in due order of precedence. Their majesties set out from the queen's palace soon after ten, in the order previously arranged by his majesty himself. Between eleven and twelve the king's carriage arrived at Temple-bar, where the lord-mayor was in waiting, attended by six delegates from the corporation; viz. Sheriffs Curtis and Hammett, as aldermen, and deputies Leekey and Birch, with Messrs. Wadd and Dixon, as commoners. The lord-mayor and his associates came thither in coaches soon after nine; and were politely accommodated, by the banking-house of Mr. Child, in the great room immediately over the Bar, till, on notice of the king's approach, they all mounted their beautiful white palfreys, which were richly caparioned, the saddles and bridles new for the occasion, silver-tipped, silver roses, and silk reins; the furniture blue and gold, with tassels of gold fringe; the fronts of the bridles richly embroidered with the words "God save the king!" white fur caps to the holsters, richly wrought with gold; and each horse decorated with three

dozen of favours, blue and white. The lord-mayor was in a rich gown of crimson velvet; the two aldermen in their scarlet gowns, and the four commoners in their mazarine gowns, dressed uniformly in dark-blue coats, white waistcoats and breeches, with purple roses in their shoes and at their knees. Each of them had a walking page, carrying a hat adorned with a beautiful cockade of purple and gold, inscribed, "Long live the king!" After they had taken horse, the lord-mayor dismounting in form, surrendered the city-sword to his majesty; who having graciously returned it, the lord-mayor, on horseback, carried it bare-headed before the king to St. Paul's. The sheriffs and four commoners rode also bare-headed.

Nothing could exceed the magnificence of the procession from Temple-bar. Immediately after the lord-chancellor's carriage, the movement was as follows:

The High Bailiff of Westminster.

The Master of the Horse.

The Dukes of Cumberland and Gloucester.

The Duke of York.

The Prince of Wales.

Attendants. Six Pioneers.

Colonel Sir Watkin Lewis, on horseback.

The Artillery Company.

Music. Two Pair of Colours.

Fifteen of the Toxophilites, or ancient Society of Archers, dressed in a green uniform, with their bows in their hands, and elegant belts to their quivers; on which were embroidered, "Long live the king!"

The City Arms.

City Marshal, four Common-Councilmen, and the Sheriffs, on horseback.

The Lord-mayor on horseback.

His mace-bearer on foot; and six servants, in rich liveries of purple and silver.

The City Council.

Their MAJESTIES, drawn by eight cream-coloured horses, attended by six pages, and six footmen; in a private carriage, pannels and front of glass, instead of leather.

The Princesses in two carriages.

Attendants in two coaches.

The different guards of honour in the procession were formed from the Oxford Blues; and the whole was closed by a troop of the royal regiment of Horse Guards.

The charity-children of the different schools entered the church at the north and south doors, by seven o'clock in the morning, and remained till the church was cleared. They had a place appropriated for their appearance, much in the same manner as at their anniversary meeting. This was at the particular desire of her majesty; and added greatly to the impressiveness of the scene.

The clergy, with the minor canons, and their friends, entered the church, at the Dean's Gate, at eight o'clock.

The aldermen, with their ladies, and the principal city-officers, between eight and nine, proceeded from the Mansion-house, along Cheap-side, to the fourth entrance of St. Paul's church.

The corporation were represented in the procession from Temple-bar, as we have already stated, by a deputation. The other members of the body corporate assembled, at eight o'clock, in Guildhall, whence, in about half an hour, they began to parade on foot, in their mazarine gowns, through Cheap-side, Newgate-freet, the Old Bailey, and Ludgate-freet. They were in two divisions, each attended with a suitable standard, and an excellent band of music. Entering the church at the north-west gate, they remained in the morning prayer-chapel, until the king's arrival was announced; when they ushered his majesty into the choir, and immediately took their seats. The peers and members of the house of commons soon after entered the west door of the church.

The female nobility, gentry, and others, came down Holborn, proceeded along Snow-hill and Newgate-freet, down Warwick-lane, along Paternoster-row, and were set down at Cannon-alley, opposite to the north door of the church,



church, where an awning was erected; their carriages then proceeded to the end of Paternoster-row, turned round to the left into Newgate-street, and down St. Martin's-le-Grand into Aldersgate-street, where they waited.

Their majesties were met at the west door of St. Paul's, by the bishop of London; the dean of St. Paul's, (bishop of Lincoln;) the canons residentiary; Garter king of arms, and the rest of the heralds; the band of gentlemen-pensioners, and the yeomen of the guard. The sword of state was carried before his majesty by the marquis of Stafford into the choir, where the king and queen placed themselves under a canopy of state, at the west end of it, opposite to the altar.

The peers had their seats in the area, as a house of lords; and the commons were in the stalls. The upper galleries were allotted to the ladies of the bedchamber, the maids of honour, and such ladies of distinction as attended on the occasion. The foreign ministers were placed in the two lower galleries next to the throne; and the lord-mayor and aldermen, with their ladies, in the lower galleries, near the altar.

Immediately on their majesties being seated, divine service commenced. The sermon was preached by the bishop of London; after which, an anthem, selected for the occasion by the king, was sung by the gentlemen of the choir. The whole was finished about three o'clock, when their majesties returned with the same state to Buckingham House.

The streets through which the procession passed were filled with rejoicing spectators. Before most of the houses were placed temporary galleries, crowded with beauty and fashion. Every precaution which prudence could suggest was taken to guard against the accidents which might have been expected from such a numerous assemblage of people; but they were unnecessary; good humour had so completely taken possession of every individual, that the military, who were stationed to keep the multitude in order, had nothing to do but to see the procession, with their fellow-citizens in the rear.

As soon as was dusk, a general illumination took place throughout London and Westminster, which, for splendour and magnificence, surpassed all former exhibitions. All the public offices, the houses of the nobility and gentry, as well as many of those of private individuals, were decorated with transparencies, or elegant designs in coloured lamps; while even in the humble garret of the indigent, the gleam of loyalty and affection twinkled as cheerfully, if not as brightly, as in the splendid mansion of the opulent.

A dreadful fire consumed the Opera-house on the night of the 17th of June. The performers were rehearsing a ballet on the stage, when they were suddenly alarmed by flakes of fire falling on their heads. In a few minutes after, the whole building was in a blaze, which, from the vast quantity of combustible materials on the premises, and the calmness of the evening, rose in a spiral column to an extraordinary height. The light was so powerful that, for a few minutes, the whole western front of St. Paul's cathedral was as minutely visible as at noon day.

On the 25th of February, 1790, a common-council met for the special purpose of taking into consideration the steps taken by the Dissenters and Roman Catholics to procure the repeal of the corporation and test acts. After a calm and dispassionate investigation of the subject, the following resolutions were passed, which we insert in order that our readers may be enabled to compare the disposition of mind prevailing at that time, and the general feeling at this moment:

Resolved, I. That it is the indispensable duty of this court, to support the rights and privileges of the church of England, as by law established; they being essentially connected with, and forming a part of, our happy constitution.

II. That a full, perfect, and free, toleration, in the exercise of religious duties, must be the wish and glory of

every liberal mind; but, to remove the two bulwarks of our sacred constitution, in church and state, by a repeal of the corporation and test acts, would tend to produce that civil anarchy, which at first pointed out to the legislature the necessity of making such wise and salutary restrictive laws.

III. That this court do consider themselves called upon to strengthen the hands of those friends to the established church, in the house of commons, who have, twice, successfully opposed the repeal of the corporation and test acts, by expressing their public thanks for such conduct; and to solicit the members of this court, who have seats in parliament, strenuously to resist every attempt that shall be made to obtain that repeal.

On the discussion of the question in the house of commons, the motion, which last year was lost by only 20, was now negatived by 189. See vol. xii. p. 588-601. and 724.

Soon after this period, the streets of the metropolis were infested by a villain of a non-descript species in this country, and, for that reason, known by the appellation of the *Monster*. It was his practice to follow some well-dressed lady, whom he found unaccompanied by a man; and, sometimes after using gross language, sometimes without saying a word, to give her a cut with a sharp instrument, concealed in his hand, either through her stays, or through her petticoats, behind. Several ladies had been thus attacked and wounded by this fellow, who had always the address to escape undetected; when, on the 13th of June, a Miss Porter, who had been assaulted by him in the manner described, was walking in the Park, in company with a gentleman, and met him. She immediately exclaimed, "The wretch has just passed us!" and pointed him out to the gentleman, who followed and apprehended him. On the 8th of July, he was brought to his trial at the Old Bailey, and found guilty upon the clearest evidence; but the judge reserved the sentence upon a point of law. The decision of the judges on this point being that the indictment was defective in form, he escaped the capital part of the charge; but was afterwards tried for this and two other assaults, and, being convicted of the whole of them, was sentenced to six years imprisonment.

A cause was tried, in the sheriff's court, at Guildhall, on the 21st of October, in which John Wilkes, esq. as chamberlain of the city of London, was plaintiff, and John Pardoe, esq. defendant. The action was brought to recover the penalty of six hundred pounds, which is ordained, by a bye-law of the court of common-council, to be paid for declining to serve the office of sheriff, to which Mr. Pardoe had been elected, in the year 1783, but refused to serve, on the ground of his being incapacitated. As it appeared that Mr. Pardoe, when he was chosen sheriff, was sixty-nine years of age, in an infirm state of health, and totally unfit to serve the office, the jury, which was special, gave a verdict in his favour.

The month of December was remarkable for two violent storms of wind. The first was on the morning of the 15th, by which considerable damage was done; and the second, which was much more destructive, began between four and five o'clock in the morning of the 23d, and was attended with successive flashes of lightning, and continued rolls of loud thunder. Part of the copper roofing of the new stone-buildings, in Lincoln's Inn, was blown over the six-clerks' office, into Chancery-lane, and some pieces of it over the roofs of the houses on the opposite side of the lane, so that it must have been carried upwards of a hundred feet through the air. Many houses were much damaged by stacks of chimneys falling through the roofs, and some lives were lost; and, in the country, the effects of the storm were equally violent: its severity was also felt in France.

A very curious case was decided in January 1791, upon a writ *de essendo quietum de telenio*, (of being quit or free from toll,) brought by the city of London to assert the right of their citizens to be exempted from a toll of corn demanded by the corporation of Lynn in Norfolk; the issue was in favour of the Londoners.



In the afternoon of the 2d of February, there was the highest flood in the Thames that ever was known. Above Westminster-bridge, it overflowed the banks on both sides. It was near two feet deep in Palace-yard; and ran into Westminster-hall, so as to prevent people from passing for two hours. Boats came through the passage from Old Palace-yard to the Thames, and rowed up to Westminster-hall gate. The inhabitants of Milbank-street were conveyed to and from their houses in boats. The two Scotland-yards, and Privy-Gardens, were entirely under water, and impassable in many places, for some hours. The damage done in the warehouses on the wharfs was immense; they were overflowed, almost without exception. The water rose above the Custom-house quay, Tower-wharf, Bankside, Queenhithe, Wapping High-street, Thames-street, Tooley-street, &c. and filled all the adjoining cellars; and most of the gardens and fields, between Blackfriars-road and Westminster-bridge, were overflowed.

On the night of the 30th of May, there was an alarming insurrection in the King's Bench prison; an attempt being made by the greater part of the prisoners to escape. Much mischief was done to the inner part of the building; and the outer door would have been forced, had not a party of horse and foot arrived, very opportunely, to restore order, which they effected, happily, without bloodshed, before eleven o'clock. The principals in this riot were removed to Newgate on the following day.

The long-depending cause between the magistrates of Surry and the city of London, was argued before the court of King's Bench, on the 19th of November, on a special verdict. The facts were, that a general meeting of the justices of Surry had been held on the 4th of September, for the purpose of granting licenses to publicans; that the magistrates of London did not attend this meeting, but met on a subsequent day, and granted licenses to certain publicans who had been refused them by the justices of Surry. For this conduct the magistrates of London were indicted, and the question for the decision of the court was, "Whether the city of London had an exclusive jurisdiction to grant licenses in the borough of Southwark, or possessed only a concurrent jurisdiction with the justices of Surry?" After the case had been argued on both sides, the court determined, that the city of London had not an exclusive, but a concurrent jurisdiction, and therefore had acted illegally. This question was therefore determined against the city.

Between one and two o'clock in the morning of the 14th of January, 1792, a fire broke out in one of the new buildings which had been added to the Pantheon, to enlarge it sufficiently for the performance of operas. Before any engines reached the spot, the fire had got to such a height, that all attempts to save the building were in vain. The flames, owing to the scenery, oil, paint, and other combustible matter in the house, were tremendous, and so rapid in their progress, that not a single article could be saved. Fortunately, the height of the walls prevented the conflagration from spreading to the adjoining buildings.

An attempt was made to set the house of commons on fire on the 9th of May, which was happily rendered abortive by the diligence of the watchman of the house. On perceiving a smell of something burning, he communicated his suspicions to Mr. Bellamy, who caused a search to be made, and found the ceiling of a water-closet, immediately under the house, had been broken, and a pair of worsted breeches, stuffed with combustible matter, burning between the joists. But for this providential discovery, it is probable that both houses of parliament, with the whole of Westminster-hall and the Court of Requests, would, from the quantity and dryness of the timber contained in them, have fallen a sacrifice to this destructive element.

A very dangerous riot took place on the 5th of this month, in Mount-street, Grosvenor-square, occasioned by the apprehension of a number of servants who had as-

sembled at a public house in the neighbourhood to make merry on the king's birth-night, by a dance. On the following morning, a mob assembled in front of the watch-house, and demanded their release; which not being complied with, they broke the windows. In the mean time some magistrates met at the watch-house, and examined the servants, all of whom were discharged, except six, including the publican and the fiddler. The mob continuing to increase, the military were sent for; and, the riot-act being read, the crowd dispersed. Tranquillity appearing to be restored, the soldiers were ordered away in the afternoon. In the evening the mob assembled again, and attacked the watch-house, which they broke into; and began to demolish, throwing the benches and furniture into the street. A party of guards reached the spot in time to prevent the total destruction of it, but had much difficulty to disperse the rabble, who proceeded immediately to the attack of a house in Audley-street, belonging to one of the constables, where it was also necessary to require the assistance of the military, to prevent mischief. Happily the tumult ended here without bloodshed; for those who assembled on the following day appeared to have no motive but curiosity, to see the devastation of the former night.

It had been long acknowledged that some reformation in the police of Westminster was wanted, though the mode of effecting it, so as to unite general security with general liberty, had not been hit upon. With a view to accomplish this most difficult of the labours of legislation, a bill was introduced into parliament, early in the month of March, in pursuance of which, regular offices were to be established for the administration of that branch of justice, which falls within the jurisdiction of a justice of peace. Three justices to be appointed to each office, with fixed salaries, and the fees taken in all the offices to be consolidated in one fund, for the payment of them; and, to annihilate that reproach to the magistracy, known by the name of *trading-justices*, no person in the commission of the peace was to receive any fees except at the established offices. Some opposition was made to this bill in its progress; but, as it was only proposed for an experiment, being limited in its duration, and parliament would be enabled to judge of its expediency at the expiration of the term, and continue it or not as the result should warrant, it was passed. The act was carried into execution, on the 21st of August, being extended to the other suburbs of the metropolis; and the following offices were appointed: viz. Queen-square, Westminster; Great Marlborough-street; Hatton-garden; Worship-street, Shoreditch; Lambeth-street, Whitechapel; High-street, Shadwell; and Union-street, Southwark: all of which have been since continued. The Bow-street office subsisted before; and has now a kind of jurisdiction over the rest. The Thames police-office, in Wapping-street, has been added since, upon the suggestions of Mr. Colquhoun, a very active magistrate, and author of a Treatise on the Police of the Metropolis. This gentleman defines *police* to be the system of regulations used in any state for the prevention and detection of crimes, and those other functions which relate to the well-ordering and comfort of civil society. According to this idea of police, it may truly be said, that in this country it is of very novel institution; and the backwardness of it is manifest in the insecurity not of property only, but it may be said of even life itself. But why police, in this sense of the word, should have been so neglected in a country which, for so many ages, has been distinguished from other European nations by unremitting attention to the acquisition and security of political liberty, is not perhaps easily to be explained; since it is indisputable that liberty itself is a blessing of subordinate value, when unaccompanied by those regulations which protect property and life from the violations to which both are liable in society, from the fraud, malice, and oppression, of individuals. It should seem, indeed, as if that very jealousy of the encroachments of power and prerogative,



gative, which guards the liberty of a people against the arbitrary will of their rulers, were in some measure incompatible with those restrictions which a well-regulated police has been found to require. Experience appears to warrant this idea; since it is under the most arbitrary and despotic governments, that the system of internal police has been carried to the highest degree of perfection. Whether this notion be true or false; whether it be that we have tamed that high spirit of freedom, which prefers the liability to private risk and injury to the chance of losing a particle of public liberty; or whether it be that we have become wiser than our ancestors, and have discovered that the restrictions of a more severe police are not really inconsistent with the highest degree of rational freedom; it is certain that we have at length begun to think seriously of means of restraining, by *prevention* rather than by *punishment*, that spirit of cheating, rapine, and violence, which in large societies will always be created by the wants and the passions of men. More has been done within the last ten years, in this way, than had been effected perhaps for a century before; and, for the advances which have already been made, as well as for those which we may yet attempt, we are greatly indebted to the intelligent and active labours of the author of the above work; since, though he then disclosed details of fraud, depredation, and general delinquency, which must have astonished the public, yet the most attentive consideration of the principles and the result of his calculations, combined with the experience of those ten years, instead of convicting Mr. Colquhoun of error or exaggeration in his estimate of the general mass of crimes, seems fully to have confirmed it.

Indeed the increase of crimes and the depravity of manners in the metropolis form a subject of frequent declamation; but, though the fact is universally acknowledged and severely felt, there seems, in tracing the cause of this growing evil, to be a great diversity of opinion; and perhaps the sentiments of men, on this as well as on almost every other subject, may receive a tincture from their modes of life, habits, and peculiar cast of disposition. The humane and tender-hearted, shocked at the numerous executions with which foreigners too justly reproach us, are apt to ascribe the growth of the evil to the severity of our penal laws; and many plans have been suggested for commuting the punishment of death, and substituting temporary or perpetual servitude. At the head of this well-meaning party stands the marquis of Beccaria; whose book on crimes and punishments has been universally read, and generally approved. The work, indeed, is written with eloquence and feeling, and the author's reasoning is for the most part just, and always plausible: but, if we appeal to experience, which is the surest test of human wisdom, we shall perhaps find that, as far as we have adopted the marquis's plan, in the hulks of Woolwich, Portsmouth, and Langton, we have no reason to boast of our success; for very few (if any) of the convicts who have been sent to those seminaries, have returned thence reformed by their education. These and other considerations may have induced men of a rigid and inflexible character to look, on the other hand, for the source of crimes in the ill-judged lenity of our laws, the feeble administration of justice, and the frequency of pardons; and many arguments may be alleged in favour of *this* opinion. In our courts of justice, perhaps too much tenderness is sometimes shown to the criminal; which gave occasion to the discerning Henry Fielding to observe, that our laws seemed rather made for the protection of rogues against honest men, than for the safety of honest men against rogues. It is certainly to be lamented that the difficulty and expense of conviction should deter many people from prosecuting offenders: it is likewise the disgrace of our country, that numberless low retailers of the law should support themselves, and even acquire fortunes, by protecting criminals from the punishments which they have merited; and, if we consider the practices which they adopt to obtain their end, (such as hiring persons to swear an

alibi, cajoling, threatening, and bribing witnesses to suppress or mutilate their evidence, on the day of trial,) the mind starts back with astonishment and horror at such an accumulation of wickedness.

The difficulty of an attempt to reform these abuses may terrify the weak and timid; but it should excite to a greater degree of exertion those who are blest by nature with a sufficient strength of mind; and who, from the circumstances of their situation in life, are supposed to be best qualified to trace the evil to its source, and to mark the various gradations of fraud, with their consequences, immediate or remote, on the peace and happiness of society. No writer that we have hitherto perused appears to us to have examined the subject so accurately as Mr. Colquhoun. As a magistrate, he doubtless had the best means of information; and we must confess ourselves astonished and shocked at the extent of the evils set forth in his work.

Engaged in a war, the event of which is uncertain, and loaded with taxes for the support of government, added to the consequent dearth of provisions, it is certainly incumbent on our rulers to prevent, as much as is possible, the depredations committed on public and private property. These depredations, according to our author, amount to the incredible sum of 2,000,000*l.* annually; which he arranges under the following heads:

1. Small thefts	-	-	£710,000
2. Thefts upon the rivers and quays	-	-	500,000
3. Thefts in the dock-yards and on the Thames	-	-	300,000
4. Burglaries, highway robberies, &c.	-	-	220,000
6. Coining base money	-	-	200,000
6. Forging bills, swindling, &c.	-	-	70,000

Total estimate £2,000,000

“Crimes of every description have their origin in the vicious and immoral habits of the people; in the want of attention to the education of the inferior orders of society; and in the deficiency of the system which has been established for guarding the morals of this useful class of the community. Innumerable temptations occur in a great capital, where crimes are resorted to in order to supply imaginary wants and improper gratifications, which are not known in lesser societies; and against which the laws have provided few applicable remedies in the way of prevention.

“The improvident and even the luxurious mode of living which prevails too generally among various classes of the lower ranks of the people in the metropolis, leads to much misery and to many crimes. The chief consumption of oysters, crabs, lobsters, pickled salmon, &c. when first in season, and when prices are high, is by the *lowest* classes of the people. The middle ranks, and those immediately under them, abstain generally from such indulgences until the prices are moderate.

“Assailed also by the numerous temptations held out by fraudulent lotteries, and places of public resort and amusement; and, above all, by the habit of spending a great deal of valuable time as well as money unnecessarily in public-houses; and often allured, by low gaming, to squander more than they can afford;—there is scarce an instance of accommodating the income to the expenditure, even in the best of times, with a considerable body of the lowest orders of the people inhabiting the capital; and hence a melancholy conclusion is drawn, warranted by a generally-assumed fact; ‘that above twenty thousand individuals rise every morning in this great metropolis, without knowing how or by what means they are to be supported during the passing day, or where they are to lodge on the succeeding night.’

“Poverty is no-where to be found clothed in so great a degree with the garb and emblems of the extremest misery and wretchedness, as in London. Develop the history of any given number of these miserable fellow-mortals, and their distresses will be found, almost in every instance, to have been occasioned by extravagance, idleness, profligacy.



gacy, and crimes; and that their chief support is by thieving in a little way.

"Allured and deceived by the facilities which the pawn-brokers and the old-iron-shops hold out, in enabling the labouring people, when they marry, and first enter upon life in the metropolis, to raise money upon whatever can be offered as a pledge or for sale; the first step with too many is generally to dispose of wearing-apparel and household goods, which is frequently done upon the least pressure, rather than forego the usual gratification of a good dinner or a hot supper. Embarrassments are speedily the consequence of this line of conduct, which is too often followed up by idleness and inactivity. The ale-house is resorted to as a desperate remedy, where the idle and the dissolute will always find associates, who, being unwilling to labour, resort to crimes for the purpose of supplying an unnecessary extravagance. It is truly melancholy to reflect upon the abject condition of that numerous class of profligate parents, who, with their children, are constantly to be found in the tap-rooms of public houses, spending in two days as much of their earnings as would support them a week comfortably, in their own dwellings; destroying their health; wasting their time, and rearing up their children to be prostitutes and thieves before they know that it is a crime."

The sixth chapter of Mr. C's work treats on coinage, and the circulation of base money, and contains a great variety of very curious information. The systematic manner in which this infamous trade is carried on, the incredible profits arising from it, its vast extent, and the numbers of people concerned in it, cannot be contemplated without horror. This naturally leads to the consideration of the various kinds of forgeries and frauds committed in the metropolis. The author justly observes, that gaming is the source whence have sprung up all that race of cheats, swindlers, and sharpers, whose nefarious practices he endeavours to expose. So early as the reign of queen Anne, this abandoned and mischievous race of men seem to have attracted the notice of the legislature in a very particular degree; for the act of the 9th of her majesty recites, "that divers lewd and dissolute persons live at great expenses, having no visible estate, profession, or calling, to maintain themselves; but support these expenses by gaming only; and enacts, that any two justices may cause to be brought before them, all persons within their limits whom they shall have just cause to suspect have no visible estate, profession, or calling, to maintain themselves by, but do for the most part support themselves by gaming; and, if such persons shall not make the contrary appear to such justices, they are to be bound to their good behaviour for a twelvemonth, and, in default of sufficient security, to be committed to prison, until they can find the same; and, if security shall be given, it will be forfeited on their playing or betting, at any one time, for more than the value of twenty shillings."

By the 12th of George II. "the games of faro, hazard, &c. are declared to be lotteries, subjecting the persons who keep them to a penalty of two hundred pounds, and those who play to fifty pounds." One witness is only necessary to prove the offence before any justice of the peace, who forfeits ten pounds if he neglect to do his duty; and by the 8th of George I. "the keeper of a faro-table may be prosecuted for a lottery, where the penalty is five hundred pounds." Such has been the anxiety of the legislature to suppress faro-tables and other games of chance, that the severest penalties have been inflicted, founded on the fullest impression of the pernicious consequences of such practices; and yet, to the disgrace of the police of the metropolis, houses are opened under the sanction of high-sounding names, where an indiscriminate mixture of all ranks is to be found, from the finished sharper to the raw inexperienced youth; and where all those evils exist in full force which it was the object of the legislature to remove. When a species of gambling, ruinous to the morals and to the fortunes of the younger parts of the

community who move in the middle and higher ranks of life, is suffered to be carried on in direct opposition to a positive statute; surely, blame must attach somewhere!

"The idle vanity of being introduced into what is supposed to be genteel society, where a fashionable name announces an intention of seeing company, has been productive of more domestic misery, and more real distress, poverty, and wretchedness to families, in this great metropolis, (who but for their folly might have been easy and comfortable,) than many volumes could detail. A mistaken sense of what constitutes human happiness, leads the mass of the people who have the means of moving, in any degree, above the middle ranks of life, into the fatal error of mingling in what is erroneously called *genteel company*; if that can be called such where faro-tables and other games of hazard are introduced in private families; where the least recommendation (and sharpers spare no pains to obtain recommendations) admits all ranks who can exhibit a genteel exterior; and where the young and the inexperienced are initiated in every propensity tending to debase the human character, and taught to view with contempt every acquirement connected with those duties which lead to domestic happiness, or to those objects of utility which can render either sex respectable in the world.

"When such abominable practices are encouraged and sanctioned by high sounding names; when sharpers and black-legs find an easy introduction into the houses of persons of fashion, who assemble in multitudes together for the purpose of playing at those most odious and detestable games of hazard which the legislature has stigmatized with such marks of reprobation; it is time for the civil magistrate to step forward; and to feel, that, in doing that duty which the laws of his country impose on him, he is perhaps saving hundreds of families from ruin and destruction, and preserving to the infants of thoughtless and deluded parents that property which is their birth-right; but which, for want of an energetic police in enforcing the laws made for the protection of this property, would otherwise have been lost, leaving nothing to console the mind but the sad reflection, that, with the loss of fortune, those opportunities (in consequence of idle habits) were also lost of fitting the unfortunate sufferer for any reputable pursuit in life, by which an honest livelihood could be obtained."

These excellent observations are followed by an accurate description of the various kinds of sharpers, cheats, and swindlers, with which the metropolis swarms; and these are divided into twenty-one different classes. It might perhaps have mortified the pride of a late celebrated nobleman,—who, in his letters to his son, seemed to regard external manners, and what he termed the graces, as of more importance than moral qualification,—to have been told, that the great quality and leading indispensable attributes of a sharper, a cheat, a swindler, or a gambler, are to possess a *genteel exterior, a demeanour apparently artless, and a good address*.

We are at length arrived at a most critical period of the annals of Europe—the French revolution. The standard of liberty and equality, two words which, though hardly understood by the lower class of society, are always sure to raise numerous partisans, was hoisted, not only in France, but in all the neighbouring states: Italy, Germany, had caught the infection; and England was warmly tempted and nearly debauched into that pernicious system; which for five-and-twenty years has now wrought the most lamentable effects upon Europe. We are sorry, yet obliged to confess, that many of our fellow-citizens were deluded and led astray by that *ignis fatuus*, that levelling folly, which, had it not been for the staunchness of the minister, for his foresight and intrepidity, seconded by the heads of the London magistracy, would perhaps, like the crafty scheme of the perfidious Sinon, have destroyed in a few months the noble fabric of a constitution which neither the lapse of time nor the fury of external and intestine war had been able to impair: *Non anni domusre decem,*



*non mille carinæ.* The societies formed, in order to give more extension to the new doctrines, were rapidly uniting and coalescing into one body, under the name of "the Corresponding Society."—Since, by the special favour of Providence, who gave our civic government strength to save themselves by prudential resistance, and to save others by their example of loyalty, the long miseries of this revolution seem to be at an end, it will be acceptable to our readers to find here the resolutions of the court of common-council on the 29th of November, 1792, where the lord-mayor, sir James Sanderfon, in a speech replete with sound argument, and delivered with manly firmness, urged the necessity of supporting the king and constitution. It was resolved as follows:

I. That it is the duty of all corporations to preserve their fidelity to their sovereign, to be watchful for the safety of the sacred constitution of the country, and to maintain, to the utmost of their power, the peace, the property, and the personal security, of every freeman living under its protection; as it is equally the duty of every freeman to bear true allegiance to the king, and be obedient to the existing laws of the land.

II. That this corporation, regarding the blessings which the subjects of the British empire enjoy, under the present mild and happy government, as inestimable, will strengthen its exertions by every possible means, to suppress all unlawful and seditious assemblies within this city, and to bring to justice every disturber of the public tranquillity.

III. That this corporation, in the most solemn manner, doth hereby call upon every good citizen to co-operate with them to the same salutary end; to discourage every attempt which may be made to excite the fears of the metropolis, by weak and designing men; and each, in his own person, to be ready, at all times, to accompany and assist the magistrates of the city, in the suppression of every tumult.

IV. That this court doth remind their constituents, the freemen of London, of the oath by which they are bound, to this purpose; viz. the first, second, and last, clauses of a freeman's oath: "Ye shall swear that ye shall be good and true to our sovereign lord, king George. Obedient and obedient ye shall be to the mayor and ministers of the city. Ye shall also keep the king's peace in your own person. Ye shall know no gatherings, conventicles, nor conspiracies, made against the king's peace, but ye shall warn the mayor thereof, or let it to your power."

V. That it be recommended to the aldermen and common-council, in their respective wards, to consider of the best means of preserving tranquillity, and of securing obedience to the laws.

VI. That these resolutions be printed in all the public papers of the united kingdoms, signed by the town-clerk.

VII. That the thanks of this court be given to the Right Hon. Sir James Sanderfon, lord-mayor of this city, for the wise and timely caution taken by him to prevent any breach of the peace, by the assembling of persons under the pretence of publicly debating on a political subject; and that this court will, to the utmost of their power, give every assistance to his lordship, to carry into effect his majesty's most gracious proclamation.

The last resolution alluded to a transaction which had occurred a short time before. Among other modes resorted to by the inciters of discontent, was that of propagating their insidious doctrines through the medium of debating societies, political lectures, &c. where, though the nominal subject related to some event in the ancient history of Greece or Rome, or was drawn from those which had recently happened in France, such allusions were made as were evidently designed to bring the government of this country into disrepute. Such a meeting was publicly announced, to be held at the King's-arms tavern, in Cornhill, on the evening of the 27th; but, when the orators and their auditory assembled, they found

the place in the occupation of the peace-officers, who denied them admission. This occasioned some slight tumult; and it was found necessary for the lord-mayor to attend, with the city-marshal, for the purpose of dispersing the crowd.

The apprehension of some sudden insurrection was, at this time, so strong, that government thought it expedient to make preparations for the defence of the Tower, by opening entrenchments, raising parapets, and mounting cannon on the walls. All the breaches were filled up; and, on the west side of the Tower, some hundreds of old rum-puncheons, filled with earth, were placed as a barricade. At the same time the Bank was doubly guarded; the villages, in the environs of the capital, were filled with soldiery, sufficient to protect the lives and property of the inhabitants of the metropolis, in case of a sudden alarm; and the court of lieutenancy of the city ordered a company of the London militia to be on duty at the Artillery-ground, night and day, to be ready at a moment's notice.

Without entering into more particulars upon a subject, which is still in the recollection of several of our contemporaries, we will assert that the city of London constantly showed a general disposition to support the constitution and the reigning order of things, and prudently put aside the poisonous cup which deluded France invited her to taste.

Preparations being made for war against the French republic, the city of London, true to the professions which they had made of supporting the king and government, took an early opportunity of proving their sincerity, by unanimously voting a bounty of forty shillings for every seaman, and twenty shillings for every landman, who would enter himself at Guildhall for the service of his majesty's navy. On the 12th of February, 1793, an address to the king was unanimously agreed to, in order to thank his majesty for his paternal care in the preservation of public tranquillity, and to express their abhorrence of the late atrocious acts at Paris; and assuring him of their readiness to support the honour of his crown and the welfare of his kingdoms against the ambitious designs of France. The address was presented and most graciously received on the 16th of the same month.

The most trifling incident was sufficient, at this moment of dissatisfaction and turbulence, to occasion commotions and riots.—Early in the morning of the 23d of June, a dreadful affray took place in the neighbourhood of Oxford-freet. A large party of labouring people had been collected at a house in Oxford-buildings, on occasion of a child's death; a dispute arose among them, which terminated in a general battle; the victors, not satisfied with their triumph over their opponents, began to commit outrages in the neighbourhood. The watchmen were beaten, and the captain of the patrol so severely wounded, that he died shortly after. A party of the guards arrived about three o'clock in the morning, and were immediately assailed with brick-bats; they, however, succeeded in securing fifty-four of the rioters, after which tranquillity was restored; but it was found necessary to keep the soldiers on guard at the watch-houses in the neighbourhood all the following day and night.

The whole of the warehouses at Hawley's wharf, near the Hermitage, with several adjoining houses, three vessels, and some small craft in the dock, and a great quantity of sugars, rum, and hemp, were entirely destroyed by fire on the 2d of December. During this conflagration a new and astonishing phenomenon struck every beholder with awe: the united mass of upwards of a thousand casks of sugar, melted by the irresistible heat, burst into a flame, and flowed through the streets in one bright stream of liquid fire.

On the 3d of February, 1794, the eagerness of the people to enter the pit-door of the little theatre in the Haymarket, where his majesty was to be present, was the



cause of a most melancholy accident: fifteen bodies were taken out lifeless, having been squeezed to death in the passage by the pressure of those out of doors who wanted to get admittance; among the sufferers we find two members of the Herald's Office, Messrs. Brooke and Pingo. Several others suffered material injury by bruises and broken limbs.

On the 17th of May, the colours taken at Martinico were deposited in St. Paul's cathedral; and on the 13th of June, news of the splendid victory obtained by lord Howe over the French fleet, on the 1st of that month, reached London. On the three following nights the cities of London and Westminster, and the borough of Southwark, were illuminated with great splendour. An address of congratulation was voted to his majesty; and the freedom of the city, in a gold box of a hundred guineas value, presented to lord Howe. Five hundred pounds were also provided for the wounded, and the widows and children of those who fell in the action.

Our annals must now take notice of the greatest fire that ever happened in London or its suburbs since the year 1665.—On the 23d of July, about three o'clock in the afternoon, a fire broke out at Ratcliffe, which consumed more houses than any one conflagration since the great fire of London. It was occasioned by the boiling-over of a pitch-kettle at a barge builder's, from whose warehouses it communicated to a barge laden with saltpetre, and from that to the salt-petre warehouses belonging to the East-India Company. The scene was dreadful; the wind blowing strong from the south directed the flames towards Ratcliffe High-street, which, being narrow, took fire on both sides, and prevented the engines from being of any service. From hence it extended towards Stepney, until, having reached an open space of ground, it stopped for want of materials to consume. About ten o'clock at night its devastations on the side next Limehouse were checked by the great exertions of the firemen and inhabitants. It was a very remarkable circumstance, that an extensive building, the dwelling-house of a Mr. Bere, standing almost in the centre of the conflagration, remained uninjured, not even a single pane of glass being cracked.

On making a survey of the extent of the damage, it appeared that out of one thousand two hundred houses, of which the hamlet consisted, not more than five hundred and seventy were preserved. About four hundred families were deprived of their all, and thrown on the public benevolence. In this distress, government sent a hundred and fifty tents from the Tower, which were pitched in an enclosed piece of ground adjoining to Stepney churchyard, for the reception of the sufferers; and provisions were distributed among them from the vestry. A subscription was also immediately opened at Lloyd's coffee-house for their relief; and some of the gentlemen in the neighbourhood attended at the avenues leading to the desolated scene, for the purpose of soliciting the benevolence of those whom curiosity might lead to witness the distresses of their fellow-creatures; and it may be recorded among the instances of the universal charity peculiar to this nation, that the collection from the visitants, on the Sunday following, amounted to upwards of eight hundred pounds; four hundred and twenty-six pounds of which was in copper, and thirty-eight pounds fourteen shillings in farthings. The total sum collected was upwards of sixteen thousand pounds.

The oldest inhabitant of London never witnessed so dreadful a storm as that which took place on the 7th of August, about four o'clock in the afternoon. The rain fell in torrents, and was accompanied by long and tremendous peals of thunder, and vivid flashes of lightning. One of these was seen to come down, and strike the street on the east side of Temple-bar, producing an effect similar to an explosion of gunpowder; every particle of straw, mud, and even the water, being completely swept from

the pavement, while the houses on both sides of the street were violently shaken, and the doors of some of them forced open: fortunately, the rain had driven every person from the street. Among other damage done by the violence of this storm, the centre beam of the roof of Lloyd's coffee-house was split, and great part of the ceiling fell into the coffee-room, followed by a torrent of rain, which in a few minutes covered the whole floor. Many balls of fire fell in the streets, particularly at the west end of the town; by which several people were thrown down, but only one person was killed.

Some riots at Charing Cross and St. George's Fields, on account of real or supposed kidnapping, occurred during the summer, and roused the vigilance of the magistrates. The recruiting-houses were the object of the fury of the populace; and nothing could quench the increasing evil but the presence of large bodies of horse and foot guards, directed by the moderate, but firm, conduct of the magistrates.

At length, by the unwearied exertions of its leaders, the Corresponding Society, as it was called by the founders of that most dangerous and undermining association, had assumed a formidable aspect, being composed of an immense number of the middling and lower classes of the community, who, not only in their meetings, but also in common conversation, were equally free in their censures of the war, and in their wishes for the success of the French. The avowed object of their association was, a reform in parliament; but they were charged with views of another kind; with a design of destroying the constitution, and introducing a republican form of government; and that this accusation, so far as it regarded some of the leading members, was well founded, cannot be denied, though the indiscriminate application of it to all was certainly wrong. The circumstance, however, which rendered them principally obnoxious, was the intimate connection they held with the convention that assembled in Scotland, some of the principal leaders of which had been tried, and found guilty of high-treason.

In this dangerous state of things, it was at last determined by government to apprehend the leading members of the Corresponding Society, and on the 12th of May of the same year (1794), Thomas Hardy, their secretary, was taken into custody. Soon after, Daniel Adams, secretary to the society for Constitutional Information, the celebrated John Horne Tooke, the Rev. Mr. Joyce, domestic tutor to lord Mahon, and John Thelwall, were apprehended, examined before the privy-council, and committed to the Tower. On the 25th of October, they were brought to trial, before a special commission at the Old Bailey; a bill of indictment having been previously found by the grand jury. The first person tried was Thomas Hardy: his trial lasted eight days; but, the evidence not being sufficient to substantiate the commission of such an *overt act* as is required to constitute the crime of high-treason, he was acquitted. Mr. Tooke was next tried, and acquitted for the same reason; as was Mr. Thelwall, whose trial followed; after which the other prisoners were brought to the bar, *pro forma*; but no evidence was adduced against them.

Thus ended a business, which, if considered in itself, was at first of an insignificant nature; a plot in which two clergymen and a shoemaker were the most formidable engines, not being calculated to inspire much terror in a government where the landed property is mostly in the hands of those who wisely think that their safety is inseparable from that of the constitution, and *vice versa*: but, if this association be considered as to its extent, its connections, its secret machinations, practices, and clandestine workings, fostering a contrary power in the very bosom of public and private establishments, and undermining, by surreptitious means, the authority of civil magistracy, we cannot wonder at the warm and effective part that the city of London took on the occasion. Had not the genius of our protection, and the bold measures of Mr. Pitt, interfered,



interfered, London, in whose very lap these vipers had been unknowingly nurtured, might have fallen a victim to their evil intentions.

The minds of the lower class of people still continued to be poisoned by inflammatory harangues and resolutions at different meetings of the Corresponding Society, one of which was held on the 26th of October, 1795, in the fields near Copenhagen-house, Illington, to vote an *address to the nation*, on its critical and calamitous state; a *remonstrance to his majesty*, for the neglect and contempt shown to a former address; and a string of resolutions, applicable to the alarming crisis, all of which were adopted by the acclamation of the multitude. The events which followed, showed the state of irritation these proceedings had created.

On the 29th, the king went in state to open the parliament, on which occasion a crowd assembled, ten times as numerous as that usually produced; for they amounted to at least two hundred thousand. From the time that his majesty left the palace, he was hissed and hooted at by a gang of ruffians, but no violence was offered until he arrived opposite the Ordnance-office, when a bullet from an air-gun perforated the glass pannel of the coach, but most happily failed to accomplish the diabolical purpose it was evidently intended to effect. In Palace-yard, a stone was thrown which shattered one of the side-windows; and on his majesty's return, followed by the same gang, another stone was thrown opposite to Spring-garden terrace, which struck the wood-work of the coach, but without doing any injury. After his majesty had alighted at St. James's, the mob attacked the state coach with stones and bludgeons, by which every particle of glass belonging to it was demolished, and considerable injury done to the carved-work and pannels. In a short time, the king went in his private coach from St. James's to Buckingham-house; and, in the park, was attacked by sixteen or seventeen ruffians, who broke out from the mass of the crowd; but, fortunately, the horse-guards arrived to his rescue, just as one of them was attempting to force open the door.

This daring outrage excited the horror and detestation of all ranks of people, and was followed by loyal and affectionate addresses of congratulation from every part of the kingdom: that from the city of London was presented on the 6th of November, and most graciously received. The trial of Kyd Wake, a printer, one of the gang who followed his majesty's coach, hissing and otherwise insulting him, came on in the court of King's Bench, on the 20th of February, 1766; when, the facts charged in the indictment being fully proved, the jury, without hesitation, returned a verdict of guilty. The judgment of the court, which was pronounced by lord Kenyon, was very severe; viz. "to be imprisoned and kept to hard labour in Gloucester gaol for five years; and to stand on the pillory, in one of the public streets of Gloucester, on a market-day, within the first three months of his imprisonment; at the expiration of which, he was to find security, in one thousand pounds, for his good behaviour for ten years." This unfortunate man, after his liberation, opened a shop in the Old Bailey, where he sold books and braces, pamphlets and garters, political essays and nightcaps; and met his death on the 13th of March, 1807, in Paul's Chain, being crushed by a cart against one of the posts of that much-too-narrow street.

On the meeting of the new parliament, the king having informed them, that the steps he had pursued had opened the way to an immediate and direct negotiation for peace, the common-council of London thought themselves called upon to address his majesty, to thank him for his communication, and to assure him that, in the event of his being unable to obtain a just, honourable, and solid, peace, it was the united determination of the citizens of London to support and assist him with increased vigour and activity. In his answer, his majesty thanked them for these fresh assurances of attachment, and promised an unremit-

ting attention to the welfare and happiness of the city of London.

The negotiations for peace came to nothing; and the city of London evinced its loyalty in subscribing eagerly to a voluntary loan of eighteen millions; but a difference of opinion arose between the livery and the common-council on account of money having been advanced to the emperor of Germany by ministers during the recess, and therefore without the sanction of parliament. The resolutions of the common-hall tended expressly to censure the administration; whereas the common-council agreed to a motion approving the opportune and pecuniary aid granted to one of our allies, in order to open a fairer prospect of obtaining an honourable peace for Great Britain and her allies.

The stoppage of the cash-payments at the bank is the first feature of the year 1797. It excited at first surprise and anxiety; but, having soon received the sanction of the bankers and most opulent merchants of London, the steady credit of the nation supporting that of paper-money, bank-notes were received with confidence instead of cash; and subsequent events have confirmed the prudence and utility of the measure. See the article BANK, vol. ii. p. 676.

Another transaction which engrossed a great deal of the public attention was the right which the livery of London claimed to have their petitions and addresses presented to the king *on the throne*, a privilege which could not materially affect the possible issue of their demands, but which, had they obtained it, would have confounded the rights of civil dignity; this prerogative belonging only to the city in its corporate capacity. A common-hall was held on the 23d of March, in which a petition to his majesty, praying him to dismiss his ministers, as the first step towards obtaining a speedy, honourable, and permanent, peace, was voted; and the sheriffs, with the city-representatives, were requested to present it to his majesty on the throne. On the 1st of April, the lord-mayor laid before the livery a letter he had received from the sheriffs, acquainting him that his majesty would receive the petition on the next or any other levee-day; but, as it did not come from the city in its corporate capacity, he would not receive it on the throne. On this, the livery directed the sheriffs, attended by the remembrancer, to demand a personal audience of his majesty, to know when he would be pleased to receive their address and petition on the throne. They accordingly obtained an audience, and delivered the message directed by the livery; to which they received an answer from his majesty, refusing to receive it upon the throne, for the reasons already given, and repeating his readiness to receive it at the levee, provided the number of persons presenting it did not exceed the usual number of ten. This report being read at another common-hall, held on the 12th, two resolutions were passed, declaratory of the rights of the livery; and another was offered, which, not being specified in the summons, the lord-mayor declared he could not put, consistently with his duty to the livery, who might thus be surprised into measures, for which they were not previously prepared. After much altercation, the lord-mayor ordered the insignia of office to be taken up; and the hall was, of course, dissolved. A fourth common-hall was held on this subject, on the 11th of May, when several strong resolutions were entered into, relative to the rights of the livery, and the misconduct of his majesty's ministers, for the dismissal of whom their representatives were directed to move an address in parliament; after which, a vote of censure was passed against the lord-mayor, for dissolving the last common-hall, and convening this for purposes short of those specified in the requisition. A counter-declaration was, however, signed, by two thousand and ninety-six liverymen, expressive of their dissent and disapprobation of the violent proceedings at these common-halls; and of their aversion and abhorrence of all proceedings tending to excite discord, or to sanction measures



of turbulence. And a meeting of the livery was held, at the London-Tavern, on the 26th of May, in which it was resolved, that the above-mentioned declaration "is a noble vindication of the character of a great and respectable body of men, who have been among the foremost in defence of true constitutional freedom;" and the resolution concluded by approving the conduct of the lord-mayor, the censure against whom was declared to be unmerited, and highly indecent.

The circumstance of a peer, the earl of Lauderdale, becoming a candidate for the office of sheriff, greatly excited the attention of the public; he had joined the oppositionists; and his failure manifested the strength of the court-party.

Now began again a course of successes and of naval victories over our enemy. The 19th of December was appointed to be held as a day of thanksgiving, for the three great naval victories achieved by lords Howe, St. Vincent, and Duncan; on which occasion their majesties attended divine service at St. Paul's cathedral. The procession, on this day, began with two colours taken from the French, three from the Spaniards, and four from the Dutch, labelled "June 1794," "February 1797," and "October 1797." They were carried on artillery-waggons; each set followed by a party of lieutenants of the navy, who had served in the several engagements in which they were won. After these came a large detachment of marines, with music playing; and then the following admirals, in carriages: Lord Duncan, Sir C. Thompson, Sir R. Onslow, Sir A. Gardner, Sir T. Pasley, Sir R. Curtis, Sir Horatio (afterwards Lord) Nelson, Lord H. Seymour, Caldwell, Waldegrave, Hamilton, Goodall, Young, Lindsay, Gambier, Bazeley, and Captain Sir H. Trollope. The naval part of the procession was followed by the two houses of parliament, the royal family, and then their majesties, in a similar manner to the procession on the king's recovery. Lord Nelson, in friendly conversation with Mr. Pitt, stood under the dome, on the very spot where the remains of the former have since been deposited;—two of the greatest men that ever graced a century and the nation that gave them birth.

A few days after, John Wilkes, esq. a man who had also made much noise, but in a different way, died, and was succeeded by the very respectable officer who is at this moment chamberlain of the city. Mr. Clarke was opposed by sir Watkin Lewis, who declined when he found the numbers of the poll to be 393 to 48.

In the year 1798 began the very useful measure of arming the citizens and teaching them the use of arms. In consequence of a conference the lord-mayor had had with the duke of York, and a letter he had received from the secretary of state, in relation to forming armed associations in the several wards of the city, a court of common-council was held, on the 19th of April, to take the proposed measure into consideration, which met with general approbation; and, after a conversation of some length, on the means of carrying it into effect, it was agreed to request the lord-mayor to convene his brethren, the aldermen, for the purpose of submitting the plan to them. When they met, they came to an unanimous resolution, to call meetings of the inhabitant householders in each ward; which was done on the 1st of May. The propositions were the same in each ward; viz. for the inhabitant householders, that were able men, to learn the use of arms; those not capable of bearing arms to be appointed special constables; to be commanded by their own aldermen; to choose a committee, to form regulations, and recommend officers; and, in case of need, to be united into one body, under the direction of the lord-mayor and court of aldermen. These propositions were unanimously adopted. While these measures were pursued in the city, parochial and district meetings were general in every part of the metropolis; and a *volunteer force* was shortly established, which relieved government from much care, and enabled it to make a much more advantageous disposition of the regulars, in case of necessity.

On the 4th of October, the Hon. Capt. Capel waited on the lord-mayor, with the sword of the French admiral, M. Blanquet, which was surrendered in the naval action at the Nile, and intended by sir Horatio Nelson as a present to the city of London, accompanied by the following letter.

*Vanguard, Mouth of the Nile, Aug. 3.*

"My Lord, Having the honour of being a freeman of the city of London, I take the liberty of sending to your lordship the sword of the commanding French admiral (M. Blanquet), who survived after the battle of the 1st, off the Nile; and request that the city of London will honour me with the acceptance of it, as a remembrance that Britannia still rules the waves; which, that she may ever do, is the fervent prayer of your lordship's most obedient servant,  
H. NELSON."

This letter and the sword were laid before a court of common-council on the 10th, who referred it to a committee, to consider the best manner of disposing of the sword, and report to the next court. It was then unanimously resolved to address his majesty on the glorious victory over the French, off the Nile, on the 1st of August, by his majesty's fleet, under the command of Sir Horatio, now Baron Nelson, of the Nile; which was presented on the 24th, and very graciously received. The report from the committee was laid before the court, on the 16th, and unanimously agreed to. It was, that they had come to the following resolution, "That the sword, delivered up to our gallant hero, lord Nelson, by the French admiral, M. Blanquet, be put up in the most conspicuous place in the common-council chamber, with the following inscription, engraved on a marble tablet: The sword of Mons. Blanquet, the commanding French admiral, in the glorious engagement of the Nile, on the 1st of August, 1798; presented to the court by the Right Hon. Rear-admiral Lord Nelson." The lord-mayor was then requested to communicate to lord Nelson the high sense which the court entertain of this invaluable present. After which, the thanks of the court, with a sword of two hundred guineas value, were voted to lord Nelson; and also the thanks of the court to captain Berry, the captains, officers, and seamen, for their important services; and the freedom of the city was voted to captain Berry, to be presented in a box of one hundred guineas value. At a court of common-council, held on the 23d of January, 1799, the lord-mayor produced a letter from the Hon. Mrs. Damer, offering her services to execute, and present to the court, a bust of lord Nelson, either in bronze or marble; which were accepted, and the thanks of the court unanimously voted for her liberal proposal.

The anniversary of his majesty's birth-day displayed this year a spectacle rather new in this country, and unknown in others; a grand review of sixty-six corps of volunteers, who, from motives of the purest patriotism, had formed themselves into military associations, in order to maintain the independence of their native country. It took place in Hyde-park, and the actual amount was 8,989 men in uniform; and the crowd assembled on the occasion was estimated at no less than a hundred and fifty thousand, although the weather was very unfavourable.

A dreadful fire broke out in the King's-bench prison in the evening of the 13th of July, which raged with such fury, that between eighty and a hundred of the prisoners' rooms were destroyed before it was extinguished.

The increasing price of provisions made it again necessary to attend to the wants of the industrious poor. A meeting was therefore held at the London Tavern, on the 6th of December, to take into consideration the means of giving them assistance during this pressure; when it was agreed to open a subscription similar to that in 1795, from the application of which such advantages had been derived at a comparatively small expense. While the liberality of the affluent was thus exercised, the wisdom of government was employed in seeking remedies for the evil, and the means of preventing its extension. With

this



this view, and in order to prevent an useless expenditure of wheaten flour by the consumption of new bread, a bill was passed, in February 1800, prohibiting any baker in London or Westminster, or within ten miles of the Royal Exchange, from selling bread until it had been baked twenty-four hours, under a penalty of five pounds for every loaf fold.

A most alarming and extraordinary circumstance occurred at the theatre royal Drury-lane, on the evening of the 15th of May. At the moment when his majesty entered the box, a man in the pit stood up, and fired a pistol at him. The house was immediately in an uproar, and the cry of "Seize him!" burst from every part of the theatre. The king, apparently not the least disconcerted, came forward in the box; and the man who committed the crime was conveyed from the pit. The indignation of the audience could not be tranquillized until after repeated assurances that the culprit was in custody. On his examination, he proved to be insane. He had been a soldier in the 15th light dragoons, and had received eight wounds in his head, from which it was believed his malady arose. He was tried for the offence, on the 26th of June, and acquitted on the ground of insanity; after which he was conveyed to a mad-house, to be taken care of.

Soon after the prorogation of parliament, which took place on the 29th of July, apprehensions of tumult and riot alarmed many of the inhabitants of London. About the middle of August a refractory spirit had manifested itself among the felons in the prison in Cold-Bath Fields. This was attributed to various publications on the state of this prison, which had appeared a short time before: however this may be, their turbulence, at length, assumed a serious aspect; and, on the evening of the 14th, when the bell rang as the signal for locking up, instead of retiring to their cells, they collected together, appearing to have some design in agitation. After a trifling resistance, they were compelled to separate, and submit to being locked up. Immediately they began the most dismal exclamations of "Murder! Starving!" &c. which collected a considerable mob round the prison, who answered them with loud shouts. Thus encouraged, they continued their cries, beseeching the mob to force the gates and pull down the walls to release them. In this dilemma it was found necessary to apply for assistance from the civil magistrates and the military associations in the neighbourhood, by whose exertions tranquillity was at length restored.

The end of this year witnessed a considerable degree of turbulence and disaffection among the people. A certain dangerous ferment, fanned by the blast of ungrounded complaints, caused hand-bills to be posted every-where, and worded in the most seditious style. But the vigour and promptitude of the magistrates, seconded by the firmness and humanity of the *volunteers*, prevented the mistaken multitude from effecting any greater mischief than the breaking of windows and lamps; and tranquillity was happily restored without bloodshed.

Another attempt was made in this year, to get a petition from a common-hall, received by his majesty upon the throne, but without success; on which a resolution was passed, on the 9th of October, "That whoever advised his majesty to persist in refusing to his faithful subjects free access, in these times of peculiar difficulty and distress, is equally unworthy of his majesty's confidence, and an enemy to the rights and privileges of the citizens of London."

A court of common-council was held, on the 14th, when an address, to the same purport as the petition of the livery, praying his majesty to convene the parliament, on account of the excessive price of every article of life, was agreed to. This address was presented to the king on the 16th; but it was rendered unnecessary, by directions having been previously given to summon the parliament for the dispatch of business.

On the 3d of December, his majesty in council, in compliance with the request of the two houses, issued his royal proclamation, exhorting all persons, who had the means

of procuring other food than corn, to use the strictest economy in the use of every kind of grain, by abstaining from pastry, and reducing the consumption of bread in their respective families; and also, all persons keeping houses, especially those for pleasure, to restrict their consumption of grain, as far as circumstances would admit.

Considerable loss and inconvenience was experienced by the underwriters and merchants of London, towards the conclusion of the year, by an unexpected embargo being laid on all the British shipping in the ports of Russia. No less than a hundred and five vessels were detained at Peterburgh, seventy-one at Riga, and a considerable number in the other ports, the greater part of which were from London; and all the seamen belonging to them were marched in small parties to a great distance up the country. The distress and anxiety of the wives and families of these men were, however, something alleviated by a liberal subscription, entered into by the principal merchants concerned in the Russian trade, for their relief, who also agreed to continue the pay of the men till they should be liberated and permitted to return.

The last event we have to notice at the close of the eighteenth century, as affecting the commerce of the city of London, is the commencement of the wet docks, in different places, for the greater accommodation of vessels employed in its trade. Nothing can show more strongly the necessity that existed for extending and improving the conveniences of the port of London, than the following statement of the increase in the number of vessels, and their tonnage, engaged in the trade of the river Thames, in the course of the eighteenth century:

	Vessels.	Tons.
Increase in the coasting trade, -	4613	927,550
— in the foreign trade,		
— British vessels, - - -	587	250,352
— Foreign ditto, - - -	1347	149,861
Total	6547	1,327,763

At the close as well as at the beginning of his career, the historian finds himself attended with equal difficulties. At setting out, surrounded with thick clouds of doubts which antiquity has blown over the scarcity of events that are the objects of his labours, he can hardly see his way; and, in these obscure paths and defiles, his steps are vacillating and slow. At the end of his race, he is dazzled by the blaze of truth and evidence, by an innumerable quantity of brilliant facts which crowd upon him, and boldly claim the preference for a place in his annals; whilst the embarrassment of his course is increased by the difficulty of selection; and the danger of deviating from, or running against, standing opinions and unconquerable prejudices. Hurried and lashed along the *stadium* by the fear of appearing lax and prolix in relating with too much minuteness several facts either too well known or too recent; he feels, at the same time, his activity retarded by the dread of omitting momentous particulars, or of appearing neglectful of entertainment or careles of interest. Perfectly aware of the duties we have to perform, we shall continue to bestow the most sedulous attention upon events which have distinguished the morning of the 19th century; and proceed steadfastly in our career, with the hope of finding the deserved meed at the end, the approbation of the public.

The eighteenth century began under the mayoralty of sir William Staines; and the first day, being also that of the union with Ireland, was ushered in by the ringing of bells; at noon the Park and Tower guns were fired, and the new standards, hoisted at the steeples of churches and other public places, floated in the air over the vast extent of the cities of London and Westminster. Yet these rejoicings were not without their drawback; for the very high price of flour, being at that moment a cause of alarm and distress, the sale of fine wheaten bread was prohibited after the 2d of February, and household bread forced into general consumption. Upon entering into office, sir



William Staines found this necessary article of life at 7s. 5½d the quarter loaf. During his magistracy, it had a great increase, for it arrived at the exorbitant price of 1s. 10½d. but, at his leaving the civic chair to sir John Eamer in November 1801, the quarter loaf was reduced to 10½d.

The long-depending cause between the parishioners of St. Gregory, London, and the warden and minor canons of St. Paul's cathedral, was determined in the court of Exchequer, on the 27th of April, in favour of the latter. The parishioners contended, that from time immemorial they had been accustomed to pay no more than ninety pounds per annum as a composition in lieu of tythes, and that, therefore, they were not within the provisions of the statute of the 17th of Henry VIII. The jury, however, decided against their plea, and that they were liable to the payment of two shillings and ninepence in the pound, making in the gross about thirteen hundred pounds per annum, from the year 1795, the time at which the claim was set up.

A court of common-council was held at Guildhall, on the 14th of May, to receive the report of the committee of ways and means, on the return to be made to the commissioners under the income-act. The report stated that the income of the city, for the last year, had amounted to 92,062l. 9s. 8d. and its expenditure to 87,828l. 7s. 4d. leaving a balance of 4234l. 2s. 4d. on which it was ordered that the sum of 423l. should be paid to the commissioners, for the income-tax of the city.

The Paddington Canal was opened on the morning of the 10th of July, with a grand procession of boats, to Bull's Bridge, near Uxbridge, where they arrived about noon; and, being joined by the city-shallop, with the sub-committee of the Thames, and several pleasure-boats, the procession returned to the great dock at Paddington.

Preliminaries of peace, between his majesty and the French government, were signed at lord Hawkebury's office, in Downing-street, on the 2d of October, and on the 10th general Lauriston, Bonaparte's first aide-de-camp, arrived with the ratification. In his passage through the town to Mr. Otto's residence, his carriage was followed by a numerous concourse of people, who afterwards took the horses from it, and drew him and Mr. Otto to Downing-street, with expressions of the most tumultuous joy. On the ratifications being exchanged, the Park and Tower guns were fired; and at night there was a general illumination through the metropolis, which was repeated on the following evening.

Peace was proclaimed in the cities of London and Westminster, on the 29th of April, 1802; and, notwithstanding the ardour with which the preliminary articles had been received, was considerably abated by the insidious conduct of France, during the interval that had elapsed since that period; yet, generally speaking, the most lively sensations of joy were excited on the present occasion. The streets were crowded at a very early hour, by persons of almost every rank, impatiently waiting for the procession; and the vast number of strangers from the country, whom curiosity had attracted, added much to the bustle of the scene. The procession was formed at St. James's Palace; and the ceremony commenced at twelve o'clock, by Francis Townsend, esq. Windfor Herald, reading the proclamation of peace for the first time; after which the procession moved forward along Pall Mall to Charing Cross, where it halted, and the reading of the proclamation was repeated by another herald. It then proceeded along the Strand to Temple Bar, where it arrived at one o'clock. On its approach to the Bar on the Westminster side, the horse-guards filed off, and lined both sides of the way. The beadles and constables of Westminster, and the officers of the high-bailiff, did the same, and made a lane for the knight-marshal and his officers to ride up to Temple Bar, the gates of which were shut. The junior officer of arms, Francis Martin, Blue-mantle pursuivant, then coming out of the rank, between two trumpeters, and preceded by

two horse-guards, rode up to the gate; and, after the trumpets had sounded thrice, knocked with a cane. Being asked by the city-marshal from within "Who comes there?" he replied "The officers of arms, who demand entrance into the city, to publish his majesty's proclamation of peace." The gates being opened, he was admitted alone, and the gates were shut again. The city-marshal, preceded by his officers, conducted him to the lord-mayor, to whom he showed his majesty's warrant, which his lordship having read, he returned, and gave directions to the city-marshal to open the gates, who attended the officer of arms on his return to them, and, on leaving him, said, "Sir, the gates are opened." The trumpets and guards, being in waiting, reconducted him to his place in the procession, which then moved on into the city, the officers of Westminster retiring as they came to Temple Bar, and the city-procession fell in behind the kings of arms in the following order:

- |   |   |  |
|---|---|--|
| Four Constables together.                                 |   |  |
| Six Marshalsmen, on foot, three and three.                |   |  |
| Six Trumpeters, three and three.                          |   |  |
| Two City Marshals on horseback.                           |   |  |
| Sheriffs Officers on foot.                                | { | Sheriffs Officers on foot.   |
|   | { | Two Sheriffs on horseback.   |
|   | { | Sword and Mace bearers on horseback.   |
| Porter in a Black gown with a Staff.                      | { | Beadles.   |
|   | { | LORD MAYOR on horseback, bearing the ancient sceptre of the city, which is of gold and glass, ornamented with pearls and precious stones round the coronet, and surmounted with the national arms. |
| Household on foot.  |   |  |
| Six Footmen in rich liveries, three and three.            |   |  |
| State Coach, with six horses decorated with ribbands, &c. |   |  |
| Aldermen in seniority, in their coaches.                  |   |  |
| Carriages of the Sheriffs.                                |   |  |
| Officers of the City in Carriages according to seniority. |   |  |
| Horse Guards.   |   |  |
| The Volunteer Corps of the City.                          |   |  |
| The Artillery Company.                                    |   |  |
| The East India Volunteers.                                |   |  |

The proclamation was read at the bottom of Chancery-lane; after which the procession moved on through Fleet-street, Ludgate-hill, and St. Paul's-church-yard, to Cheap-side. At the end of Wood-street, the cavalcade halted till the proclamation was again read; and, when the procession reached the Royal Exchange, it was read for the last time. The procession then passed along Cornhill and Leadenhall-street to Aldgate; and doubled back along Fenchurch-street, Gracechurch-street, and Cornhill, to the Mansion-house; from whence the horse-guards escorted the heralds to their college in Doctors' Commons; and afterwards proceeded to St. James's, with the knight-marshal and his men.

Illuminations of the most splendid nature succeeded the ceremonial of the day. The Mansion-house, the Bank, the India-house, the public offices, and theatres, as well as the houses of many individuals, were particularly distinguished, for the taste and splendour of their decorations; but the object of universal attraction, was the French minister Mons. Otto's house, in Portman-square, which was most brilliantly illuminated with coloured lamps disposed in the form of a temple of the Ionic order, and having in the centre a large transparency, representing England and France, with their various attributes, in the act of uniting their hands, in token of amity, before an altar dedicated to Humanity, above which appeared the word PEACE, with olive-branches around it. It may be worth while to mention, as characteristic of the national feelings, a circumstance which occurred here a few days before the illumination. Immense crowds were daily attracted, by the preparations for the magnificent display which afterwards took place. At length the word CONCORD was formed in coloured lamps, on the entablature of the temple; the reading of John Bull was, however,

CONQUERED;



CONQUERED; and his inference, that it was intended that Britain was conquered by France. Disturbance and riot were about to commence, when Mr. Otto, after some fruitless attempts at explanation, prudently conceded, and the word AMITY was substituted. But it did not end here, for some sailors found out that the initials G. R. were not surmounted as usual by a crown: this they peremptorily insisted should be done, and a lamp-formed diadem was immediately put up. For the particulars of the treaty of Amiens, and causes which led to a renewal of the war, see the article ENGLAND, vol. vi. p. 795.

Parliament was prorogued on the 28th of June, and on the following day a proclamation was issued for calling a new one; and the 16th of November, the day appointed for the meeting of this new parliament, was distinguished by the providential discovery of a horrid conspiracy, to overturn the constitution, get possession of the different branches of the royal family, and murder our beloved sovereign. The persons concerned in this diabolical scheme were under the guidance and command of colonel Despard, and consisted, principally, of labourers and the lower class of citizens, amongst whom were three soldiers of the guards. They were apprehended at an obscure public-house in Lambeth, and, after several examinations before the privy council, colonel Despard and fourteen of his followers were fully committed to take their trial for high treason. In the beginning of February 1803, they were tried before a special commission, when Despard and nine others were convicted. Three of the latter were respited, and afterwards pardoned: the other seven were executed on the 19th of February, on the top of the new gaol in Horsemonger-lane. After the conviction of the conspirators, addresses from both branches of the legislature, and from most of the corporate bodies in the kingdom, were presented to his majesty. That from the city of London was presented on the 2d of March, 1803.

It has been seen, in the page just now quoted of our article ENGLAND, that, within a few months after peace had been signed with France, disputes arose between the two countries, which our ambassador, lord Whitworth, was in vain striving to accommodate. While the public mind was in the greatest anxiety upon that important subject, a most extraordinary forgery was practised in the city. At an early hour in the morning, a man delivered a letter at the mansion-house, which he said he had brought from the secretary of state, and requested it might be delivered immediately; it was accordingly given to the lord-mayor, and soon after the following literal copy appeared in front of the mansion-house: "Lord Hawkebury presents his compliments to the lord-mayor, and has the honour to acquaint his lordship, that the negotiation between this country and the French republic is brought to an amicable conclusion. Downing-street, eight o'clock, May 5, 1803." Printed notices were then posted round the custom-house, declaring the embargo to be taken off salt-petre, &c. In consequence of this delusion, the consols experienced an immediate rise from 63 $\frac{3}{4}$  to 71 $\frac{1}{4}$ . A real treasury-messenger soon arrived, however, to announce the deception; on which the genuine communication was read in the public streets by the city-marshal. The confusion which ensued was beyond all description: the Stock-Exchange was immediately shut, and the committee came to a resolution that all bargains made that morning should be void; and the consequence of the detection of this artifice was a rapid fall in the funds to their first price in the morning.

A similar attempt was made two days after through the medium of the Times, a morning paper notoriously in the interest of government, in which a paragraph appeared, stating the amicable termination of the differences with France. The committee for managing the Stock Exchange, however, in order to guard against a second imposition, would not allow the doors to be opened until the truth of the report could be officially ascertained. At their instance, the lord-mayor addressed a note to lord Hawke-

bury, soliciting information, and stating the occasion of his application. To this note the chancellor of the exchequer, in the absence of lord Hawkebury, returned an answer, signifying that no information had been received by government which could be the subject of a public communication, and cautioning the lord-mayor against receiving reports through unauthorized channels. An extract of this answer being made public, the Stock-Exchange was opened, and business went on as usual. The public uncertainty relative to the negotiations was terminated in a few days by a declaration of war, on the part of Great Britain against France, being laid before parliament, by order of his majesty.

In the afternoon of the 9th of June, a most singular phenomenon happened in Panton-street, Haymarket. The inhabitants were alarmed by a violent and tremendous storm of rain and hail, which extended only to Oxendon-street, Whitcomb-street, Coventry-street, and the Haymarket, a space not exceeding 200 acres. For about seven minutes the torrent from the heavens was so great, that it could only be compared to a cataract rushing over the brow of a precipice. In the midst of the hurricane an electric cloud descended in Panton-street, which struck the centre of the coachway, and sunk in to a great depth, forming a complete pit, in which not a vestige of the materials which had before occupied the space could be found. The sulphureous odour from the cloud was so powerful, that, for several seconds, the persons near the spot were almost suffocated. No farther damage was done, except filling the neighbouring kitchens and cellars with water, which soon escaped through the gulph formed by the electric fluid. We must beg leave here to observe, that, in the case of a thunder-storm, the electric spark is either emitted from the impending cloud, or elicited from the spot of earth just under it. If the earth is loaded with electric fluid in greater proportion than the cloud, the spark issues from the earth, and *vice versa*; but, the effect being generally the same, and the flash exceedingly brisk, our organs cannot distinguish from what place the dreadful shock issues.

From the statements made by us under the article FRANCE, vol. vii. p. 851-858. we think it will appear evident that the continual encroachments and unreasonable conduct of the first consul, Bonaparte, were the cause of the rupture of the peace of Amiens. This was the general opinion in England; and hence all parties were united in a desire to strengthen the hands of government for the prosecution of the present war. Accordingly, a meeting of the merchants, bankers, ship-owners, traders, and other inhabitants, of the metropolis, was held upon the Royal Exchange, on the 26th of July, for the purpose of expressing their sentiments in support of the king and constitution, and of the honour and independence of the country. Between four and five thousand of the most opulent and respectable of the mercantile interest filled the area; while those who were more immediately instrumental in convening the meeting occupied a temporary booth erected within the walk on the east side. Jacob Bosanquet, esq. was unanimously called to the chair; and after having, in a manly and energetic speech, entered at large into the cause of their assembling, proposed to them the following declaration, which was agreed to without a dissenting voice. "We, the merchants, bankers, traders, and other inhabitants, of London, and its neighbourhood, deem it our bounden duty, at the present momentous period, to make public our unanimous determination to stand or fall with our king and country. The independence and existence of the British empire; the safety, the liberty, the life, of every man; is at stake. The events, perhaps, of a few months, certainly of a few years, are to determine whether we and our children are to continue freemen and members of the most flourishing community in the world, or whether we are to be the slaves of our most implacable enemies—themselves the slaves of a foreign usurper! We look on this great crisis without dismay. We have the most



most firm reliance on the spirit and virtue of the people of this country. We believe that there exists a firmer, as well as nobler, courage than any which rapine can inspire; and we cannot entertain such gloomy and unworthy apprehensions of the moral order of the world, as to think that so admirable a quality can be the exclusive attribute of freebooters or slaves. We fight for our laws and liberties—to defend the dearest hopes of our children—to maintain the unspotted glory which we have inherited from our ancestors—to guard from outrage and shame those whom nature has entrusted to our protection—to preserve the honour and existence of the country that gave us birth.—We fight for that constitution and system of society, which is at once the noblest monument and the firmest bulwark of civilization!—We fight to preserve the whole earth from the barbarous yoke of military despotism!—We fight for the independence of all nations, even of those who are the most indifferent to our fate, or the most blindly jealous of our prosperity. In so glorious a cause—in defence of these dearest and most sacred objects—we trust that the God of our fathers will inspire us with a valour which will be more than equal to the daring ferocity of those who are lured, by the hope of plunder, to fight the battles of ambition.—His majesty is about to call upon his people to arm in their own defence. We trust, and we believe, that he will not call on them in vain—that the freemen of this land, going forth in the righteous cause of their country, under the blessing of Almighty God, will inflict the most signal chastisement on those who have dared to threaten our destruction—a chastisement, of which the memory will long guard the shores of this island; and which may not only vindicate the honour, and establish the safety, of the empire, but may also, to the latest posterity, serve as an example to strike terror into tyrants, and to give courage and hope to insulted and oppressed nations. For the attainment of these great ends, it is necessary that we should not only all be unanimous, but a zealous, an ardent, and unconquerable, people—that we should consider the public safety as the chief interest of every individual—that every man should deem the sacrifice of his fortune and his life to his country as nothing more than his duty—that no man should murmur at any exertions or privations which this awful crisis may impose upon him—that we should regard faintness or languor in the common cause as the basest treachery—that we should go into the field with an unshaken resolution to conquer or to die—and that we should look upon nothing as a calamity compared with the subjugation of our country. We have the most sacred duties to perform—we have most invaluable blessings to preserve—we have to gain glory and safety, or to incur indelible disgrace, and to fall into irretrievable ruin. Upon our efforts will depend the triumph of liberty over despotism—of national independence over projects of universal empire—and, finally, of civilization itself over barbarism. At such a moment we deem it our duty solemnly to bind ourselves to each other, and to our countrymen, in the most sacred manner, that we will employ all our exertions to rouse the spirit, and to assist the resources, of the kingdom—that we will be ready with our services of every sort, and on every occasion, in its defence—and that we will rather perish together, than live to see the honour of the British name tarnished, or that noble inheritance of greatness, glory, and liberty, destroyed, which has descended to us from our forefathers, and which we are determined to transmit to our posterity.” We have recorded the above declaration, as an interesting display of British feeling and patriotism, which the world and posterity must contemplate with admiration. Such an expression of zeal and loyalty as was exhibited in the whole conduct of the meeting was, perhaps, never paralleled at the most glorious era of the histories of Greece or Rome, or of any other nation.

In consequence of the negligence of some of those whose duty it was to see the lights put out, Aikley's Amphitheatre, near Westminster Bridge, was destroyed by fire early in the morning of the 2d of September. The immense quantity of inflammable materials it contained caused the flames to rage with such fury, that nearly forty houses were consumed before the fire could be got under. An accident of the same kind, and in the same place, had occurred on the night of the duke of York's birth-day, August 16, 1797.

The 26th and 28th of October displayed a most gratifying spectacle to the patriotic heart of every citizen of London and Westminster; and indeed to the satisfaction of every Briton, and the admiration of the whole world. We mean the splendid reviews of the volunteers in Hyde-park, occasioned by the threats of the ruler of France to try his power and that of his allies in order to effect the invasion of this country. Although his rodomontading menaces did not cause much alarm to our government, yet they were sufficient to lead the minister to cautious measures. We have before noticed (p. 128) a review of volunteers amounting to nearly nine thousand; upon the present occasion they amounted to 27,077.

The last day of the year 1803 was remarkable for two extraordinary tides in the river Thames. That in the afternoon, which was the highest, although a neap-tide, stood eight inches above the level of the usual spring-tides; it was not, however, so high as the great tide in February 1791. (See p. 122.) Much damage was done on the banks of the river, by the water filling warehouses, cellars, &c. and Westminster hall would have been again inundated, but, since 1791, a new floor had been laid on arches, which raised it out of the reach of these floods.

On the 28th of January, 1804, a beautiful tessellated pavement was discovered opposite to the East India-house, in Leadenhall-street, by some workmen employed to repair the water-pipes. When entire, it formed a square of nine feet, in the centre of which, within an elegantly-adorned circle of about three feet in diameter, is a figure of Bacchus in a green mantle, holding in his left hand a thyrsus decorated with ivy, and in his right a goblet, sitting on a tiger at full speed, with his head, which is also adorned with ivy, inclined to the neck of the beast, who is looking backwards at his rider. The circle is surrounded by three borders of different patterns; and in each angle is a cup with two handles. It was found about ten feet below the surface of the street; and some fragments of an urn which had contained bones were found near it. It is preserved in the East-India-house.

A case was heard at Guildhall on the 11th of January, 1805, relative to the right of freemen of the city of London, carrying the goods of non-freemen for hire, without paying the city toll; when it was determined, that, under such circumstances, a freeman was not entitled to the full exemption; and the defendant was therefore adjudged to pay half-toll.

The London Docks were opened on the 30th of January. On the 1st of March, the directors of the West-India-Dock Company agreed on a petition to parliament to enable them to raise a further sum of sixty thousand pounds, for finishing the canal at the Isle of Dogs; which was presented the same day, and an act of parliament was afterwards passed in conformity to the prayer of it. This contrivance, which tended to shorten the way for ships round the Isle of Dogs, where the river, by its curious winding, makes that place a sort of peninsula in front of Greenwich Hospital, and which, we have no doubt, will, in the space of a few years, be covered with villas and houses erected for those whose daily employ calls to that spot; this very proper and wonderfully-useful contrivance has been since fully completed. See ISLE OF DOGS, vol. xi. p. 408.—The foundation-stone of the East-India Docks, at Blackwall, was laid on the 4th of March.

On the 21st of April, a dreadful fire destroyed the whole of the water-mills at the northern extremity of the cut from the Thames to the river Lea. A great quantity of corn and flour was consumed by the flames; and, had it



not been for a sudden and providential change of wind, the conflagration would have involved the whole village of Bromley in the common calamity.

The most violent storm that had occurred in or near the capital for many years, took place on the morning of the 6th of September, between five and seven o'clock. The thunder was uncommonly loud and awful, and the lightning resembled red and glowing balls of fire. Many persons felt shaken in their beds; and in some instances light articles were moved as if by an earthquake. The greatest violence of the storm was felt near Kensington Gore, where several trees were split by the lightning. A house on the road-side was struck by a fire-ball, which demolished the whole stack of chimneys, and passed through the kitchen; part of the park-wall was also thrown down.

In the month of October, part of the hospital of Bethlem was pulled down, and the site and materials sold. The lunatics were removed to St. Luke's, where they remained until the new hospital, now erecting, on a very enlarged scale; near the Asylum in St. George's Fields, shall be completed.

News of the glorious and decisive victory of the British fleet, commanded by lord Nelson, over the combined fleets of France and Spain, off Cape Trafalgar, on the 21st of October, in which nineteen ships of the line were taken or destroyed, arrived in London on the 6th of November. See the article GREAT BRITAIN, vol. viii. p. 818-20. The joy arising from this important event was, however, considerably allayed by the intelligence that the triumph had been purchased with the life of the intrepid commander by whom it had been achieved; and so powerful were the sensations of regret for this melancholy catastrophe, that, with very few exceptions, the public demonstrations of exultation were withheld on the evening after the arrival of the dispatches; and it was not until the following night that an illumination took place throughout the metropolis.

An address of congratulation on this occasion was presented to his majesty, by the corporation of London, on the 21st of November; and on the 26th the court of common-council came to a resolution to erect a monument in Guildhall, to the memory of lord Nelson; and voted a sword, of the value of two hundred guineas, to admiral Collingwood, his second in command; and swords, of the value of one hundred guineas, to admirals lord Northesk, the third in command, and sir Richard Strachan, who, with a small squadron of observation stationed off Ferrol, had been so fortunate as to fall in with and capture four ships of the line which escaped from the action off Cape Trafalgar. At the same court a letter was read from the Hon. Mrs. Damer, offering to execute the monument upon such a model as the court should approve; upon which the thanks of the court were voted to her; but, by subsequent regulations, another design was adopted at a court of common-council, where several models were presented; and the one which was accepted by plurality of votes has been executed, and now stands on the north side of Guildhall. The whole has a striking rather than a pleasing appearance. The general suite is there—Britannia, the City of London, and Old Neptune in an attitude which commands respect and astonishment; on the basis, a very excellent bas-relief represents the famous and dear-bought victory of Trafalgar; and in two small niches on each side two young sailors are cut with much spirit, and a mellowness of touch which does great honour to the artist. Had the invention and composition been as faultless as the manual execution, the monument would have received the full meed of our praise. The inscription, which, though rather long, does not express all we should feel for the hero who had, by his exertions, the loss of his limbs, and lastly by that of his life, prepared the opening perspective of general peace and happiness which at this moment salute our eyes; the inscription is said to have been written by Mr. Sheridan. It is elegant, copious, harmonious, true; yet it might have been shorter, and thereby

more certain of producing the desirable effect. A national tribute, however, was paid to him in a public funeral, or rather in a funeral triumph, of which we cannot refrain from giving some particulars.

On Wednesday, the 8th of January, 1805, the heralds and naval officers, who were to assist in the procession by water, assembled at the governor's house in Greenwich Hospital, where they were met by the lord-mayor, aldermen, and committee appointed by the corporation of London, and proceeded to their several barges. The body was then carried from the Saloon, where it had lain in state, through the Great Hall, out at the eastern portal, round the Royal-Charlotte Ward, to the North Gate, and placed on-board the State Barge. The coffin was covered with a velvet pall, adorned with escutcheons. During the procession from the Great Hall to the barge, a very noble band of music played the Dead March in Saul; minute-guns were fired; and the bells tolled in unison.

The body being embarked, the Funeral-barge was rowed by sixteen seamen belonging to the Victory; the other barges by picked men from the Greenwich pensioners. They had all their flags hoisted half-staff high; and, as the procession passed the Tower, minute-guns were there fired. Not a vessel was suffered to disturb the procession. The decks, yards, rigging, and masts, of the numerous ships on the river, were all crowded with spectators; and the number of ladies was immense. During the procession up the river, a lady of the name of Bayne was so affected at the scene, that she fell into hysterics, and died a few minutes after.

The Navigation-barge, which is usually stationed at Kew for excursions up the river, and which, though as long as a 74-gun ship, draws but two feet water, was, on this occasion, for the first time, brought through Westminster-bridge, and moored opposite the Temple, for the accommodation of such Members of the Corporation (in deep mourning and violet gowns) as were not actually engaged in the procession.

At a quarter before three, the procession approached Whitehall-stairs; the King's, Admiralty, Lord-mayor's, and City, Barges, immediately drew up in two lines, through which the barge with the body passed. All the oars were advanced, and the trumpets and other bands played the Dead March in Saul, the gun-boats firing minute-guns all the time. Exactly at three the Funeral-barge began to disembark its charge. A procession then commenced from Whitehall-stairs to the Admiralty, on foot. Every necessary preparation had been made at the Admiralty for receiving the body. The Captain's room, in which it was placed, was hung with superfine black cloth for this solemn occasion. The room was lighted with wax tapers, placed in sconces on the sides. Here the body remained, guarded by the officers of the house, till the ceremony of its removal to St. Paul's commenced.

On Thursday the 9th, an hour before day-light, the drums of the different volunteer corps in every part of the metropolis beat to arms; and, soon after, these troops lined the streets, in two ranks, from St. Paul's church-yard, to the Admiralty. The life-guards were mounted at their post in Hyde Park by day-break, where the carriages of the nobility, &c. with the mourning coaches appointed to form a part of the procession, began to be assembled at eight o'clock, in a line from Hyde-Park Corner to Cumberland Gate. By ten, one hundred and six carriages were assembled, of which number near sixty were mourning coaches, principally filled with naval officers; all of which, under the direction of the proper officers, were marshalled in their due order of precedence, and drove into St. James's Park, to be in readiness to fall into the procession on the proper signal. In St. James's Park were drawn up all the regiments of cavalry and infantry quartered within 100 miles of London, who had served in the glorious campaigns in Egypt, after the ever-memorable victory at the Nile; and a detachment of flying artillery, with eleven field-pieces, and their ammunition-tumbrils. At eleven



the procession commenced from the Admiralty, with the march of the several regiments, led by his Royal Highness the Duke of York, attended by his aides de-camp and staff, in the following order:

1. A detachment of the 10th Light Dragoons.
2. Four Companies of Light Infantry of the Old Buffs, with the band playing Rule Britannia, drums muffled, as an advanced guard.
3. The 92d and 79th Regiments, in sections, commanded by the Hon. Major-general Charles Hope; their Colours honourably shattered in the campaign of Egypt, which word was inscribed upon them, borne in the centre, and hung with crape.
4. The rear-guard formed by a detachment of the 92d, preceded by their National Pipes, playing the Dead March in Saul.
5. The 31st and 21st Regiments, commanded by the Hon. Brigadier-general Robert Meade, with their bands playing as before.
6. The 14th, 10th, and 2d, Light Dragoons, and the Scotch Greys, two squadrons of each, commanded by Major-general William St. Leger. The Trumpets at intervals founded a solemn Dirge, and performed the Dead March.
7. The Royal Horse Artillery, with 11 field-pieces. The whole of the Military were under the command of General Sir David Dundas, K. B. and Lieut. Gen. Henry Burrard.
8. Six Marshalmen, on foot, to clear the way.
9. Messenger of the College of Arms, in a mourning cloak, with a badge of the College on his shoulder, his staff tipped with silver, and furled with sarfnet.
10. Six Conductors in mourning cloaks, with black staves headed with Viscount's Coronets.
11. Forty-eight Pensioners from Greenwich Hospital, two and two, in mourning cloaks, with badges of the Crests of the Deceased on their shoulders, and black staves in their hands.
12. Forty-eight Seamen and Marines of his Majesty's ship Victory, two and two, in their ordinary dress, with black neck handkerchiefs and stockings, and crape in their hats.
13. Watermen of the Deceased, in black coats, with their badges.
14. Drums and Fifes. 15. Drum Major. 16. Trumpets. 17. Serjeant Trumpeter.
18. Rouge Croix, Pourfuiwant of Arms (alone in a mourning coach), in close mourning, with his tabard over his cloak, black silk scarf, hatband, and gloves.
19. The Standard borne in front of a mourning coach, in which were a Captain and two Lieutenants of the Royal Navy, in their full uniform coats, with black cloth waist-coats, breeches, and black stockings, and crape round their arms and hats.
20. Trumpets.
21. Blue-Mantle, Pourfuiwant of Arms (alone in a mourning coach), habited as Rouge Croix.
22. The Guidon, borne in front of a mourning coach, in which were a Captain and two Lieutenants of the Royal Navy, dressed as those who bore and supported the Standard.
23. Servants of the Deceased, in mourning, in a mourning coach.
24. Officers of his Majesty's Wardrobe, in mourning coaches.
25. Gentlemen. 26. Esquires.
27. Deputations from the Great Commercial Companies of London.
28. Physicians of the Deceased, in a mourning coach.
29. Divines, in clerical habits.
30. Chaplains of the Deceased, in clerical habits; and Secretary of the Deceased, in a mourning coach.
31. Trumpets.
32. Rouge Dragon and Portcullis, Pourfuiwants of Arms, (in a mourning coach,) habited as before.
33. The Banner of the Deceased as a Knight of the

Bath, borne in front of a mourning coach, in which were a Captain and two Lieutenants of the Royal Navy, dressed as those who bore and supported the Guidon.

34. Attendants on the Body while it lay in state at Greenwich; viz. Rev. A. J. Scott (Chaplain to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales), Joseph Whidbey and John Tyfon, Esquires, in a mourning coach.

35. Knights Bachelors. 36. Serjeants at Law.

37. Deputy to the Knight Marshal on horseback.

38. Knights of the Bath.

39. A Gentleman Usher (in a mourning coach), carrying a carpet and black velvet cushion, whereon the trophies were to be deposited in the church.

40. Comptroller, Treasurer, and Steward of the Household, of the Deceased, (in a mourning coach,) in mourning cloaks, bearing white staves.

Next followed the carriages of the different degrees of Nobility and Great Law-Officers, who attended to show their respect to the memory of the Deceased, beginning with the younger sons of barons, and ending with the following distinguished personages:

Duke of Norfolk, Earl Marshal.

Earl Camden, K. G. Lord President of the Council, Archbishop of Canterbury.

His Royal Highness the Duke of Cambridge.

His R. H. the Duke of Suffex.

His R. H. the Duke of Cumberlan.

His R. H. the Duke of Kent.

His R. H. the Duke of Clarence.

His R. H. the Duke of York, Commander in Chief.

His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales.

The Prince of Wales, Dukes of Clarence, Cambridge, and Suffex, were in coaches and six.

The Duke of York and his staff, with the Dukes of Kent and Cambridge, and the Colonels of Volunteers, followed the Funeral Car on horseback.

41. Richmond Herald (alone in a mourning coach), habited as the other Officers of Arms.

42. The Great Banner, borne in front of a mourning coach, in which were a Captain and two Lieutenants of the Royal Navy, dressed as those who supported the Banner.

43. Gauntlet and Spurs; Helm and Crest; Target and Sword; Surcoat; in front of four mourning coaches, in which were York, Somersct, Lancafter, and Chester, Heralds, habited as before.

44. A mourning coach, in which the Coronet of the Deceased, on a black velvet cushion, was borne by Norroy King of Arms (in the absence of Clarenceux), habited as before, and attended by two Gentlemen Ushers.

45. The six Lieutenants of the Victory, habited as before, with the bannerolls, in two mourning coaches.

46. The six Admirals, in like habits, who were to bear the Canopy, in two mourning coaches.

47. The four Admirals, in like habits, to support the Pall, in a mourning coach.

48. The BODY,

placed on a Funeral Car, or open Hearse, decorated with a carved imitation of the head and stern of his Majesty's Ship the Victory, surrounded with Escutcheons of the Arms of the Deceased, and adorned with appropriate mottos and emblematical devices; under an elevated Canopy, in the form of the upper part of an ancient Sarcophagus, with six sable Plumes, and the Coronet of a Viscount in the centre, supported by four Columns, representing Palm-trees, with wreaths of natural laurel and cypress entwining the shafts; the whole upon a four-wheeled carriage, drawn by six led Horses, the Caparisons adorned with Armorial Escutcheons. The head of the Car was ornamented with a figure of Victory. The stern, carved and painted in the naval style, with the word "Victory," in yellow raised letters on the poop. Between the Escutcheons were inscribed the words "Trinidad," "Bucentaur," "L'Orient," and "St. Josef." The Coffin, placed on the quarter-deck, with its head towards the stern, with an English jack pendant over the poop, and lowered half-staff.



staff. The corners and sides of the Canopy were decorated with black ostrich-feathers, and festooned with black velvet, richly fringed, immediately above which, in the front, was inscribed, in gold, the word "Nile," at one end. On one side the following motto; *Hoste devicto, requievit*; behind the word "Trafalgar;" and on the other side the motto, *Palnam qui meruit ferat*. The black velvet Pall, adorned with six Escutcheons of the Arms of the Deceased, and the six Bannerolls of the Family Lineage, were removed from the Hearse, in order to afford an unobstructed view of the Coffin containing the remains of the gallant Admiral.

49. Garter, Principal King of Arms, in his official habit, with his sceptre, (in his carriage, his servants being in full mourning,) attended by two Gentlemen Ushers.

50. The Chief Mourner, in a mourning coach, with his two Supporters, and his Train-bearer; all in mourning cloaks.

51. Six Assistant Mourners (in two mourning coaches), in mourning cloaks as before.

52. Windsor Herald, acting for Norroy King of Arms, (in a mourning coach,) habited as the other Officers of Arms, and attended by two Gentlemen Ushers.

53. The Banner of Emblems, in front of a mourning coach, in which were two Captains and two Lieutenants of the Royal Navy.

54. Relations of the Deceased, in mourning coaches.

55. Officers of the Navy and Army, according to their respective ranks; the seniors nearest the body: the whole in 50 mourning coaches.

56. The Private Chariot of the Deceased, empty—the blinds drawn up—the coachman and footman in deep mourning, with bouquets of cypresses.

The whole moved on in solemn pace, through the Strand to Temple Bar, where the Lord Mayor of London waited to receive the Procession, accompanied by the Aldermen, Recorder, Sheriffs, and twelve Gentlemen, selected from the Committee appointed by the Corporation for arranging their attendance at the Funeral.

On the arrival of the Military preceding the whole, the Lord Mayor had a short conversation with his Royal Highness the Duke of York.

As the Procession advanced, the Deputation of the Common Council, in six elegant chariots, and in their violet gowns, fell in, as had been previously adjusted, before the Physicians of the Deceased; and were preceded by seven select Sailors from the Victory, who had accompanied the Committee in their Barge, bearing the Union Jack, and Pendant, of the ship; whose honourable tatters attracted universal attention.

The Aldermen, in their scarlet gowns, fell in before the Masters in Chancery; and (by an especial Sign Manual) the Lord Mayor on horseback, bearing the City Sword, attended by the Sheriffs, rode between his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales and the Heralds at Arms.

On the arrival of the Procession at St. Paul's (which was filled at an early hour by all those who could obtain places), the Cavalry marched off to their barracks; the Scotch regiments drew up in the area fronting the Church, and marched in at the Western Gate.

The 48 Greenwich Pensioners, with the 48 Seamen and Marines from the Victory, entered the Western Gate, ascended the steps, and divided in a line on each side under the great Western Portico.

On the arrival of the Body and the Funeral Car at the Great Entrance, it was drawn up without the Western Gate. The Body was taken from the Car, covered with the Pall, and borne by 12 men; and was received within the gate by the Supporters and Pall-bearers, who had previously alighted for its reception. The remainder of the Procession entered the Church, and divided on either side according to their rank; those who had proceeded first remaining nearest the door.

Immediately after the Great Banner, near the entrance of the Church, the Dean and Chapter fell into the Pro-

cession, attended by the Minor Canons and Vicars Choral; &c. of St. Paul's Cathedral, assisted by the Priests and Gentlemen of his Majesty's Chapels Royal, and the Minor Canons and Vicars Choral of the Collegiate Church of St. Peter, Westminster, and others, who sang the first part of the Burial Service, set to music by Dr. Croft.

The Body was borne into the Church and Choir, preceded by Richmond Herald; the Great Banner borne by a Captain; and the Gauntlet and Spurs, Helm and Crest, Target and Sword, and Surcoat, by four Heralds as before.

The Coronet by Norroy King of Arms.

The BODY,

with the Supporters of the Pall and Canopy.

Garter, King of Arms.

Chief Mourner, and Assistant Mourners.

Windsor Herald.

The Banner of Emblems.

Relations of the Deceased; viz. Horatio Nelson, esq. commonly called Viscount Merton, nephew; G. Matcham, esq. nephew; G. Matcham, esq. brother-in-law; William earl Nelson, sole brother and heir; T. Bolton, esq. nephew; T. Bolton, esq. brother-in-law. Rev. R. Rolfe, T. T. Berney, esq. Hon. H. Walpole, Hon. G. Walpole, cousins.

The remainder of the procession followed in the order as before marshalled.

The Officers of Arms, and the Bearers of the Banners, with their Supporters, entered the Choir, and stood within, near the door; and all above and including the rank of Knights Bachelors, as well as the Staff-Officers, and the Naval Officers who attended the procession, had seats assigned to them in the Choir. The Chief Mourner, his two Supporters, and Train-bearer, were seated on chairs near the Body, on the side next the Altar; and the six Assistant Mourners, four Supporters of the Pall, and six Supporters of the Canopy, on stools on each side; the Relations also near them in the Choir; and Garter was seated near the Chief Mourner. The Prince of Wales, and his six Royal Brothers, were at the east end of the prebendal stalls, on the south side of the Choir. The Duchefs of York was also seated in the Choir; her Royal Highness was conducted to her seat by the Bishop of Lincoln. The Officers of the Navy, and the Staff Officers commanding the troops, were seated near the altar. The Lord-mayor, Aldermen, Recorder, and Sheriffs, were in their accustomed seats (the prebendal stalls), at the east end of the north side of the Choir; their Ladies in the closets over them; and the Deputation of the Common-council in the seats immediately under the Aldermen.

The Body, when placed in the Choir, was not covered with the Pall, nor the Canopy borne over it; the rule in that respect being dispensed with, for the reason before mentioned. The Bannerolls were borne on each side the Body. The Carpet and Cushion (on which the Trophies were afterwards to be deposited) were laid by the Gentleman Usher who carried them on a table placed near the Grave, which was under the centre of the Dome, and behind the place which was to be there occupied by the Chief Mourner. The Coronet and Cushion, borne by Norroy King of Arms (in the absence of Clarenceux), were laid on the body.

The Gentlemen of the three Choirs ascended into a gallery on the east side of the organ, from which the Evening Service was performed. At the conclusion of the service in the Choir, a procession was made thence to the Grave, with the Banners and Bannerolls as before; during which was performed on the Organ a grand solemn Dirge, composed and played by Mr. Attwood; the Officers of Arms preceded with the Trophies; the Gentlemen of the Choir of St. Paul's accompanying the Body; the Gentlemen of the Chapels Royal and Westminster stationing themselves in a gallery on the West side of the Organ; the Body borne and attended as before.

The Chief Mourner, with his Supporters, and near them Garter, had seats at the East end of the Grave; the

Train-



Train-bearer stood behind the Chief Mourner, and near him the Relations of the Deceased. At the opposite end sat the Right Reverend the Lord Bishop of Lincoln, Dean of the Cathedral, attended by the three Canons Residentiaries. A Supporter of the Pall stood at each angle; the Assistant Mourners, Supporters of the Canopy, and Bearers of the Bannerolls, on either side. On the right of the Dean were the Chaplains; on the left the Officers of the Household of the Deceased. The Great Banner was borne on the North, the Banner of the Deceased, as a Knight of the Bath, on the South of the Grave; the Standard and Guidon behind the Dean; the Banner of Emblems behind the Chief Mourner; the Trophies in the angles. The Royal Dukes, Foreign Ambassadors, and Naval Officers, had seats reserved for them in the front of the South side of the Dome. The Lord-mayor, Aldermen, and the whole of the Common Council, with their Ladies, were seated in the front of the North side of the Dome.

At the Grave was sung, "Man that is born of a woman," &c. The remainder of the Burial-Service was then read by the Dean; and after the first Collect an Anthem was sung, selected from Handel's Grand Funeral Anthem. There was an excellent contrivance for letting down the Body into the Grave. A Bier was raised from the oblong aperture under the Dome, for the purpose of supporting the Coffin, by invisible machinery; the apparatus being totally concealed below the pavement. This contrivance prevented all those disagreeable circumstances which too often occur at the funerals of the great.

Upon a signal given from St. Paul's that the Body was deposited, the troops being drawn up in Moorfields, the Artillery fired their guns, and the Infantry gave volleys, by corps, three times repeated. The service of the interment being over, Garter proclaimed the style; and the Comptroller, Treasurer, and Steward, of the Deceased, breaking their staves, gave the pieces to Garter, who threw them into the Grave. The Interment thus ended, the Standard, Banners, Bannerolls, and Trophies, were deposited on the table behind the Chief Mourner; and the Procession, arranged by the Officers of Arms, returned.

It is a curious and singular circumstance, that the design of the Car, exactly as it was executed, and as it stands now in the Painted Hall at Greenwich, was invented and made by a French gentleman well known at the Herald's office. The occasional motto, *Hofte devicto, requievit*, was given by the same person. The idea of letting down the coffin, by means of flings, was suggested also by him to Mr. Wyatt two days before the funeral; and the obelisk, in black, erected by Mr. Milne, entirely removed on that account. We thought it but just to show that real merit and patriotism have every-where a claim to respect; and that foreigners themselves, in or out of this country, could not refuse their tribute of admiration to such a man as Nelson.

The vast space under the dome of the cathedral was illuminated by a temporary lantern, the contrivance of Mr. Wyatt, consisting of an octagonal framing of wood, painted black, and finished at top by eight angles, and at bottom by a smaller octagon. On it were disposed about 200 patent-lamps; and it was suspended by a rope from the centre of the lantern. When drawn up, it illuminated the whole church, and had a most impressive and grand effect, contributing greatly to the magnificence of the spectacle.

During the whole of this solemn ceremony, the greatest order prevailed throughout the metropolis; and, as the remains of the much-lamented hero proceeded along, every possible testimony of sorrow and of respect was manifested by an immense concourse of spectators of all ranks. From the Admiralty to the Cathedral, the streets were lined with the several Volunteer Corps of London and Westminster, the Militia, and many other military bodies both cavalry and infantry.

The Lord Mayor and Corporation of London are entitled to the grateful acknowledgments of the public (who profited by their attention throughout every department),

not only for the effectual manner in which they provided for the peace of the city, but for the comfortable access afforded, under their direction, to all who entered it. And it must not be forgotten, that the spirited exertions of the lord-mayor, now Sir James Shaw, bart. preserved on this occasion the right of the first magistrate to claim precedence, at a procession in the city, above even the princes of the royal blood. Long discussions took place between the court and the lord-mayor; at length, upon the representation and conciliating interference of Garter Principal King of Arms, to whom the preservation of all rights of precedence is entrusted, the affair was settled by a warrant from the king, assigning, *pro hac vice*, a place to the lord-mayor according to the pretensions of his office.

This behaviour of the lord-mayor was so agreeable to the corporation, that, at a court of aldermen, held on the 28th of January, it was *Resolved unanimously*, "That the thanks of this court be given to the Right Honourable the Lord-Mayor, for his judicious arrangement of this city's part of the Public Processions on the 8th and 9th instant, in honour of the late Lord Viscount Nelson; for that manly, temperate, and persevering, conduct, which procured him a warrant, under the King's Sign Manual, to hold in the procession of the 9th instant, within the city, the place due to the chief magistrate; viz. that of the first subject of the realm; for the perfect concert in which he acted with the committee of the other branch of the corporation; for his excellent disposal and brilliant display of the military force of this city; for his polite attention to all the members of this court, and to every other person with whom he had intercourse upon that solemn occasion; and for his liberal entertainments, particularly that at his Mansion-house on the 9th instant; when his hospitable table was attended by the municipal authorities of the city, and honoured by an assemblage of eminent persons, rendered dear to their fellow-citizens, by the great services they have performed to their country, in the honourable professions of the navy and army."

The four vergers of St. Paul's are said to have made more than a thousand pounds, by the daily admission to see the preparations for the funeral of lord Nelson, and by showing the coffin for several days after the obsequies. The money taken at the door amounted to more than 40l. each day.

The tears of the country were still flowing on the tomb of Nelson, when death deprived the nation of another of her great men. Mr. Pitt died on the 23d of January, 1806; and was buried the 22d of February following. Great difference of opinion prevailed in the corporation of London, in respect to the measures to be adopted in consequence of that event. The subject of discussion was a motion, in the court of common-council, on the 6th of February, "That this court, deeply impressed with a sense of the inflexible integrity, transcendent ability, and splendid virtue, of the late illustrious minister, the Right Hon. W. Pitt; do cause a monument to be erected within the Guildhall of this city, to perpetuate his memory, with a suitable inscription, expressive of their veneration for so pre-eminent a character, and of the irreparable loss this nation has sustained by the death of so exalted and disinterested a statesman." After a very animated debate, the question was determined in the affirmative by a majority of six only; but, when an attempt was made on the 28th of the same month to procure a reversal of the vote, the motion was lost, and the former vote confirmed, by a majority of thirty-six.

The monument having been determined upon, several models were presented for the choice of the corporation; and the one which was ordered to be erected is placed opposite to that of lord Chatham, and is no disparagement to it as a companion. On a rock arising from, and surrounded by, the waves of the sea, in allusion to the natural situation of Great Britain, the figure of Mr. Pitt stands aloft, before a marble pyramid, in the attitude of speaking, and in the costume of Chancellor of the



Exchequer. On the right, upon a lower ground, Apollo, holding the lyre, and his eyes fixed on the celestial regions, exemplifies, as the god of invention, of the high sciences, and of the liberal arts, the sublimity of the son of lord Chatham's transcendent genius; and, as the dispenser of light, reminds us of the brightness and strength of Mr. Pitt's irresistible argumentation. It appears as if the sculptor had clothed the inferior parts of this figure with a plain yet elegant drapery, purposely to intimate that, in his discourses, as well as in his conduct through public and private life, this great character adhered constantly to the strictest rules of decorum, and to an exemplary purity of morals.—On the other side, Mercury, holding a roll of paper in his left hand, as the god of eloquence, and the caduceus in his right, as the patron of commerce, and of that mutual and friendly intercourse among nations which tends to unite and bless all the classes of society, looks up, with approbation and complacency, to so distinguished an orator, and so profound a statesman. Below, and in the centre of the group, counterpoising with pleasing effect the three figures above, Britannia, ready to hurl the thunder of war, rides a sea-horse upon the submissive and tributary waves, and over the wreck of the enemy's naval power, alluded to by an ancient galley half sunk in the sea. Her helmet is adorned with branches of oak most delicately wrought, and with the prow of a ship, on which Victory is represented offering the triumphal wreath of the brave sons of Albion, and pointing allegorically to the brilliant exploits achieved by our navy, and to the wonderful increase of our maritime power, under the administration of Mr. Pitt.—A striking mixture of intrepidity and meekness, of loftiness and affability, animates the features of the female, emblem of our nation; and brings to mind this beautiful line, so expressive of the British character: *Parcere subjctis, et debellare superbo;* "To spare the conquer'd, and subdue the proud." The inscription upon this monument is from the pen of Mr. Canning, and has been much admired.

Mr. Pitt was the very soul of the government, which he had directed for so many years. As soon as it left that body, a change was naturally expected; and of course, those who had most strenuously blamed his plans, and opposed his measures, became the warmest candidates to fill the places of a new administration. The failure of a strong and lasting combination among our continental allies against the common enemy, and several other causes, among which we may reckon the system of exclusion, which had become unpopular, inasmuch as people are soon cloyed with a repetition of the same modes of acting, and even with the faces of the actors, would, even on the supposition that Providence had prolonged the life of Mr. Pitt, have required a material alteration. But the difficulty of composing a new ministry was felt in all its bearings. The opposition had split itself into several branches; and the court was averse to deposit the helm of government in the hands of men who had so little confidence in each other. An offer was therefore made to lord Hawkebury of the offices and situation vacant by the death of Mr. Pitt. This dazzling proposition, flattering as it was, deprived not the noble secretary of his habitual prudence. Fully sensible of the value of the gift, but aware also of the difficulties and responsibility attached to it, he requested time for deliberation. Had the circumstances of the moment been less unfavourable, he would probably have caught with eagerness at the high situation proposed to him; and, had he accepted of it, such is the prodigious influence of the crown, when exerted in good earnest, and managed with ability, that, unless he had fallen a victim to unfounded fears, or a sacrifice to antiquated scruples, or suffered from the treachery of some associate who had access to the royal ear, he could hardly have failed to maintain himself in his post against all the efforts of opposition, however numerous, respectable, and popular. But the present time was less favourable for such a struggle on the part of the crown than any period that had occurred since the end of the

American war. However, considering the state of parties, and particularly after consulting his friends, lord Hawkebury declined to take upon himself the government of the country. His refusal, when made known to the public, communicated universal satisfaction; and men were disposed to give him credit for forbearance and self-denial as well as for prudence, till they were informed, that he had obtained for himself a grant of the wardenship of the Cinque-Ports, and had procured the warrant, conferring on him that lucrative appointment, to be passed with unusual expedition through the public offices, as if he were afraid that it might be stopped, and the propriety of the grant questioned.

After long discussions on the point of taking lord Sidmouth into the administration, the plan, being at length arranged, was submitted to the king on the 31st of January, 1806, soon after which the following appointments took place: Lord Erskine, lord chancellor; earl Fitzwilliam, president of the council; viscount Sidmouth, lord privy seal; lord Grenville, first lord of the treasury; lord Howick, first lord of the admiralty; earl of Moira, master general of the ordnance; earl Spencer, Mr. Fox and Mr. Windham, secretaries of state; lord Henry Petty, chancellor of the exchequer; and lord Ellenborough, lord chief justice, with a seat in the cabinet. The duke of Bedford went as lord-lieutenant to Ireland, and Mr. Elliot accompanied him as secretary; Mr. George Ponsonby was appointed chancellor and keeper of the seals in Ireland, and sir John Newport chancellor of the Irish exchequer. So thorough and complete a change in all the departments of the state had not been seen since the year 1784.

The mind of the public was much interested at this period by the trial of brigadier-general Thomas Picton, late governor of the island of Trinidad, for putting Louisa Calderon to the question, or torture.

Mr. Garrow thus related the circumstances of the case: "The island of Trinidad surrendered to sir Ralph Abercrombie in the year 1797; and he entered into a stipulation, by which he conceded to the inhabitants the continuance of their laws, and appointed a new governor, until his majesty's pleasure should be known. In December 1801, when this crime was perpetrated, Louisa Calderon was of the tender age of ten or eleven years. [It has since appeared that she was four years older.] At that early period, she had been induced to live with a person of the name of Pedro Ruiz, as his mistress; and, although it appears to us very singular that she should sustain such a situation at that time of life, yet it is a fact, that, in that climate, women often become mothers at twelve years old, and live in a state of concubinage, if, from their condition, they cannot form a more honourable connection. While she lived with Ruiz, she was engaged in an intrigue with Carlos Gonzalez, the pretended friend of the former, who robbed him of a quantity of dollars. Gonzalez was apprehended, and she also, as some suspicions fell upon her in consequence of the affair. She was taken before the justice, as we, in our language, should denominate him; and in his presence she denied having any concern in the business. The magistrate felt that his powers were at an end; and, whether the object of her denial were to protect herself or her friend, is not material to the question before you. The extent of his authority being thus limited, this officer of justice resorted to general Picton; and I have to produce, in the hand-writing of the defendant, this bloody sentence: *Liftick the torture upon Louisa Calderon.*—You will believe there was no delay in proceeding to its execution. The girl was informed, in the gaol, that, if she did not confess, she would be subjected to the torture; that under this process she might probably lose her limbs or her life; but the calamity would be on her own head, for, if she would confess, she would not be required to endure it. While her mind was in the state of agitation this notice produced, her fears were aggravated by the introduction of two or three negroes into



her prison, who were to suffer under the same experiment, for *witchcraft*, and as a means of extorting confession. In this situation of alarm and horror, the young woman persisted in her innocence, the punishment was inflicted, improperly called picketing, which is a military punishment, perfectly distinct. This is not picketing, but the torture. It is true, that the soldier, exposed to this, does stand with his foot on a picket, or sharp piece of wood, but, in mercy to him, a means of reposing is afforded on the *rotundus major*, or interior of the arm. This practice, I hope, will not in future be called *picketing*, but *pickoning*, that it may be recognized by the dreadful appellation which belongs to it. Her position may be easily described. The great toe was lodged upon a sharp piece of wood, while the opposite wrist was suspended in a pulley, and the other hand and foot were lashed together, so that it was impossible she could afford herself any relief from the anguish she suffered. In this state of agony, she confessed that Carlos Gonzalez had stolen the property; but was continued in this dreadful situation, under the inspection of a magistrate, during the space of fifty-three or fifty-four minutes by a watch, which was provided, from some supposed notion, that the torture could not be inflicted for more than an hour at a time; and that the pleasure of seeing the victim might not occasion it to be continued longer than the personal security of the officer rendered prudent. The first punishment not being sufficient, the horrid ceremony was again repeated." [The learned counsel here produced a drawing in water-colours, in which the situation of the sufferer, and the magistrate, executioner, and secretary, was described. He then proceeded:] "It appears to me, that the case, on the part of the prosecution, will be complete when these facts are established in evidence; but I am to be told, that, though the highest authority in this country could not practise this on the humblest individual, yet, by the laws of Spain, it can be perpetrated in the island of Trinidad. I should venture to assert, that, if it were written in characters impossible to be misunderstood, that, if it were the acknowledged law of Trinidad, it could be no justification of a British governor. Nothing could vindicate such a person but the law of imperious necessity, to which we must all submit. It was his duty to impress upon the minds of the people of that colony the great advantages they would derive from the benign influence of British jurisprudence; and that, in consequence of being received within the pale of this government, torture would be for ever banished from the island. It is, therefore, not sufficient for him to establish this sort of apology; it is required of him to show, that he complied with the institutions under the circumstances of irresistible necessity. This governor ought to have been aware, that the torture is not known in England; and that it never will be, never can be, tolerated in this country. The trial by rack is utterly unknown to the law of England, though once, when the dukes of Exeter and Suffolk, and other ministers of Henry VI. had laid a design to introduce the civil law into this kingdom as the rule of government, for a beginning thereof, they erected a rack for torture, which was called in derision the Duke of Exeter's Daughter, and still remains in the Tower of London, where it was occasionally used as an engine of state, not of law, more than once in the reign of queen Elizabeth. But when, upon the assassination of Villiers duke of Buckingham by Felton, it was proposed in the privy council to put the assassin to the rack, in order to discover his accomplices, the judges, being consulted, declared unanimously, to their own honour, and the honour of the English law, that no such proceeding was allowable by the laws of England. Such are the observations of the elegant and learned author of the Commentaries on the Law of England on this subject; and, as the strongest method of showing the horror of the practice, he gives this question in the form of an arithmetical problem: The strength of the muscles and the sensibility of the nerves being given, it is required to

know what degree of pain would be necessary to make any particular individual confess his guilt. But what are we to say to this man, who, so far from having found torture in practice under the former governors, has attached to himself all the infamy of having invented this instrument of cruelty? Like that called the duke of Exeter's daughter, it never existed until the defendant cursed the island with its production. I have incontestible evidence to show this ingenuity of tyranny in a British governor; and, the moment I produce the sanguinary order, the man is left absolutely without defence. The date of the transaction is December 1801, and in 1802, the ministry directed a commission to conduct the government of Trinidad. Among the persons appointed to this important situation, was colonel Fullarton. In the exercise of his duties in that situation, he obtained knowledge of these facts; and, with this information, he thought it incumbent on him to bring this defendant before you; and, with the defendant, I shall produce the victim of this enormity; and you will learn that she at this moment bears upon her the marks of the barbarity of the defendant."

*Louisa Calderon*, attended by a Spanish interpreter, was then sworn, and examined by Mr. Adam.

Were you at Trinidad in 1801?—Yes.

Were you acquainted with Pedro Ruiz?—Yes.

Did you live in his house?—Yes.

Do you remember a robbery committed in the house of Pedro Ruiz?—I do.

Were you suspected of committing that robbery?—I was, and also Carlos (Gonzalez).

Do you remember his being apprehended?—Yes.

Were you, and your mother, also taken up?—Yes, the same night.

Before whom were you carried?—Before governor Picton.

Did he order you to be committed to prison?—Yes.

Before you were sent there, what did the defendant tell you?—That if I did not confess, the hangman was to put his hand upon me.

Do you know a person of the name of Beggarrat?—Yes.

Is he an alcalde (magistrate)?—Yes; he came to me in prison, and examined me frequently as to the robbery.

Was there an *escrivano* (notary) of the name of Francisco de Castro, who also attended?—Yes.

After some examinations, were you carried into a room where there was a picket erected in the gaol?—Yes.—[The witness was here desired to give a description of this instrument of torture, and of the manner in which it was applied to her person, which she did nearly in the way in which it was explained in the opening of the learned counsel. When the drawing above-mentioned was handed to her, representing, in a striking manner, her situation, surrounded by her judges and executioners, she gave a shudder expressive of horror, which nothing but the most painful recollection of her situation could have excited; on which Mr. Garrow expressed his concern, that his lordship was not in a position to witness this accidental, but conclusive, evidence of the fact.]

How long did you remain tied up in this situation?—Three quarters of an hour.

Were you upon the spike all that time?—Yes.

Were you at any time drawn up by the rope connected with the pulley?—Yes.

Had you seen any persons in the same unhappy condition before?—Yes, two others.

What was the effect of this torture?—I was in great agony, and, after it, my wrist and foot were very much swelled.

Were you asked to make confession of the robbery, before you were tied up?—Yes; Beggarrat enquired if I would declare who took the money.

Were you sworn before the torture was applied?—No; but the holy cross was held up before me.

Did you confess?—Yes; after I was suspended, I said Carlos took the money.

Where



Where did you go after you left the gaoler's room?—To the same apartment where I had been suspended. I was kept there all night.

Were you put in irons?—Yes, in *grillos*, (fetters for the legs.)

Describe what these *grillos* are.—They are formed of an iron bar, fastened to the ground, to which are attached two rings to receive the legs. [A drawing of this instrument was then produced, which the witness said was an exact representation of the *grillos*.]

Were you put upon the picket next day?—Yes, upon the same instrument, and in the same manner; it was in the morning.

How long were you kept upon it?—Twenty-two minutes. There was a watch to show the time; Alvarez Beggarrat, Francisco de Castro, and Rafael an alguazil (constable), were present.

With which arm were you tied up the second day?—With each, one after the other; and I was so suspended, that I could just touch the spike by extending my toe.—(My feet were without shoes or stockings, she said, in reply to a question by lord Ellenborough.) She then described, that she was seized with a fainting fit, and that she knew nothing of the time or circumstances of her recovery.

Were you again put in irons?—Yes, in the *grillos*, the same evening.

How long were you in this state?—All the time I was in prison, *during eight months*.

Are there any marks of the injury you received now apparent on your person?—On my wrists there are, but none on my feet. [The witness now exposed the seam or callus, formed on her wrists in consequence of the torture.]

To some questions, on the cross-examination by Mr. Dallas, she said that she did not know how long she had been released before she was brought over; that she came with colonel Fullarton, and that she had been maintained by Mr. White, of the treasury.

*Don Rafael Shando*, also assisted by the interpreter, said, that he was an alguazil in the island of Trinidad in the year 1801; that he returned from the interior of the country on the 22d of December, and saw Louisa Calderon in gaol; that they were then giving her a glass of water, after bringing her down from the torture. She was supporting herself on a table; it was about seven o'clock in the evening. Beggarrat desired witness to bring Carlos up, and told her that she must repeat to Carlos what she had said to him. After this interview, at which nothing transpired, she was instantly put in the *grillos*, and in the same room in which she had suffered the torture. The apartment was like a garret, with sloping sides, and the *grillos* were so placed, that, by the lowness of the room, *she could by no means raise herself up during the eight months of her confinement*. On the 23d of December she was again put to the torture, between eleven and twelve in the morning, and she remained in this situation twenty-two minutes by the watch.

[The witness here examined the drawing, and described the position much in the way it had been before represented, and then added,] She fainted twice in his arms.—Beggarrat sent vinegar to the executioner, to administer to her in this situation. There was no advocate appointed to attend on her behalf, and no surgeon to assist her. No one but a negro belonging to Bullo the gaoler, to pull the rope. As soon as she was taken down, she was put into the *grillos*. The witness had seen her sister bring her visitors, but never noticed the admission of her sister or her friend into the gaol. The witness had been four or five years in the post of alguazil. He never knew the torture inflicted in the island until the arrival of the defendant. *There had been before no instrument for the purpose*.

*Don Juan Montes* said, that he was acquainted with the hand-writing of the defendant, and proved the document containing the order of the torture expressed in these

terms: "*Aplicase la question a Louisa Calderon*. (Signed) THOMAS PICTON."

After some observations from Mr. Dallas, which were answered by Mr. Garraw, the lord chief justice ruled, that the application of the *alcalde Beggarrat*, which led to the issue of this order, should be read. Mr. Lowten then read the representation of this officer, advising that slight torture should be applied, stating that his own authority was incompetent to do it, without the orders of the governor, and giving the result of the proceedings, in the course of the examinations Louisa Calderon had undergone. The instrument was countersigned by Francisco de Castro.

Mr. Harrison now proceeded with the testimony of Don Juan Montes, who said he had known the island of Trinidad since 1793; that the torture was never introduced until after the conquest of the island, and was then practised by order of the defendant.

Mr. Dallas, for the defendant, rested his defence upon the following statements:—1st. By the law of Spain, in the present instance, torture was directed; and, being bound to administer that law, he was justified in its application. 2dly. The order for the torture, if not unlawfully, was not maliciously, issued. 3dly. If it were unlawful, yet, if the order were erroneously or mistakenly issued, it is a complete answer to a criminal charge.—The learned counsel entered at considerable length into these positions, during which he compared the law of Spain, as it prevailed in Trinidad, with the law of England as it subsisted in some of our own islands; and he contended, that the conduct of general Picton was gentleness and humanity, compared to what might be practised with impunity under the authority of the British government. After a long interlocutory discussion, several items of the examination taken on the island, for the purpose of this cause, were read by the clerk of the court. The next testimony adduced was that of Mr. Gloucester, the attorney-general of his majesty in the island, who deposed to the authenticity of several books on the laws of the island, among which were the *Erizondo*, the *Curia Philippica*, the *Bobadilla*, the *Colom*, and the *Recopilacion de Leyes*. Various passages in these books were then referred to, and translated, for the purpose of showing that torture was not only permitted in certain cases, but in the particular instance before the jury.

On the part of the prosecution, Don Pedro de Vargas was then called to contradict these authorities. He said that he had studied the law of the West-India Islands under the dominion of Spain seven years, and that he had practised it two years. In the course of his enquiries and experience, he had never known any book of authority cited to justify the application of torture. It was true, an ancient edict, as early as the year 1260, mentioning torture, had been referred to by some learned persons in colonial law; but this authority had long been considered obsolete and nugatory, so that nothing now remained either to support the principle or the practice. After the cross-examination of this witness.

Lord Ellenborough. "The single question for your consideration is, Whether, by the Spanish laws observed in Trinidad, the defendant was justified in inflicting torture upon the prosecutrix? I would advise you by all means to divest yourselves of every thing that may inflame your minds, so that you may give impartial attention to the present case. The inquiry for you to make is, What was the subsisting law by which Trinidad, at the time it was taken by sir Ralph Abercrombie, was governed? The various authorities upon the subject of the distribution of justice in Spanish courts do not mention the infliction of torture; and therefore the right of applying it, if it can be applied at all, must depend upon authorities before us, or upon the jurisdiction of the judge. Depositions of witnesses have been read, who have known the island for 32 years, and one of them was born there, and swears torture was never administered. Mr. Nugent also



says, he knew Trinidad for twenty years, and never saw the torture inflicted, or had ever seen the instruments; and therefore it is absolutely without any proof to support it. Mr. Gloucester speaks to books of authority, which he stated to be in use when he was in the island; but the existence and reference to them can certainly not extend beyond the period when he himself was acquainted with them." His lordship, having made some farther observations respecting the different authorities produced, concluded as follows:—"The question, then, resolves itself into this, viz. Whether, in the absence of usage for 32 years, you will infer that the law of Old Spain is necessarily involved that of Trinidad, as to induce you to believe, that, as the practice of torture is allowed by the one, it is also by the other. If you are of opinion that it does, you will be so good as to say so, that it may be inserted in the special verdict; if not, you will find the defendant generally guilty."

The jury immediately returned, "That they were of opinion that no such law did exist which would authorise the defendant in inflicting the torture;" in consequence of which general Picton was found *Guilty of every charge*.—A new trial was afterwards granted; and this judgment was reversed.

But this was not the only accusation brought against the governor of Trinidad by colonel Fullarton. In the colonel's printed "Statement, which was submitted to the consideration of the Lords of his Majesty's most honourable Privy Council," the following charges, military and criminal, are stated.

*Military Charges*.—1. For issuing orders, after the 12th of February, 1803, directing the military officers under his command to refuse all aid and protection to the civil government, and to the inhabitants of Trinidad.

2. For unlawful endeavours to intimidate persons supposed capable of giving evidence or information in support of the charges exhibited against him; in particular, for employing black soldiers belonging to the 9th or 12th West-India regiments, in his majesty's service, to seize and imprison in the common gaol, Joseph Timbrel, esq. surgeon to the royal artillery, because he declined answering questions, respecting a declaration imputed to him on the subject of Hugh Gallagher, a soldier belonging to the royal artillery, who was hanged at Port of Spain in the month of May, 1797, by order of governor Picton, *without any form of trial*.

3. For employing officers and soldiers in his majesty's service to assist in directing or applying torture to different persons.

4. For employing soldiers on his own estate, and for his own advantage, when their services were requisite in garrison, or with their corps.

5. For granting to Mrs. Rosetta Smith, a woman of colour, who lived with him, a contract for supplying the soldiers barracks with wood, and other articles.

6. For illegally employing soldiers to seize and eject from the estate of Orange-Grove, John Dawson, esq.

7. For illegally employing soldiers to eject from her own house, Mrs. Griffith and her three daughters; and for putting Mrs. Rosetta Smith, who lived with him, in possession of Mrs. Griffith's property, by means of military force.

8. For illegally employing soldiers and others, *without any form or specification of offence*, to seize and drag to prison, and to detain in an ignominious manner, the following persons: Messrs. Higham, Redhead, Rutherford, Bradshaw, Minchin, Hargrove, Sullivan, Dubois, Savignon, D'Espina, Dowding, and many others: directly violating, by military force, all forms of civil judicature established by the capitulation, and granted to the colony under his majesty's authority.

9. For violating the king's civil government, by issuing a proclamation on the 27th of April, 1803, declaring the first commissioner (Col. Fullarton) to be no longer considered as officiating in his public situation, and by direct-

ing, as commandant of the troops, that all military as well as civil persons should conduct themselves accordingly.

10. For disobeying the orders of the king, dated the 23d of April, 1803; and for preparation of military force and actual resistance to his majesty's civil government, and to the first commissioner, on his return to Port of Spain, on the 6th of June, 1803, at a time when B. G. Picton held no civil authority, but still continued as military commandant until the 14th of June, when he was removed by order of Gen. Grinfield.

11. For numerous misrepresentations, transmitted to the colonial department, and to other public offices, in a manner unbecoming the character of an officer and a gentleman, with a view of attempting to repel the serious charges which had been preferred against him.

*Criminal Charges*.—1. The case of *Hugh Gallagher*, who was hanged without any trial, by order of governor Picton, on the 27th or 28th of May, 1797, upon the mere assertion, without oath, that he had robbed and ill-treated a negro woman. The chief-justice Nihell, to whom this woman first complained, considered, *from her own story*, that it was so trifling and ludicrous, that he took no other notice of it (the man being a soldier also), but sent her to colonel Picton, whom he thought would be amused at such a complaint from a negro-woman, as they are, on the contrary, the continual pests of the barracks; never imagining more could happen than confinement to the guard-room; but to his horror and surprise, he found, in his afternoon's walk, this untried folder hanging from the gallows.

When this poor fellow was ordered for execution, he innocently laughed, thinking that the *threat* alone was to be his punishment; nor would he believe it possible that he really was to be hanged, until, upon supplicating the governor to be heard, he was forbidden; and, upon asserting his innocence, the governor told him "he was going to hell with a lie in his mouth," and ordered his immediate execution, to the great dismay and distress of the British merchants and numerous other spectators. This poor man would have been proved innocent if he had been tried, as his comrade *Kenny*, who was one of the party when this negro-woman was met by them, acknowledged, on his death-bed, the innocence of Hugh Gallagher, owning himself to be the person blameable, as far as there was any crime. Gallagher's alleged fault was not mutiny, or desertion, or disobedience; and, therefore, precipitate execution was inexcusable; and to inflict death without trial was still more so.

2. The case of *Jean Baptiste Richard*. All that was alleged against him was, that two passengers, who came from the Spanish Main in his boat, but who never received any punishment, were disaffected persons. This unfortunate man was executed without trial, leaving an aged mother, a wife, and three infants, to lament his fate; and, to add the more poignancy to their domestic affliction, the governor conducted the crippled and aged father-in-law, upon his crutches, into the gallery of the government-house, and there showed him the husband of his daughter suspended from the gallows!

3. *Goliath* is another case of a capital nature; his death was caused by being "cut up under the gallows," in conformity to the words of the threat of governor Picton, as sworn before the privy-council, by Mr. Dawson of Liverpool, the owner of this slave, and by Mr. Dawson, jun. The only fault alleged against this man was, that he was a *runaway*. None but the owner had a right to blame such a conduct, if it had been true; and, on the contrary, the owner declares against his being a *runaway*, for that he was only on the road coming from church; and the punishment, of which he died, was not for the negro's fault, but, as stated in the words of colonel Picton, because Mr. Dawson did not pay sixteen dollars for seizing this innocent negro, and conducting him to gaol.

4. *Pierre Warner*. He was the slave of Francis Macnamara and John Falkes, owners of the *Elcurial* estate;



no crime was alleged against this slave, but that he also was a runaway. This was also the business of the owners, and not of the governor; but Mr. Macnamara, like Mr. Dawson, was not beloved by colonel Piñton; and without prosecution, and against the wish of Mr. Macnamara, this slave's ears were cut off, when he was shortly after seized with violent spasms, his jaws being locked, and he died in less than an hour after the operation.

5. Alarcon was the fifth case before the privy-council. He was hanged by order of governor Piñton, in the spring of 1799, for an alleged crime upon the high seas, therefore at any rate not within the jurisdiction of colonel Piñton, who at all events hanged him without a trial, upon the voluntary declaration, made on oath, at Cariacou and Martinique, of the captain of a vessel, who, by his own confession, had killed and thrown overboard two of his crew, who he says, with Alarcon, mutinied, insulted him, and got drunk. The captain deposes, that he left Alarcon in gaol, at Cariacou, an English island, while he went to Martinique. Now it is clear, that a sailor could not be committed to gaol in an *English* island, but by regular process before a magistrate; and no magistrate would have enlarged him, or have sent him on-board again, if there had been sufficient ground upon which to try him for the crime alleged. His being allowed to leave the gaol, by this magistrate, was *prima facie* judicial evidence of the charge not being established before an *English* tribunal; for no English magistrate would commit or enlarge a prisoner at the mere desire of any man; but, after being thus sent away from Cariacou, not by any writ of *habeas corpus*, nor by any other legal authority, colonel Piñton, of his own will and pleasure, did what a British magistrate would not do; he hanged Alarcon without farther trial, and only upon the declaration of the captain, who, as before stated, had by his own story killed two of his seamen, and who therefore certainly had cause to apprehend the accusation of murder from Alarcon, who, by being thus illegally executed himself, was effectually prevented from accusing the man that had killed two of his shipmates; and who had in the mean time threatened to charge the captain with killing these people.

6. The sixth case is that of a *Guyacaree Indian*, who was shot without trial. The excuse for this execution was, that the boat (of which this Indian was patron, or captain, in the present voyage) had, in the previous voyage, when the owner was with the boat, carried away three German deserters to the Spanish Main. This Indian, therefore, knew nothing concerning the alleged crime, nor was it at any rate a capital offence. He was, however, put to the torture for a considerable time, and more than once; and, while being tortured, his life was repeatedly offered him if he would but accuse somebody of the crime so falsely laid to his charge; but he was not only innocent himself, but also ignorant who was guilty; and, though a false accusation of any body else would have saved his life, he suffered the torture to the last extremity, asserting his own innocence, and his total ignorance of the affair. No evidence did or could appear, to swear to any concern this man had had in the desertion of the soldiers; and yet colonel Piñton, who attended at the execution himself, finding this captain deny till the last all knowledge of the affair, told him, "Now I'll make you know that you carried them away;" and, waving his hand, the unfortunate Indian was immediately shot, and directly buried under the gallows. As the *Guyacaree* Indians are a distinguished race, the governor of Margarita interested himself in behalf of this poor fellow, and sent up a dispatch to a gentleman of Trinidad, with documents to show the innocence of, the poor sufferer, by proving that the man who was in fault had remained behind, instead of going back with the launch. But the colonel uttered some coarse expressions against the Spanish commandant, saying, he would hang him also, if he could get hold of him; and that the documents were of no consequence; since the man was already executed.

7. The seventh case substantiated by evidence before the privy-council, was the case of *Celestino*, whose only crime was getting drunk; and upon this occasion, in his drunken state, he made a disturbance about the door, and at length staggered into the house, of an old Spanish woman, called Perez, making a noise there. To get rid of him, she applied to the deputy commandant to turn him out; but, the drunken man being insolent, the deputy sought for assistance; and, not finding it at the commandant's house, applied at the barracks for some soldiers, who proceeded to the old woman's house, which, before their arrival, Celestino had left, and was found in the neighbouring house of a coloured woman. Celestino was put in the stocks, from whence he was sent by the commandant to town, with a letter to colonel Piñton, recommending him to send Celestino off the island as a troublesome person. The relations and associates of Celestino, well knowing the severity of colonel Piñton, apprehended the fatal consequences, and requested the master, for whom Celestino usually worked, to go to the governor and interfere in his behalf. This gentleman arose from his bed, to which he was confined by sickness, mounted his horse, and proceeded to town; the friends of Celestino anxiously hurrying thither in the mean time. But, in consequence of this gentleman's infirmity, he was tardy in getting ready, and slow in proceeding; and, having seven miles to ride, he could not travel with a rapidity equal to the promptness with which the governor executed his sentences; for, instead of Celestino's being banished at the request of the commandant, colonel Piñton had recourse to a less troublesome mode of getting rid of him; for the event was announced on the road to the horror-struck master, whose ears were assailed by the shrieks and lamentations rending the air from the returning friends of the departed Celestino, who was already hanged, and buried under the gallows.

These are the seven cases that were substantiated upon oath before the council, not by documents, but by *viva-voce* evidence, which has very generally spread itself abroad.

In addition to these cases, he was charged with the torture, mutilation, and death, of the following people, upon the absurd pretexes of *sorcery, divination, witchcraft*, and the *black art*, and poisoning by means of *charms*; viz. La Fortune, Ambinot, Louis Cæsar, La Rose, Pierre Francoise, Bougui, Leonard, Thisbe, Felix, Antoine, Louifson, Theoliste, Nicholas Julie, Manuël, Michel Gardon, Joseph Fautin; also for cruel severities inflicted on Benoit, Pyrame, Petit George, Serpent, Elizabeth, and Rachel, detained in prison under circumstances tantamount to torture, although upon their trials no evidence appeared to condemn them.

Fourteen German soldiers were executed in 1797 *without trial*—not for deserting, but only under the suspicion of attempting to desert.

One case must be added here, which was given in to the privy-council; but, only one evidence being present, nothing was done therein; another evidence arrived afterwards from Trinidad, who could prove all the facts of the case. Present, a negress belonging to Mr. Thomas Kenny, merchant, had been absent from her owner some time, but was brought in some months after the capture of the island. The governor, being at dinner at the time, Mr. Kenny put off his application till next morning; which, however, was too late, for she was hanged at sun-rise. No complaint was made from Mr. Kenny, the owner of this unfortunate slave; and no man had a right to rob him of his property, or the slave of her life, unless she had been charged and convicted of a capital crime; which was not the case.

All these charges were submitted to the privy-council; but the council did not advise his majesty to institute any proceedings thereon. Colonel Fullarton's death soon relieved Mr. Piñton from any farther accusations; and he has since (1808) been promoted to the rank of major-general, and created K. B. having served with distinction un-



der marquis Wellington. It is but justice to observe, that brigadier-gen. Picton received a high character for integrity and good government from some of the chief proprietors in the island of Trinidad, and from baron de Montalembert, general Maitland, and general Grinfield; and previous to that time he had distinguished himself in the most honourable manner.

On the 27th of February, 1806, the will of Mr. Pitt was proved by D. Adams and W. Huskisson, esquires; and is as follows, in three separate schedules: "I owe Sir Walter Farquhar one thousand guineas, from October 1805, as a professional debt. 12,000. with interest, from October 1801, to Mr. Long, Mr. Steele, lord Carrington, bishop of Lincoln, lord Camden, Mr. Joseph Smith; and I earnestly request their acceptance of it. I wish, if means can be found for it, of paying double the wages to all my servants who were with me at my decease. I wish my brother, with the bishop of Lincoln, to look over my papers, and to settle my affairs. *I owe more than I can leave behind me.* W. PITT."—As this last circumstance was pretty well known, 40,000l. had been voted by parliament (Feb. 3.) for the payment of his debts. A monument was voted also to be erected in Westminster-abbey, which is at length completed, and stuck up over the inside of the west door. Whether the principal figure resembles Mr. Pitt, very few persons can tell; for it is impossible to distinguish the face except when the sun shines in a particular direction, which is not for more than two hours in a day; and, as for the attitude, it appears to be addressing some persons over and beyond the top of the organ.

In the month of March, the public interest was much excited by the trial of Richard Patch, who was indicted for the murder of Isaac Blight, a ship-broker, at Deptford. Although none but circumstantial evidence could be produced, he was found guilty. The jury and the public were satisfied with the sentence; yet, had a full confession of his guilt been wrung from him by the exertions made for that purpose, his apparent contrition would have entitled him to some commiseration; but, in the multitude which attended his execution, only one sentiment, that of abhorrence at his guilt, seemed to prevail. He was about thirty-eight years of age, and of a fullen disposition. Mr. Blight was his benefactor and friend; and no reason wherefore he perpetrated the foul deed could be ascertained.

The following circumstance is worthy the attention of the reader.—In 1724, Mr. Samuel Travers inserted in his will the following clause: "I will and bequeath a sufficient sum of money to purchase and erect, in St. James's Square, an equestrian statue in brass to the glorious memory of my master, king William the Third." In the subsequent year (1725) an act of parliament was passed for adorning the said square; but the bequest appears to have been totally forgotten, until the money was found this year (1806) in the list of unclaimed dividends. The matter has been seriously taken in hand since this discovery, and the noble square has received this its additional ornament from the well-tried hand of Mr. Bacon. The equestrian statue did not, however, meet the general approbation; as several criticisms appeared in the public prints pointing out defects in this piece of foundery.

The pen of the historiographer shudders in recording that, on the 22d of May, the Rev. Mr. Wood, second master of St. Paul's school, put a period to his existence by hanging himself.—At Brompton, after a short illness, died Mr. Palmer, aged 44 years. He was a man of uncommon corpulency, and was induced, about three weeks before, to go to London, in order to see that prodigy of bulk and fatness, Mr. Lambert. Mr. Palmer weighed about twenty-five stone, or 350 pounds; and although five men, of moderate size, have been buttoned in his waistcoat, he was comparatively diminutive size when placed by the side of Lambert. The windows of the room were obliged to be taken out in order to admit of the corpse being got out of the house; from which to the place of inter-

ment it was carried in a waggon, as no hearse could be procured which would have been sufficiently capacious to admit the coffin into it. See LAMBERT, vol. xii. p. 98, 9.

The destruction and temporary disappearance of the Key, a noted house of bad fame, happened on the 5th of June. This house was a bagnio of a very fashionable kind, and the most frequented of any in the metropolis. The following circumstances came out before the coroner's jury, sitting on the body of a gentleman who perished in the flames. The waiter stated, that the deceased, with a lady, came to the house at twelve at night, on the 4th of June; the gentleman appeared to be very much inebriated; and, after having been a short time in the house, supper was served up in a bed-room. After the cloth had been cleared, the gentleman said he should go; but the bell rang soon after, for the chambermaid to assist in undressing the lady. The deceased, on the maid's entering the room, was lying prostrate on the floor, by the bed-side. The chambermaid left the room at a quarter before three o'clock; and, a quarter after three, witness heard a violent screaming. He repaired to the landing-place on the first floor, where the lady, in her *chemise* only, was standing with a candle, the bed-room being in one entire blaze. She begged of the witness to save the gentleman; but the flames issued so rapidly from the room, that he durst not attempt to enter. The house was divided; and in that part where the fire broke out, none but the deceased and his companion slept, except a domestic in the attic story. It was some time before the other part of the house caught fire; and consequently the other companies had time for flight.

Jane Devaynes (who stated her name to be so, but who had for several years been known about the theatres by the names of Kemble and Stirling) stated, that she was the lady in company with the deceased at the Key. Her first acquaintance with him was accidental, on Whit-Monday last; since which time he had almost daily visited her, at her apartments in York-street, Marybone. He came to her residence at ten o'clock at night, on the 4th inst. and was then inebriated. He insisted on sending for three bottles of wine, one of which was drunk; witness had put the other two on her side-board, thinking her companion had had enough. In the evening, they took a coach, and repaired to the Key, which house, the deceased said, he was well acquainted with. She then related the circumstances of her going to bed, and being alarmed, as described by the waiter. Witness said she knew nothing of the deceased's name, nor where he lived. He had a great deal of paper property about him, which he had shown to her in the evening. She always considered him to be a clergyman. Mrs. Clark (the late hostess of the Key) only knew the deceased personally. There being no further evidence to throw any light upon the subject, the jury returned a verdict of *Accidental death*.—It has been since stated, and it is feared with too much truth, that the gentleman who was thus burnt to death was a Mr. Garner, who kept an academy in Brompton-row, on the high road leading to Fulham. Mr. Garner was a widower, and, it is said, had paid his addresses to a young lady of considerable pecuniary expectations; but, meeting with a repulse, it is supposed that the disappointment affected his intellects, as his subsequent conduct evinced symptoms of derangement.

The administration evinced at this period an indefatigable attention to correct abuses, remedy evils, and bring into the whole system more wholesome regulations.—Mr. Windham distinguished himself by introducing a bill for enlisting soldiers for a limited time only; an excellent measure, but which we lament to say has since been rendered almost nugatory. Several other acts were also passed; among which the property-tax bill began to undermine the popularity of the new ministers.

On the 4th of July, a singular robbery was discovered to have been committed in the British Museum. A person who had been in the habit of visiting that place for

upwards.



upwards of a year, had stolen, at different times, from the portfolios, a number of scarce and valuable engravings, by the Dutch masters, to the value of 1500*l*. He sold them to printfellers. A committee investigated the particulars of the robbery, and came to a resolution that Mr. Dighton, who was charged with being concerned in taking the valuable articles, should not be prosecuted, on condition that he restored the whole of the property that was missing. Mr. Beloe, in whose department it happened, was dismissed for negligence.

On the 11th of July, at a session of the Court of Admiralty, held at the Old Bailey, Acow, a Chinese sailor, was indicted for the wilful murder of another Chinese, of the name of Anguin, on the 24th of May, on-board the East-India ship Travers, on her voyage home, near the Azores. The principal evidence was Robert Oliver, second mate of the ship, who stated, that on the 24th of May last, between two and three o'clock in the morning, as he was on watch, he heard a person moaning in great distress; he called up two men, who, on going below, cried out, "O God! a man is murdered!" Others came up, who saw the prisoner standing with a knife in his hand, which was covered with blood: the deceased was lying near him. The prisoner made no resistance; but, when they took him into custody, he said, "Me kill Anguin—Anguin tell me lie—China fashion—me kill Anguin, me kill Anguin—you hang me." The head was nearly severed from the body. There were two mortal stabs, one of which had penetrated the heart, the other the loins. There were in all nine wounds. The other witnesses corroborated this account. It did not appear that the prisoner and the deceased had any quarrel on-board, but they had some dispute on-shore. The prisoner, by his interpreter, said he must be hanged by the English law, and did not desire to live; he said he cut the man's head off.—The jury having found him guilty, Sir W. Scott pronounced sentence of death upon the prisoner, who seemed to be but little concerned at it. He was hanged at Execution Dock.

On the same day, a tremendous storm of thunder, lightning, and rain, commenced at eight o'clock in the morning in the metropolis, and lasted till eleven, without intermission. It excited universal terror. The lightning entered a house under repair in East-street, Manchester-square; the blaze was so violent, that every one apprehended that the whole house was on fire; but no injury was sustained, except the breaking of a few panes of glass. Two persons, in the house adjoining, were struck with the lightning. A ball of fire fell into the area of the lottery-office, in Somerset Place; it forced open the door, and drove Mr. Pearce, the secretary, who was standing at the window, with a person who was with him, to the opposite side of the room. Another ball fell in the Thames, opposite Arundel-street.—In the country its effects were fatal. On the north-east side of Harrow-Weald Common, near Stanmore, Middlesex, a thatched hovel, where thirteen persons, of both sexes, had taken shelter, was set on fire by the lightning; and a woman, with a child at her breast, was killed, whilst the infant miraculously escaped. At Portsmouth, about half past ten, the brig William, captain Denning, from London, bound to Jamaica, coming into St. Helen's, was destroyed by the lightning, which struck the head of the maintop-gallant-mast, passed through that, down the top-mast, main-mast, and pierced the decks into the hold, where it set the cargo on fire. The captain and crew escaped. At Deal the lightning was very vivid and quick; it struck the maintop-gallant-mast of his majesty's bomb Prospero, shivered to pieces the top-mast, and damaged the main-mast; one man was killed, and several other of the people were knocked down, but recovered. A corn-mill, belonging to Mr. John Croft, of Caistor, Lincolnshire, was much damaged, and a boy in the mill killed, by the lightning. Nine sheep, belonging to Mr. Sibsey, of Basingham, near Carlton le Moorland, were also killed. At Gainsborough, there was a very uncommon fall of rain, accompanied with loud claps of thun-

der, and vivid flashes of lightning. Three pigs were struck dead at Morton; and two fine horses, in a close near Lea, were killed. At Peterborough it was extremely violent, and the inhabitants were much alarmed by a fire-ball bursting in the market-place. In Rutland, at Ashwell, a hay-stack, belonging to Mr. Chamberlain, was burnt. At Langham, Mr. Sherrard had a sheep killed, and a cow belonging to Mr. Ellicot was also killed, by the lightning. The hail came so violent at Teigh, as to break many windows. A boat belonging to the Sheerness tender, lying in Hull Roads, was sent to Sunk Island, with seven hands, to bring on-board lieutenant and Mrs. Fox. Between nine and ten they had proceeded but a short distance from the shore, when W. Mazarello, the cockswain, aged about nineteen, standing erect, was struck dead by the lightning, and fell overboard. Mr. and Mrs. Fox were much stunned; and the rest, except one man, were all struck down, but soon recovered. The body of Mazarello was soon afterwards picked up: his clothes were burned to rags, and the case of his watch was melted. The old blockhouse-mill, at Hull, was struck by the lightning, and one of the main timbers split. William Curtis, labourer, of Patrington, was next day found dead in a field near that town, having, it is supposed, experienced the fatal effects of the lightning: the hoe with which he was at work is supposed to have operated as a conductor. Near Exeter the effects were extraordinary; in Moreton church-yard, the earth was torn from several graves, and human skulls thrown to a considerable distance; and, near Bow, about fifty trees were cut in two, as if done with a saw. The report of the thunder was like that of artillery fired in regular succession. About two, the inhabitants of Ipswich were much alarmed, as the crashes of thunder shook many houses; and at the hill-barracks it was still more awful, as the electric fluid communicated with a range of stables, and struck down nine horses, two of which were killed. The stables were also set on fire, but it was soon extinguished. Near twenty persons were struck down by the lightning, but none killed. A barn, at Framlingham, belonging to S. Kilderbee, esq. of Ipswich, was burnt down by the lightning. The storm was truly awful in Birmingham and its neighbourhood. The lightning split the crane at the canal-office in that town. Its effects in the country adjoining were dreadful. A man was killed by the lightning at Telford. At Dumfries the peals were loud, and the flashes uncommonly vivid. The lightning struck the house of James Kirk, at Mains Riddell, Colvend, shattered the chimney-head, and, descending the chimney, broke the hearth-stone to pieces. Two cows were killed by the lightning, while grazing in a field near Ecclefechan.

On the 2d of August, at the Sussex assizes, which were held at Lewes, the following cause (for *cruelty to a dog*) came on: Hicks *v.* Collard. The declaration set forth, that the plaintiff had a valuable dog; that the defendant beat him, and rubbed his sides with a caustic liquid; in consequence of which it became necessary to destroy the animal. To this the defendant had pleaded, that the dog trespassed upon his premises, and that he beat him to keep him away. The plaintiff was a stable-keeper at Brighton, and the animal was his yard-dog. The defendant was a druggist and chemist, who had a bitch in his house, to which the dog paid occasional visits. In one of those visits the defendant secured the dog, most cruelly poured on him oil of vitriol, and turned him out. In the course of the next day, it corroded the flank of the poor creature until his bowels actually dropped out, and it became necessary to put the animal out of its misery. It was stated in confirmation by a witness, that the morning after the liquid had been applied, about five o'clock, he first saw the dog; it was then running about the yard in great agony. The hair on the back was hard, as if burnt; but on the sides, where the dog had licked himself, the flesh was torn away, and there was but a thin skin between that and the bowels. The tongue of the animal, by licking



itself, was burnt as hard as a coal, and was so stiff that it appeared as if it had been bent. About twelve o'clock, the skin on the flank was eaten in holes, and the bowels dropped out on the ground. In this state they shot the dog. Two other witnesses proved to the same effect. At the conclusion of the examination of witnesses, the judge (baron Macdonald) observed, that his feelings had been so deeply lacerated by what he had heard, that he could not recapitulate the evidence. Such an act of wanton wickedness and cruelty, he said, he had never before heard of, and he hoped that he never should again. He regretted that the law would not permit him to punish such a miscreant as he deserved; but advised the jury to give the most ample damages that the law would allow. The damages were only laid at five guineas, the value of the dog, consequently the jury could give no more. Five guineas were therefore awarded.—We have related this trial at full length, in order to impress upon the minds of our fellow-citizens in the metropolis, the distress and horror we feel every day when we witness the cruelties which are exercised upon dumb animals in the streets of a town, the capital of a nation which knows no equal for tenderness of feeling and general humanity.

The Stock Exchange has often been, and will most likely be in future times, as it is now, the scene of imposition and fraud.—On the 20th of this month, (being settling-day,) a most atrocious specimen of that sort of nefarious transaction was played off by a foreign Jew, of the name of Joseph Elkin Daniels, who had for a long time been a conspicuous character in the alley. Finding that, in consequence of the great fluctuation of omnium, he was not able to pay for all that he had purchased at an advanced price, he hit upon a scheme to pocket an enormous sum of money, and with which he decamped: 31,000*l.* omnium was tendered to him in the course of the day; in payment for which he gave drafts on his bankers, amounting to 26,816*l.* 5*s.* which were paid into the respective bankers of those who had received them, to clear in the afternoon. Having gained possession of the omnium, he sold it through the medium of a respectable broker, received drafts for it, which he cleared immediately, and set off with the produce. On his drafts being presented, payment was refused, he having no effects at the bankers'.

On the 12th of September died lord Thurlow, a profound lawyer, a powerful orator, a dignified judge, and an independent statesman. See the article HERALDRY, vol. ix. p. 581, 2.—On the following day died Mr. Fox, one of those worthies who are born for the honour of Great Britain and the admiration of Europe.

Mr. Fox had received from nature an uncommon vigour of constitution; and, notwithstanding the irregularities of his youth, he had enjoyed uninterrupted health till about two years before his death, when the seeds of the disorder, to which he fell afterwards a victim, were probably formed. Having, in the summer of 1804, made too free use of the waters of Cheltenham, he was soon after seized with a pain in his right side, which from its consequences was probably occasioned by an affection of the liver; and, though he soon got apparently well from that attack, he never enjoyed again his former health, but was subject to frequent invasions of a disorder of his bowels. In the beginning of 1806 he attended the funeral of lord Nelson; and, being then exposed for many hours to the cold, he was seized with a return of his complaint, and was never entirely free from it afterwards for any length of time. In this state of health he was called to take a principal part in the direction of his majesty's councils; and, besides his office of secretary of state for foreign affairs, he was prevailed upon to undertake the fatiguing duty of daily attendance in the house of commons, as leader in that assembly on the part of government. The labour and anxiety of these avocations probably accelerated the progress of his disease, and certainly prevented him from having recourse in time to the measures necessary for his

recovery. At length, about the middle of June, he became so seriously indisposed, that he was forced to discontinue his attendance in parliament. Symptoms of both general and local dropsy declared themselves; and, so rapid was the progress of his complaint, that, after the middle of July, though informed of every step taken by his colleagues in the negotiations with France, he could seldom be consulted by them on that or any other public measure, till they had been carried into effect. It was at length thought necessary by his physicians to have recourse to the usual operation for his relief, which was accordingly performed for the first time on the 7th of August, and repeated again on the 31st. After both operations he fell into a state of languor and depression; but his medical attendants never absolutely despaired of his case till Monday the 7th of September, when he sunk into an alarming state of lowness, in which he languished till the evening of Saturday the 13th, when he expired. He retained to the last his senses and understanding; and till a very short time before his death he continued to have confident hopes of his recovery. The cause of his death was ascertained to have been a scirrhus affection of the liver.

Thus died, within a few months after his illustrious rival, one of the most eminent statesmen and distinguished assertors of public freedom who has appeared in England. The most prominent feature of this great man's character was an ardent love of liberty, and generous detestation of cruelty, hypocrisy, and oppression. Never was his voice raised in defence of violence or injustice, nor his aid refused to any one who implored his assistance against oppression or persecution. But, while his heart was generous and forgiving, his understanding was of the highest order. To the other qualities of a great statesman and political leader, he added the rare endowment of a truly philosophical genius, which impelled him, in every subject that occupied his mind, to investigate its principles, and trace them in their consequences and effects. It was this turn of mind, which gave their peculiar value to his speeches in parliament. The quickness and clearness of his apprehension; the fulness and accuracy of his memory; the comprehensiveness of his views and reasonings; the acuteness and soundness of his logic; the sprightliness and pleasantry of his wit; the warmth and sincerity of his feelings; the simplicity, force, and variety, of his language; eminently qualified him for public debate; but it was to the general principles, unfolded and illustrated in his speeches, that they owed their distinguishing merit of being the best sources of constitutional knowledge, and the profoundest lessons of political and practical wisdom.

Mr. Fox was of the middle stature, and for many years had been much encumbered with corpulence and obesity. His complexion was very dark, his nose well formed, and his mouth, according to Lavater's system, expressive of good-nature and a love of pleasure. His eye-brows were not only remarkably thick and black, but were peculiarly shaped; not being arched, but rising upward at a considerable angle from the temples towards the middle of the forehead. The whole expression of his face and person has been said, by one of his panegyrists, to have formed a perfect specimen of the English character; but his dark beard and fallow complexion were by others thought to give him much the appearance of a native of a more southern climate. His countenance was manly, bold, and open; and the bust of him by Nollekens is grand and impressive. His temper was kind, and in private equable; his manners were the most affable and engaging; no one had more personal friends, and there never was a man whose friendships were more lasting, or whose enmities were less rooted.

Mr. Fox's funeral took place on Friday, Oct. 10. The procession was grand and simple; it was not a spectacle ordered by the state, conducted according to the etiquette of the Heralds' College; it was the spontaneous effusion of popular feeling; every thing that could favour of paganry



gaunty and ostentation was avoided, while every thing was done consistent with dignified simplicity. Never, on any such occasion, were seen so many persons of eminence freely and intimately mixing with the people of every class in the same expression of sorrow, and penetrated by the same sentiment of reverence. The absence of the prince of Wales was a disappointment to the people in general. It is, however, justice to his royal highness to say, that he came to town on purpose to pay the last tribute to his deceased friend; but he found that court-etiquette forbade his attendance at a private funeral. Lord Holland, therefore, was chief mourner.

The streets, through which the procession was to pass, were gravelled over; the passages leading into Pall-mall, Charing-cross, Parliament-street, &c. were fenced up by a temporary railing and gateways. The Royal Westminster, Col. Robertson; the Loyal City of Westminster, the Hon. Col. Eden; the St. James's, Col. Lord Amherst; the Royal York Mary-le-bone, Col. Lord Viscount Duncannon; the Prince of Wales's, Col. M. P. Andrews; the Loyal British Artificers, Col. Burton; and several other Corps of Volunteers; paraded at an early hour, and lined the streets quite from the Stable-yard to the Abbey. A band of music was stationed at St. James's Palace, one at Carleton House, one at the Admiralty, and one at the entrance of the Abbey, which played solemn airs as the procession passed. This was done in preference to their marching, as having less the appearance of pageantry.

At two o'clock the procession set out from the Stable-yard. It was nearly two miles in length, and moved amidst an awful silence, the truest mark of general grief and veneration. The hearse which bore the body presented a spectacle every-way appropriate to the dignity of the occasion. It was an open lofty carriage, of spacious dimensions; from the base or platform of which rose an oblong pyramidal altar, ascending by four steps covered at top by an arched canopy, supported by four pillars at the corners; the whole richly hung with black velvet, ornamented with the armorial escutcheons of the deceased; and the whole surmounted by a rich and superb plume of ostrich-feathers.—At the top of the altar was placed the body, in a coffin covered with black velvet, ornamented in a style of simple elegance, with silver gilt nails and escutcheon-plates.

Immediately after the hearse followed in mourning coaches, each drawn by six horses,

Lord HOLLAND, Chief Mourner, supported by Earl Fitzwilliam and Lord Howick.

Train-bearer, Mr. Trotter (Mr. Fox's Private Secretary.)  
*Pall-bearers.*

Lord Chancellor,	Earl of Thanet,
Duke of Norfolk,	Earl of Carlisle,
Duke of Devonshire,	Earl of Albemarle,

*Other Mourners in Coaches.*

Earl Spencer,	Earl Moira,
Lord Ellenborough,	Lord Henry Petty,
Lord Grenville,	Mr. Windham,
Lord Sidmouth,	Mr. T. Grenville.

*Mourners on Foot.*

Earl Cowper,	Mr. Byng,
Lord G. Cavendish,	Lord Wm. Russell,
Lord J. Townshend,	Lord R. Spencer,
Mr. Curran, M. R. I. A.	Solicitor General,
Mr. Whitbread,	Mr. Adam,
Mr. Sheridan,	Attorney General,
Lord Cholmondeley,	General Walpole,
Marquis of Hartington,	General Fitzpatrick,
Earl Percy,	Mr. Plumer,
Marquis of Tavistock,	Mr. W. Wynne,
Earl of Beborough,	Mr. Tierney,
Lord Duncannon,	Mr. Giles,
Earl of Jersey,	Mr. Fonblanque,
Earl of Barrymore,	Mr. Jervis,
Duke of Leinster,	Sir Thomas Miller,
Mr. W. Smith,	Dr. Parr.

It was impossible to obtain a correct list of the other nobility and members of the house of commons who attended on the occasion.

The whole proceeded up Pall-mall, down Cockspur-freet, Charing-cross, Whitehall, and to Westminster-Abbey, in very slow time; the trumpets sounding, at intervals, a solemn dirge; and the regimental bands, with muffled drums and fifes, alternately playing the Dead March in Saul, and the German Funeral Hymn. The procession did not reach the abbey until half past four; when it was received by the clergy, and conducted to the grave in the north transept, where the service was performed in the usual manner. The ceremony concluded soon after five o'clock; and the whole of the company and attendants then dispersed, as there was no return of the procession. The streets were immensely crowded; and the windows, and even the house-tops, throughout the whole line of progress, thronged with spectators.

At the period of Mr. Fox's death, the strength and popularity of the administration were much inferior to what they had been at the time of its accession to power. The country had expected from the talents and reputation of its members, either the restoration of peace, or a more successful prosecution of the war; and in both expectations it had been disappointed. It had looked to important reforms in public expenditure, and to a rigid inquiry into past malversations and abuses. It was not satisfied with the exertions of ministers in regard to the first; and, with respect to the second, its hopes had been grievously damped by the acquittal of lord Melville, which was very generally construed into a proof, either of weakness that was unable, or of connivance that was unwilling, to punish him. The coldness with which the prosecution of lord Wellesley was viewed by one part of the government, and the indecent warmth with which his defence was undertaken by another part, had disgusted and offended a numerous and respectable part of the community, to whom that nobleman was particularly obnoxious. The increase of the income-tax was universally felt; and the suppression of exemptions, however profitable to the exchequer, had added severely to its pressure on the poor and industrious. The additional allowance to the princes of the blood had made a great impression on the public mind, not on account of the magnitude of the sum, but because the proposal originated with those, whose professions of economy were still fresh in its recollection. The reform of the army was the justest claim to popularity, which the administration had yet to offer; but the art of their political opponents had contrived to represent its author as an enemy and contemner of the volunteers, and to excite against him, in the minds of that numerous and respectable body of men, feelings of general resentment and indignation. By similar arts, the American intercourse-bill, a measure which had no other fault but that of doing nothing, was represented to the shipping-interest as infallibly calculated for their destruction. In addition to these causes of unpopularity, the feeble and injudicious management of the patronage of government, by which the friends of administration had been disgusted, and its enemies encouraged without being conciliated, had weakened the usual influence of government, strengthened the jealousies and suspicions among its partisans, and excited the hopes and increased the boldness of its opponents. From the union of these causes there was a general spirit of discontent and dissatisfaction spread over the nation, at the moment when the death of Mr. Fox seemed to loosen the bonds that held together the different members of the administration.

So sensible was the opposition of the declining power and popularity of the ministry, that, during Mr. Fox's illness, some of its leaders are understood to have made private overtures to the court, for taking back the reins of government, which they had suffered to drop from their hands some months before. How these overtures, if actually made, were received, we are unable to communicate.



to our readers. That they were followed by no immediate effects, does not surprize us. It was still uncertain whether Mr. Fox might not recover; and, in case of his death, it is not improbable, that hopes were entertained of being able to form, without a struggle, a new administration, in which his friends would be left out. The account of his death was received at court with coldness and indifference; and such inquiries into the particulars of that event as curiosity dictated, were studiously addressed to those who, from the recentness of their connection with him, were the least likely to receive from them gratification, or consider them as marks of an interest in his fate. No haste was expressed to fill up the vacancy occasioned by his death. It was rather desired, that due consideration should precede the formation of the new ministerial arrangements which that event rendered necessary. But if expectations were harboured, that lord Grenville, on whom the suggestion of the new arrangements naturally devolved, would take this opportunity of separating from Mr. Fox's friends, they were completely disappointed. That nobleman seems, on the contrary, to have taken pains to show, that his attachment to his new associates had been strengthened, instead of being impaired, by their connection; and that even an event like this, which left him the choice of his future partners in the government, was insufficient to detach him from them. He recommended lord Howick to succeed Mr. Fox in the foreign office; Mr. Grenville to be first lord of the admiralty, in the place of lord Howick; Mr. Tierney to be president of the board of controul, in the place of Mr. Grenville, who had succeeded to that office, with a place in the cabinet, on the appointment of lord Minto to the government of Bengal; lord Sidmouth to succeed to the presidency of the council, from which lord Fitzwilliam, on account of bad health, was desirous to withdraw; and lord Holland to succeed lord Sidmouth as lord privy seal. In these appointments, it is worthy of remark, that lord Holland, the nephew of Mr. Fox, was the only new member brought into the cabinet. When these arrangements were submitted to his majesty, he was graciously pleased to acquiesce in them.

The new ministry found it necessary to dissolve the parliament; and the returns to the new one were such as greatly to add to the weight and influence of the friends of administration in the house of commons. The whig party, which had been driven out of the representation of Yorkshire in 1784, recovered one of the seats for that great and independent county. In Norfolk, after a hard-fought contest, both members returned were whigs. One of the seats for Liverpool was carried by the abolitionists against the traffickers in human flesh. But, on the other hand, a friend of administration was turned out of the representation of Southwark, and another lost the city of Norwich. Westminster was the scene of a most violent contest between a friend of government and a discontented whig; and one of the seats for Middlesex was lost to the popular party, by an attack of sir Francis Burdett on the memory of Mr. Fox.

Ireland enjoyed tranquillity during the greater part of the present year, under the mild and conciliatory government of the duke of Bedford. Towards the close of the year, disturbances broke out in the north-west of Ireland, occasioned by a banditti, who went about in the nighttime under the name of Threshers, committing every sort of crime and outrage. Strong applications were made to the viceroy, to have these disturbances put down by the insurrection-law, the usual remedy in Ireland on such occasions; but the duke of Bedford refused to have recourse, without necessity, to so violent a remedy; and, by proper use of the ordinary and regular authority of government, he succeeded in repressing and putting a stop to these excesses.

On the 24th of November, about six o'clock in the morning, the debtors confined in Newgate were alarmed by hearing something fall into the yard, and afterwards a faint groaning, as if from a person in distress. A turn-

key went into the debtors' yard, where he discovered the two men, who had been employed to watch at the top of the gaol during Sunday night, in a situation too shocking to describe. One of them, of the name of William Lee, had fallen upon an iron bar, which had taken off the top part of his skull, and dashed his brains out, which were scattered upon the pavement; the other, Robert Simpson, had, if possible, suffered a still more shocking death, for he had fallen upon some iron spikes, one of which entered the thick part of his thigh, and penetrated a considerable way into his body! The only possible mode of accounting for this melancholy accident is, that there is a small division at the top of the gaol, which they had to cross; and Simpson, the constant watchman, and who had been watchman at Newgate ever since it was built, had that night unfortunately left his lantern at home; and it is supposed that, in going round the gaol, they must have forgotten this division, and their miserable death was the consequence.

Some philosophers have divided the functions of the human mind into perception, judgment, memory, volition, &c. and others have classed them in different ways, according to their various ideas on the subject; but few, if any, have ever mentioned two modifications, or affections, which are nevertheless most prominent: namely, the prurient desire of knowing, or *curiosity*, and the unquenchable thirst after unmotivated belief, or *gullibility*; the latter being the natural consequence of the former. Not only in England, but in all the nations, the descriptions of which have come hitherto, in rotation, under our pen, we have had frequent occasion to remark how easy of belief is man in general, and how prone to acquiescence and blind devotion, whenever he loses sight of the unerring torch of dispassionate reason which Providence has placed before him, like the Pharos to guide the mariner. We have never found this propensity (we were going to call it a brutal appetite after the nauseous food of lies and deception) more strongly marked, more nefariously practised upon, more absurdly ridiculous, than in religious matters.—Conjurors, and Cock-lane ghosts, are but common tricks, and hackneyed hoaxes now—the stomach is low—the wonted appetite recedes, and wants stimulating—and this circumstance gave rise to the tremendous, yet harmless, prophecies of a Brothers; and to the monstrous spiritual pregnancies, and blasphemous abortions, of a Joanna Southcott. The modern enemies of revelation have often observed, with a triumphant sneer, that the heathen authors did never mention the life and miracles of Christ; and, by a negative argument, wish to destroy facts which the rest of the world had affirmed. It has been properly urged, in reply, that it was neither the business nor the interest of pagan writers to mention Jesus in their respective productions; and that, if they have done so, the raging jealousy and zeal of the heathens soon found ways of destroying these inimical evidences at a time when printing was unknown. However, lest the partisans of the prophets Joanna Southcott should suppose that we are actuated by the same invidious motives, we shall give our readers some interesting strictures upon the subject, and thus endeavour to raise a smile upon human extravagance, as a digression from the serious duties of the chronicler. The seal of secrecy shall not be pressed upon her fame, and she shall be held up on high for the admiration or scorn of the people. The account is taken from a work professedly translated from the Spanish, but with greater probability supposed to be an original English work.

In the early part of the thirteenth century there appeared an English virgin in Italy, beautiful and eloquent, who affirmed that the Holy Ghost was incarnate in her for the redemption of women; and she baptized women in the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of herself. Her body was carried to Milan, and burnt there. Joanna Southcott neither boasts of the charms of her forerunner, nor needs them. Instead of having an eye which can fascinate, and a tongue which can persuade to error by glos-



ing it with sweet discourse, she is old, vulgar, and illiterate. In all the innumerable volumes which she has sent into the world, there are not three connected sentences in sequence; and the language alike violates common sense and common syntax. Yet she has her followers among the educated classes, and even among the benefited clergy. "If Adam," she says, "had refused listening to a foolish ignorant woman at first, then man might refuse listening to a foolish ignorant woman at last;"—and the argument is admitted by her adherents. When we read in romance of enchanted fountains, they are described as flowing with such clear and sparkling waters as tempt the traveller to thirst; here, there may be a magic in the draught, but he who can taste of so foul a stream must previously have lost his senses. The filth and the abominations of demoniacal witchcraft are emblematical of such delusions; not the golden goblet and bewitching allurements of Circe and Armida.

This woman was born in Devonshire about the middle of the last century; and seems to have passed forty years of her life in honest industry, sometimes as a servant, at others working at the upholsterers' business, without any other symptom of a disordered intellect than that she was zealously attached to the methodists. She mentions in her books a preacher who frequented her master's house, and, according to her account, lived in habits of adultery with the wife, trying at the same time to debauch the daughter, while the husband vainly attempted to seduce Joanna herself. This preacher used to terrify all who heard him in prayer, and make them shriek out convulsively. He said that he had sometimes, at a meeting, made the whole congregation lie stiff upon the floor till he had got the evil spirits out of them; that there never was a man so highly favoured of God as himself; that he would not thank God to make him any thing, unless he made him greater than any man upon earth, and gave him power above all men; and he boasted, upon hearing the death of one who had censured him, that he had fasted and prayed three days and three nights, beseeching God to take vengeance upon that man, and send him to eternity. Where such impious bedlamites as this are allowed to walk abroad, it is not to be wondered at that madness should become epidemic. Joanna Southcott lived in a house which this man frequented, and where, notwithstanding his infamous life, his pretensions to supernatural gifts were acknowledged, and he was accustomed to preach and pray. The servants all stood in fear of him. She says, he had no power over her, but she used to think the room was full of spirits when he was in prayer; and he was so haunted that he never could sleep in a room by himself, for he said his wife came every night to trouble him. She was perplexed about him, fully believing that he wrought miracles, and wondering by what spirit he wrought them. After she became a prophetess herself, she discovered that this gentleman was the false prophet in the Revelations, who is to be taken with the Beast, and cast alive with him into a lake of burning brimstone.

Four persons have written to Joanna upon the subject of her pretended mission, each calling himself Christ! One Mr. Leach, a methodist preacher, told her to go to the Lord in his name, and tell the Lord that he said her writings were inspired by the devil. These circumstances show how commonly delusion, blasphemy, and madness, are to be found in this country, and may lessen our wonder at the phrensy of Joanna and her followers. Her own career began humbly, with prophecies concerning the weather, such as the popular English almanacs contain; and threats concerning the fate of Europe, and the successes of the French, which were at that time the speculations of every newspaper, and of every alehouse politician. Some of these guesses having chanced to be right, the women of the family in which she then worked at the upholstering business, began to lend ear to her; and she ventured to submit her papers to the judgment of one Mr. Pomeroy,

the clergyman whose church she attended in Exeter. He listened to her with timid curiosity, rather wanting courage than credulity to become her disciple; received from her certain sealed prophecies which were at some future time to be opened, when, as it would be seen that they had been accomplished, they would prove the truth of her inspiration; and sanctioned, or seemed to sanction, her design of publishing her call to the world. But in this publication his own name appeared, and that in such a manner as plainly to imply, that, if he had not encouraged her to print, he had not endeavoured to prevent her from so doing. His eyes were immediately opened to his own imprudence, whatever they may have been to the nature of her call; and he obtained her consent to insert an advertisement in the newspaper with her signature, stating that he had said it was the work of the devil. But here the parties are at issue: as the advertisement was worded, it signifies that the clergyman always said her calling was from the devil; on the other hand, Joanna and her witnesses protest that what she had signed was merely an acknowledgment that he had said, after her book was printed, the devil had instigated her to print his name in it. This would not be worthy of mention, if it were not for the very extraordinary situation into which this gentleman has brought himself. Wishing to be clear of the connection in which he had so unluckily engaged, he burnt the sealed papers which had been intrusted to his care. From that time all the Joannians, who are now no inconsiderable number, regard him as the arch-apostate. He is the Jehoiakim who burnt Jeremiah's roll of prophecies; he is their Judas Iscariot, a second Lucifer, son of the Morning. They call upon him to produce these prophecies, which she boldly asserts, and they implicitly believe, have all been fulfilled, and therefore would convince the world of the truth of her mission. In vain does Mr. Pomeroy answer that he has burnt these unhappy papers:—in an unhappy hour for himself did he burn them! day after day long letters are dispatched to him, sometimes from Joanna herself, sometimes from her brother, sometimes from one of her four-and-twenty elders, filled with exhortation, invective, texts of scripture, and denunciations of the law in this world, and the devil in the next; and these letters the prophetess prints, for this very sufficient reason—that all her believers purchase them. Mr. Pomeroy sometimes treats them with contempt; at other times he appeals to their compassion, and beseeches them, if they have any bowels of Christian charity, to have compassion on him and let him rest, and no longer add to the inconceivable and irreparable injuries which they have already occasioned him. If he is silent, no matter; on they go, printing copies of all which they write; and, when he is worried into replying, his answers also serve to swell Joanna's books. In this manner is this poor man, because he has recovered his senses, persecuted by a crazy prophetess, and her four-and-twenty crazy elders, who seem determined not to desist, till, one way or other, they have made him as ripe for Bedlam as they are themselves.

The books which she sends into the world are written partly in prose, partly in rhyme, all the verse and the greater part of the prose being delivered in the character of the Almighty! It is not possible to convey an adequate idea of this unparalleled and unimaginable nonsense by any other means than literal transcript. Her handwriting was illegibly bad; so that at last she found it convenient to receive orders to throw away the pen, and deliver her oracles orally; and the words flow from her faster than her scribes can write them down. This may be well believed, for they are words and nothing else: a mere rhapsody of texts, vulgar dreams and vulgar interpretations, vulgar types and vulgar applications:—the vilest string of words in the vilest doggerel verse, which has no other connection than what the vilest rhymes have suggested, she vents, and her followers receive, as she dictates.



of immediate inspiration. A herd, however, was ready to devour this garbage as the bread of life. Credulity and Vanity are foul feeders.

The clergy in her own neighbourhood were invited by her, by private letters, to examine her claims, but they treated her invitations with contempt; the bishop also did not choose to interfere;—of what avail, indeed, would it have been to have examined her, when they had no power to silence her blasphemies! She found believers at a distance. Seven men came from different parts of the country to examine—that is—to believe in her; these were her seven stars; and when at another time seven more arrived upon the same wise errand, she observed, in allusion to one of those vulgar sayings from which all her allusions are drawn, that her seven stars were come to fourteen. Among these early believers were three clergymen, one of them a man of fashion, fortune, and noble family. It is not unlikely that the woman at first suspected the state of her own intellects: her letters appear to indicate this; they express an humble submission to wiser judgments than her own; and, could she have breathed the first thoughts of delusion into the ear of some pious confessor, it is more than probable that she would have soon acknowledged her error at his feet, and the phrensy which has now infected thousands would have been cut off on its first appearance. But, when she found that persons into whose society nothing else could have elevated her, listened to her with reverence, believed all her ravings, and supplied her with means and money to spread them abroad, it is not to be wondered at if she went on more boldly;—the gainfulness of the trade soon silencing all doubts of the truth of her inspiration.

Some of her foremost adherents were veterans in credulity; they had been initiated in the mysteries of animal magnetism, had received spiritual circumcision from Brothers, and were thus doubly qualified for the part they were to act in this new drama of delusion. To accommodate them, Joanna confirmed the authenticity of this last fanatic's mission, and acknowledged him as King of the Hebrews,—but she dropt his whole mythology. Her heresy in its main part is not new. The opinion that redemption extended to men only, and not to women, had been held by a Norman in the sixteenth century, as well as by the fair English heretic already mentioned. This man, in a book called *Virgo Veneta*, maintained that a female Redeemer was necessary for the daughters of Eve, and announced an old woman of Venice of his acquaintance as the Saviour of her sex. Bordonius, a century ago, broached even a worse heresy. In a work upon miracles, printed at Parma, he taught that women did not participate in the atonement, because they were of a different species from man, and were incapable of eternal life. Joanna and her followers are too ignorant to be acquainted with these her prototypes in blasphemy; and the whole merit of originality in her system must be allowed her, as indeed she has exceeded her forerunners in the audacity of her pretensions. She boldly asserts that she is the Woman in the Revelations, who has the moon under her feet, and on her head a crown of twelve stars; the twelve stars being her twelve apostles, who with the second dozen of believers make up her four-and-twenty elders. In her visitation it was told her, that the angels rejoiced at her birth, because she was born to deliver both men and angels from the insults of the devil. Let it be lawful for me to repeat these blasphemies, holding them up to merited abhorrence. The scheme of redemption, she says, is completed in her, and without her would be imperfect; by woman came the fall of man, by woman must come his redemption; woman plucked the evil fruit, and woman must pluck the good fruit; if the tree of knowledge was violated by Eve, the tree of life is reserved for Joanna. Eve was a bone from Adam; she is a bone from Christ, the second Adam. She is the bride, the promised seed who is to bruise the serpent's head; she it is who claims the promise made at the creation, that woman should be the

helpmate of man; and by her the Creator fulfils that promise, and acquits himself of the charge of having given to man the woman in vain. The evening-star was placed in the firmament to be her type. While she arrogates so much to herself, she is proportionately liberal to her followers; they have been appointed to the four-and-twenty elderships: and to one of them, when he died, a higher character was more blasphemously attributed; she assured his relations that he was gone to plead the promises before the Lord; that to him was to be given the key of the bottomless pit, and that the time was at hand when he should be seen descending in the air,—for they knew not the meaning of our Saviour's words when he said, "Ye shall see the Son of Man coming in the clouds, in power and great glory."

The immediate object of her call is to destroy the devil: of this the devil was aware; and, that it might not be said he had had foul play, a regular dispute of seven days was agreed on between him and Joanna, in which she was to be alone, and he to bring with him as many of the Powers of Darkness as he pleased: but he was not to appear visibly; for, as he did not choose to make his appearance on a former occasion when some of her elders went to give him the meeting, but had disappointed them, he was not to be permitted to manifest himself bodily now. The conditions were, that, if she held out with argument against him for seven days, the woman should be freed and he fall; but, if she yielded, Satan's kingdom was to stand, and a second fall of the human race would be the consequence. Accordingly, she went alone into a solitary house for this conference. Joanna was her own secretary upon this occasion, and the process-verbal of the conference has been printed, as literally taken down; for she was ordered to set down all his blasphemies, and show to the world what the language of hell is. It is by no means a polite language;—indeed the proficiency which Satan displays in the vulgar tongue is surprising.

Of all Joanna's books this is the most curious. Satan brought a friend with him, and they made up a story for themselves which has some ingenuity. "It is written," said they, "Be still, and know that I am God;" this still worship did not suit Satan; he was a lively cheerful spirit, full of mirth and gaiety, which the Lord could not bear, and therefore cast him out of heaven. This, according to Apollyon's account of heaven, could have been no great evil. "Thou knowest," he says, "it is written of God, he is a consuming fire, and who can dwell in everlasting burnings? Our backs are not brass, nor our sinews iron, to dwell with God in heaven." The heaven therefore which men mistakenly desire, is in its nature the very hell of which they are so much afraid; and it is sufficient proof of the truth of all this, that the devil invites them to make themselves happy and lead a gay life, agreeably to his own cheerful disposition; whereas religion enjoins self-denial, penitence, and all things which are contrary to our natural inclinations. Satan accounted to Joanna for her inspiration by this solution: an evil spirit had loved her from her youth up; he found there was no other access to her heart than by means of religion; and, being himself able to foresee future events, imparted this knowledge to her in the character of a good spirit. This spirit, he said, was one which she had been well acquainted with; it was that of one Mr. Follart, who had told her, if she would not have him for a husband, he should die for her sake; and he died accordingly. But this deception had now been carried so far, that Satan was angry, and threatened, unless she broke her seals and destroyed her writings, he would tear her in pieces.

The conference terminated like most theological disputes. Both parties grew warm. Apollyon interfered, and endeavoured to accommodate matters, but without effect, and Joanna talked Satan out of all patience. She gave him, as he truly complained, ten words for one, and allowed him no time to speak. All men, he said, were tired of her tongue already; and now she had tired the devil.



devil. This was not unreasonable; but he proceeded to abuse the whole sex, which would have been ungracious in any one, and in him was ungrateful. He said no man could tame a woman's tongue—the sands of an hour-glass did not run faster—it was better to dispute with a thousand men than with one woman. After this dispute she fasted forty days; but this fast, which is regarded by her believers as so miraculous, was merely a catholic lent, in which she abstained from fish and flesh.

The moon, which is under her feet in the Revelations, typifies the devil; for the moon, it seems, having power to give light by night but not by day, is Satan's kingdom, and his dwelling-place; he, I conclude, being the very person commonly called the man in the moon, a conjecture of my own, which, you must allow, is strongly confirmed by his horns. Once, when the Lord made her the same promise as Herod had done to Herodias, she requested that Satan might be cut off from the face of the earth, as John the Baptist had been. This petition she was instructed to write, and seal it with three seals, and carry it to the altar when she received the sacrament! and a promise was returned that it should be granted. Her dreams are usually of the devil. Once she saw him like a pig with his mouth tied; at another time skinned his face with her nails after a fierce battle; once she bit off his fingers, and thought the blood sweet—and once she dreamt she had fairly killed him. But neither has the promise of his destruction been as yet fulfilled, nor the dream accomplished.

This phrensy would have been speedily cured in our country, (Spain;) bread and water, a solitary cell, and a little wholesome discipline, are specifics in such cases. Mark the difference in England. No bishop interferes; she therefore boldly asserts that she has the full consent of the bishops to declare that her call is from God, because, having been called upon to disprove it, they keep silent. She, who was used to earn her daily bread by daily labour, is now taken into the houses of her wealthy believers, regarded as the most blessed among women, carried from one part of England to another, and treated every where with reverence little less than idolatry. Meantime, dictating hooks as fast as her scribes can write them down, she publishes them as fast as they are written; and the Joannians buy them as fast as they are published. Nor is this her only trade. The seals in the Revelations furnish her with a happy hint. She calls upon all persons “to sign their names for Christ's glorious and peaceable kingdom, to be established and to come upon earth, and his will to be done on earth as it is done in heaven, and for Satan's kingdom to be destroyed, which is the prayer and desire of Joanna Southcott.” They who sign this are to be sealed. Now if this temporal sealing, which is mentioned by St. John in the Revelations, had been understood before this time, men would have begun sealing themselves without the visitation of the Spirit; and, if she had not understood it and explained it now, it would have been more fatal for herself and for all mankind than the fall of Eve was. The mystery of sealing is this: whosoever signs his name receives a sealed letter containing these words: “The Sealed of the Lord, the Elect, Precious, Man's Redemption, to inherit the Tree of Life, to be made Heirs of God, and Joint-heirs with Jesus Christ. Signed *Joanna Southcott.*” I know not what the price of this initiation is; but she boasts of having sealed above eight thousand persons, so that the trade is a thriving one.

We shall conclude with a few flowers of infernal eloquence from *The Dispute with the Powers of Darkness*. Satan says to her, “Thou infamous b—ch! thou hast been flattering God, that he may stand thy friend. Such low cunning art I despise.—Thou weening devil! stop thy d—mn'd eternal tongue; thou runnest on so fast, all the devils in hell cannot keep up with thee.—God hath done something to choose a b—ch of a woman that will down-argue the devil, and scarce give him room to speak.”—It

may truly be said, in Joanna's own words, “*If the woman is not ashamed of herself, the devil cannot shame her.*”

Although Great Britain is separated from the rest of the continent by a small arm of the sea, she holds nevertheless a momentous preponderance in the scale of continental powers; and consequently the city of London, which is undoubtedly the heart of the united kingdom, whence the arteries and veins of commerce convey and bring back the treasures of the East and West;—whence the rays of knowledge in all sciences and arts diffuse themselves through the rest of the world;—and wherefrom, through the political ramifications of interest, she dictates laws, subsidises allies, and appals the enemies of the country with her frowns;—the city of London cannot but take an active part in the affairs of Europe, though she appears to repose in conscious security. Indeed, at all times, the word LONDON has been synonymous with that of ENGLAND; and, when the mind or the eyes of foreigners turn to the island of Albion, London is the spot they invariably fix upon. This wealthy and most populous metropolis being so intimately connected with the rest of the known world, all transactions militate for or against her, and therefore become part of her own history. Impelled by these considerations we have enlarged in this article upon the affairs of Europe, particularly when they have appeared directly or indirectly to affect the welfare of the city of London; and we request our readers to consider this article as a companion and supplement to those of ENGLAND, FRANCE, and GERMANY, in our 6th, 7th, and 8th, volumes.

The state of Europe in the beginning of the year 1807 was most critical. Every eye was fixed on the coasts of the Baltic: it was there that the destinies of Europe were to be decided, as they had been in former periods on those of the Mediterranean. The genius and the resources of the north were brought into conflict with those of the south. A mighty contest was to be decided between Alexander emperor of Russia, and the king of Prussia, on the one part, and, on the other, Bonaparte emperor of France and king of Italy. The latter derived support from the nations whom he had subdued or intimidated—Italy, Spain, Holland, and a great part of Germany: the former depended on the aid of Sweden, and the cordial and vigorous co-operation of Great Britain. There was another ally, more powerful than either of the two just mentioned, on which the Russians might, and no doubt did, reckon; namely, a rigorous climate, to which they themselves were inured, but which might prove fatal to soldiers from France, Spain, and Italy. The enemy too, in proportion as he should advance into Poland, or beyond it, would be drawn into difficulties and dangers on the line of his operations, in territories with the nature or ground of which he could not be well acquainted, and farther and farther removed from supplies and reinforcements. The Russians, on the contrary, would receive reinforcements and stores both by land and sea from Russia, Sweden, and England. The young and heroic king of Sweden, emulating his ancestor the great Gustavus Adolphus, with the aid both of a subsidy and troops from England, might march an army through Lower Saxony, from Dantzic and Colberg, as far as Hamburg. This army, augmented in its progress by insurgents, in Hesse, Hanover, and the Prussian dominions, might pass the Elbe, and establish a war in the centre of Germany; where, if he should be able to maintain himself for any length of time, he might reasonably expect to be joined by the Austrians. Such, it may be presumed, were the considerations that encouraged and determined the court of St. Petersburg to undertake and to persevere in the war with France. The battle of Pultusk, though bloody and obstinately contested, was indecisive; and it must be admitted that if the nations, on whose favour and co-operation the Russians depended, had understood and pursued their respective as well as their common interest, and harmoniously joined



in one well-concerted plan of action, their design might not have proved abortive.

It is, however, not physical but moral force that governs the world: bold conception, a just discrimination between difficulty and impossibility, profound combination, unity of design, promptitude and rapidity of action. It was not physical force, but sublime genius and an ascendancy over the minds of men, that gave energy and success to the measures of Alexander of Macedon, Hannibal, and Julius Cæsar. All great results spring from small, and at first imperceptible, origins; one constant impulsion, constantly and uniformly accelerating. In confederations there is generally something that misgives; something false and hollow. It is seldom even possible for the confederating parties to form, as emergencies arise, a concert of wills in time, and seldom so full that they submit without reserve to the will of one dictator. The fragility of confederations had been proved by three coalitions against the ruler of France; and the issue of a fourth was now to be added to the number.

The position and strength of the French and Russian armies, were threatening a most bloody conflict; and, after the battles of Jena, Bergfried, and Hoff, the great defeat at Eylau shook the continent, and rebounded to the very centre of London, by damping the hopes of trade, and raising new fears of the common enemy.

The character and result of this last battle seem to be exhibited with great candour in a letter written by a Russian officer of the army, three days afterwards. "Our army has performed prodigies of valour; though our loss has been very great. It is generally agreed, that it was a miracle we did not lose more; which is ascribed to the excellent discipline and order that prevailed even in the hottest of the action, and in the midst of such a fire as was never perhaps witnessed before. For these three days we have been enquiring of each other, on which side the victory lay. This question may appear singular; but in truth it is impossible for me to say which of the two armies fought with the greatest courage and obstinacy, and did the greatest mischief to the other." It is a very remarkable circumstance in the battle of Eylau, that there was little or no engagement between the infantry of the two armies. The battle was fought by the artillery and cavalry. The following day presented a horrid scene of dead and dying men: to bury all the dead, required immense labour. A great number of Russian slain, were found with the insignia of their orders. Forty-eight hours after the battle, there were still upwards of 5000 wounded Russians, whom the French had not been able to carry off. Brandy and bread were carried to them, and they were successively borne away to the *ambulance*, or train of carriages. On the space of a square league were seen 9 or 10,000 dead bodies; 4 or 5000 horses killed; whole lines of Russian knapsacks; broken pieces of muskets and sabres; the ground covered with cannonballs, howitzer-shells, and ammunition; twenty-four pieces of cannon, near which lay the bodies of their drivers, killed at the moment when they were endeavouring to carry them off. All this was the more conspicuous, as the ground was covered with snow. The 5000 wounded Russians were all conveyed in sledges to Thorn, and to the French hospitals on the left bank of the Vistula. The surgeons observed with astonishment, that the fatigue of this conveyance did no harm to the wounded. At the same time that marshal Davoust attacked the elevated ground, the possession of which was so warmly disputed, marshal Ney came round by Altorf, driving before him the same column which he had attacked at Deppen, and, in the evening, occupied the village of Schoneditton. The Russian general therefore, harassed on his flanks by Davoust and Ney, who threatened to cut off his rear-guard, ordered several battalions of grenadiers to make an attack on Schoneditton; which was accordingly done at eight o'clock at night, but without effect. The next day, (February 9,) the Russians were pursued as far as the ri-

ver Frischeling, while they retreated behind the Pregel. The French Gazette says in conclusion: "This expedition is ended. The enemy is beaten and driven back eighty leagues from the Vistula. The French army is going to return to its winter-quarters."

That the main body of the Russian army—not absolutely the whole, as will presently appear—was forced to fall back eighty leagues from the Vistula, is true; but it is also true that Bonaparte did not find himself in a condition, at this time, again to attack them, and hazard another battle. The Russian army, without any material loss, effected its retreat to Konigsberg. Bonaparte was now only a short distance from Konigsberg, a grand depository of the enemy. The steeples of this place, which had been held out as a rich prey to the French soldiers, were seen from the heights of Eylau. Nothing could have been more desirable than to take a place which would at once have been a most advantageous military position, furnished abundance of provisions and stores, and gratified the army by pillage. And that the reduction of Konigsberg was accordingly, in fact, his object, appears from a letter addressed to the empress Josephine, by Berthier prince of Neufchatel, the most confidential minister of Bonaparte, on the evening before the battle, dated at Great Glandau, 7th February: "At the approach of his imperial majesty, the Russian army fell back. On the evening of the 6th it had passed Landberg, with the intention of continuing a retreat during the night. The emperor, who commanded the advanced guard, ordered an attack on the rear of the Russians, which had been lately re-inforced. It was unable to resist the vigour of an attack conducted by his majesty in person. *To-morrow we shall be at Konigsberg.*" And an attempt on Konigsberg would, no doubt, have been made, if, after the battle of Eylau, Bonaparte had conceived that he possessed means for accomplishing his object. But this was, in truth, a drawn battle; and the severest check he had received since the commencement of his career, which was in Italy, in 1796.

It was not, however, without some degree of plausibility that both sides claimed the victory, or at least a discomfiture of the design of their opponents. It was the design of Bonaparte to take Konigsberg: he was forced to fall back on the Vistula. It was the design of the Russians to drive the French back beyond the Vistula, to retake Elbing and Thorn, and to force them to raise the sieges of Colberg, Graudenz, and Dantzic: by a series of successive actions, they had been driven back by the French as far as Eylau, and, on the day after the battle, beyond the Pregel. The French had buried the Russian dead; collected and taken care of the greatest part of their wounded; taken a number of their cannon dismounted in the action; and, finally, remained seven or eight days on the field of battle.

According to his usual policy, Bonaparte after this success made pacific overtures; but they were rejected, and the demon of war raged with new fury in the north of Germany upon the very frontiers of the Russian empire. The fall of Dantzic and Stralsund gave great advantages to Bonaparte; and the defeat of the Swedes seemed at one time to seal the slavery of Germany under the French emperor. But while Gustavus, who had come down to Stralsund after the French had left the place, was employed in reviewing and promoting his brave and loyal Swedes, he was himself not a little animated, it may be presumed, by the arrival at Stralsund of the English general Clinton, with assurances of speedy succours of all kinds from the British government, in the administration of which, there had been, on the 24th of March, a great change. The ministers of England, who were desirous, above all things, of peace, and who had been amused with a negotiation by Bonaparte until he was prepared to take the field at the close of September 1806, were exchanged for others, better disposed, it was generally imagined, to afford succour and co-operation with the confederacy against the tyranny, and still growing ambition, of the ruler of France.



On the 21st of January, 1807, the house of commons went into a committee of supply; and Mr. Windham moved the army-estimates; which, he said, with very few exceptions, were conformable to those of the last year. They were classed under 26 heads; namely,

	Number.	Charge.		
Guards, Garrisons, &c.	113795	£4051623	0	6
Forces in the Plantations, &c.	79158	2609143	13	9
India Forces.	25115	582397	0	0
Troops and Companies for recruiting ditto	437	25214	10	0
Recruiting and Contingencies	—	227249	0	10
General and Staff Officers	—	190529	17	6
Embodied Militia and Fencibles	94202	2493644	7	5
Contingencies for ditto	—	62153	17	0
Clothing for ditto	—	157227	16	4
Full Pay to Supernumerary Officers	—	34418	11	0
Public Departments	—	221200	18	5
Allowance to Inn-keepers, &c.	—	467273	3	11
Half-Pay and Military Allowances	—	192515	2	11
Ditto American Forces	—	44000	0	0
Ditto Scotch Brigade	—	750	0	0
In-Pensioners of Chelsea and Kilmainham Hospitals	—	50597	19	9
Out-Pensioners of ditto	—	355785	7	8
Widows Pensions	—	43258	7	6
Volunteer Corps	—	1490301	4	8
Foreign Corps	21473	832540	19	9
Royal Military College	—	22175	5	10
Royal Military Asylum	—	21227	8	4
Allowances to Retired and Officiating Chaplains	—	18208	15	11
Hospital Expenses (Ireland)	—	18461	10	10
Barrack Department (ditto)	—	469450	12	6
Compassionate List	—	12000	0	0
Deduct the India Forces	334180	14743348	12	4
	25115	582397	0	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>309065</b>	<b>£14160951</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>4</b>

This authentic and curious statement cannot fail interesting the public, as it gives our readers an opportunity for comparing the estimate of the English forces at that period with the present situation of the army and navy, to which the city of London is known to yield comparatively the greatest contribution.

Whilst the whole of the continent, and in particular the provinces of Germany, were overrun by the French armies, threatening slavery every-where, and fostering the bitter fruit of foreign dominion, under the perfidious shade of their half-rotten tree of liberty, the British government was deeply engaged in a cause, which will do eternal honour to the goodness of the British heart, which, knowing well the blessings of freedom, had long sighed after the happy hour when the chains of nearly the half of mankind should be ultimately broken for ever. The tears of the sable sons of Africa had been overlooked, their cries unheard, by other nations; it was reserved for us to dry those bitter tears, to put an end to that anti-christian traffic, through which innumerable slaves were bought in order to labour and groan under the arbitrary government of ungovernable tyrants; and eventually to set millions of men at liberty by a single decree from the British parliament. So illustrious, so generous, an example, given to the rest of the world, cannot be too much praised; and we shall therefore present the fact to our readers with all the particulars that may be interesting. It was in the bosom of one of the cities which we are now describing that the transaction took place; and consequently we ought to relate it as part of the History of London and Westminster.

Two resolutions had been passed by both houses, in the preceding session of parliament: the one declaring, "that the African slave-trade, being contrary to the principles of justice, humanity, and sound policy, ought to be abolished with all practicable expedition;" and the other, to address his majesty, beseeching him "to take such measures as might appear most effectual for obtaining, by negotiation, the concurrence and concert of foreign powers, in the abolition of the slave-trade, and the execution of the regulations adopted for that purpose."

In pursuance of these resolutions, lord Grenville, on the 2d of January, brought into the house of peers, a bill for abolishing the slave-trade. Lord Eldon wished to know whether the bill was meant to extend to the slave-trade in general, both in the West-Indies and on the coast of Africa, or if it was the African slave-trade only that was to be abolished. Lord Grenville said that the bill extended to the African trade only. The bill was read a first time, and printed.

January 12th, on the motion of lord Grenville for appointing a day for the second reading of the bill, lord Hawkebury moved an address to his majesty, praying, "that he would be graciously pleased to order to be laid before the house, copies of all communications which had passed between his majesty and foreign powers, respecting the abolition of the slave-trade, in consequence of the address of that house." Lord Grenville said, that, with respect to France, the fact was, that, during the late negotiation with the government of that country, communications on this subject did take place, to the production of which he saw no objection. As to Spain and Holland, no communications had or could have taken place with those powers. Communications respecting the slave-trade had passed between the plenipotentiaries of this country, and the United States of America; and an agreement on this subject actually formed one of the articles of the treaty which had been signed by one of those plenipotentiaries. With respect to Portugal, it was not thought expedient to make any communication on the subject, during the negotiation with France.—These five were the only powers materially interested in the slave-trade.

On the 4th of February, counsel was heard, pursuant to order, before the house of lords, on behalf of the West-India merchants, and for the merchants of Liverpool, against the bill.

On the 5th of February, lord Grenville, having given a copious detail of the principal arguments on which the principle or spirit of the bill was founded, concluded with moving, "that the bill be now read a second time." Lord Grenville's motion was supported by the duke of Gloucester, the earl of Selkirk, lord King, the earl of Roslyn, lord Northesk, the bishop of Durham, lord Holland, and the earl of Suffolk. It was opposed by the duke of Clarence, the earl of Morton, the earl of Westmoreland, lord Sidmouth, lord Eldon, and lord Hawkebury. It was suggested, on the present subject, by lord Sidmouth, that churches should be built for the negroes in the West-India islands, agreeably to the advice of Mr. Burke, and that they should be instructed in the morality, and also the peculiar doctrines, of the Christian religion. To Mr. Burke's advice, lord Sidmouth made an addition that merits the most attentive consideration: he recommended that the negroes should be also united by the ties of matrimony, as the first step towards civilization, and the future improvement of their condition. With these advantages, and the blessing of being protected by our laws, he thought that the time would arrive for emancipating them.—The second reading of the bill was carried by a hundred voices against thirty-six.

The report of the bill being brought up, on February 9th, lord Grenville stated, that it had been thought advisable to fix the same period in all the clauses of the bill for the abolition of the slave-trade; namely, the 1st of May, 1807; and to introduce a proviso, allowing vessels employed in the trade, which had cleared out from the ports



ports of this country for Africa previously to that day, to complete their cargoes in Africa, and trade with them to the West-Indies, and other parts of America, until the 1st of January, 1808, at which period the trade should be finally abolished. The amendments proposed by his lordship were agreed to.

On the question being put for engrossing the bill, the bishop of London rose, and expatiated on the moral and religious consequences that might be expected to accrue from that salutary and humane act of legislative justice. But he lamented that the number of clergymen was so small, when compared with the great population of the blacks. In the island of Jamaica, where there were from 2 to 300,000 negroes, there were only 20 clergymen, whose time was almost entirely taken up in religious instruction, and exhortation, administering the sacraments, and performing other duties of their function, to the whites.

Earl St. Vincent, who had on former occasions set his face in the most decided manner against the bill, embraced this last opportunity of entering his protest against its adoption; the consequences of which, he was fully persuaded, would prove fatal to the best interests of this country. (As soon as France should make peace with this country, and she would hasten a pacification in consequence of this measure,) her first object would be to get complete possession of the slave-trade; and, if she succeeded in that object, it would soon appear that she had got possession of an engine that would work the downfall of the naval superiority of this country. Such was his conviction, and he uttered it now for the last time. His lordship then immediately withdrew from the house. The different clauses of the bill were then agreed to, and the bill engrossed.

Another naval commander of still greater celebrity was as decided an anti-abolitionist as lord St. Vincent, as appears from the following passage, which is part of a letter from lord Nelson, to Mr. Simon Taylor, Jamaica; dated Victory, off Martinico, June 10. "I have ever been, and shall die, a firm friend to our colonial system. I was bred, you know, in the good old school, and taught to appreciate the value of our West-India possessions; and neither in the field, nor in the senate, shall their interest be infringed, while I have an arm to fight in their defence, or a tongue to launch my voice against the damnable and cursed doctrine of \*\*\*\* and his hypocritical allies; and I hope my birth in Heaven will be as exalted as his who would certainly cause the murder of all our friends in the colonies. I did not intend to go so far; but the sentiments are full in my heart, and the pen would write them."

Next day, the order of the day for the third reading of the bill being read; lord Redefdale rose, not, he said, to detain their lordships with a speech, but to declare his conviction that the present measure would be the means of producing all the horrors of a revolution that could possibly be imagined. The abolition of the African trade should have gone hand in hand with the abolition of that in the West-Indies. Had the object of the bill been a gradual and general abolition of the slave-trade, it would have had his hearty concurrence—but he would not enter into any debate. Any attempt to withstand the present enthusiasm on the subject would be in vain. But he could not help remarking, that, when a legislature acted enthusiastically, they did not always act wisely; and he did not think, that, in the faithful and conscientious discharge of their duty, the opposers of this bill had much to answer for.—The earl of Buckinghamshire said, in reply, that mere enthusiasm was not calculated to last for twenty years, during which period this measure had been under discussion. When a member of the house of commons in the year 1792, he had voted for a gradual abolition, conceiving that persons concerned in the trade ought to have sufficient notice. Now, however, he had no doubt that the trade ought immediately to be abolished, not only because that trade was contrary to justice and humanity, but also because the abolition was the only means of pre-

venting those evils which must otherwise necessarily result from the multiplication of slaves in the west.—The duke of Norfolk approved of the bill, and expressed a confidence that the planters, by a moderate treatment of their slaves, would contribute to bring about that state of the colonies which was so much to be desired.—The earl of Westmoreland was at a loss to understand on what principle of logic it was to be proved, that, if the slave-trade was contrary to justice and humanity, it was not also contrary to justice and humanity to keep the negroes, who had been procured by means of the trade, in a state of perpetual slavery. Not that he was so mad as to think that freedom ought to be given to the slaves in the West-Indies, but that, on the principles on which the abolition-bill was now founded, emancipation ought also to follow.—Lord Grenville said, that, in abolishing the slave-trade, justice would be done to the inhabitants of Africa, who were the parties aggrieved; but that liberty to the slaves on the islands would be to them, in their state of ignorance and barbarism, a baleful poison.—The bill was then read a third time, passed, and ordered to be sent to the commons, for obtaining the concurrence of that house.

The bill being laid on the table of the house of commons, a motion was made by lord Howick, for reading it a first time. This was opposed, in what is called a maiden, or first, speech in parliament, by Mr. George Herbert. He was particularly anxious to impress on the minds of all the members, that they were not a mere *comitium*, or popular assembly, nor yet a mere organ of the voice of the multitude; but a deliberative body, limited in their number, that they might deliberate calmly, without any mixture of popular prejudice, enthusiasm, or passion; bound to maintain the rights, and to consult the interests and the wishes, of the people; but bound also to decide, according to their consciences, for the good of the whole, after full and free discussion. He was determined to oppose, at every step, a measure which he believed to be grounded on a delusive promise of good which it would never accomplish, and to be pregnant with inevitable, immediate, and extensive, mischief.—Captain Herbert too thought that the abolition of the slave-trade would become the ruin of the British colonies in the West-Indies, and consequently of our finances in that part of the world.—General Gascoyne also entreated the house to give the measure before them the fullest and most serious consideration. Every measure, he said, that invention or artifice could devise, had been resorted to on the present occasion. The church, the theatre, and the press, had laboured to create a prejudice against the slave-trade. It was not his intention, however, to speak at present on the general subject, as he should consider it as disrespectful to the lords, if any bill that came down from their house should not at least be read a first time.—Lord Howick, and Mr. W. Plumer, declared, that, if any artifices had been practised for raising a popular clamour against the slave-trade, they were wholly unknown to them. Lord Howick knew, he said, that there had been a most laudable and persevering attention on the part of the honourable gentleman (Mr. Wilberforce) with whom the measure originated. This attention, however, had never been used to mislead any one, but merely to make the matter generally understood.

The bill was then read a first time, and ordered for the second reading on the 20th of February. On that day, counsel was heard against it, as in the lords; but evidence was not allowed to be called to speak on the subject of *compensation* to the planters and others concerned, because, lord Howick observed, that would be a question of future consideration. Those who demanded compensation might hereafter submit their case to the house, who were never backward in listening to the claims of justice.—General Gascoyne could not forbear expressing his satisfaction that the principle of indemnity seemed to be acknowledged by the noble lord.—Lord H. said that he had only stated a general principle.—Sir P. Francis was not willing



to allow the possibility of a case in which the public ought to make compensation to an individual for any losses that might arise from the abolition of such iniquitous practices.—Mr. R. Thornton thought that few cases would be found entitled to compensation. Those engaged in commercial concerns were necessarily exposed to risks; and sufficient warning had long been given to those who were engaged in this abominable traffic.

Lord Howick moved the commitment of the bill; and the debate on that motion was adjourned till Monday, February 23.—Lord Howick then rose, and said, that, though the question had been so often agitated, that every honourable member must be acquainted with its details, yet he could not reconcile it to himself to bring forward a measure of such vast importance in that new parliament, without stating those facts and that evidence on which alone this question ought to rest. His lordship then entered into a copious recapitulation of those facts; and contended, from a review of the whole of these, and of the various topics insisted on in the discussions of the question, that the abolition of the slave-trade was founded not only in justice, but on the true principles of sound and liberal policy.—Lord Howick was followed on the same side of the question by Mr. Roscoe, Mr. Lushington, Mr. Fawkes, lord Mahon, lord Milton, the Solicitor-general, sir John Doyle, Mr. Manning, and lord Percy. On the other side, there appeared general Gascoyne and Mr. Hibbert.—Mr. Bathurst and Mr. H. Addington, though they approved of a gradual, were not prepared to go to the length of an immediate, abolition; but recommended a tax on the importation of fresh negroes, which would ultimately lead to a total abolition.—Mr. Wilberforce replied to the principal arguments that had been urged against the bill, and referred to Mr. Park's book to show the evils that the slave-trade created in Africa. He adverted also to another recent publication that had drawn considerable attention, namely, Mr. Malthus's Essay on Population. It had been contended that in that essay Mr. Malthus had favoured the slave-trade. But Mr. Malthus had called upon him that day, and expressed his surprise to have learned, that in some of the publications of the day he was regarded as a favourer of the slave-trade. He declared that his meaning had been misunderstood, and that he had just prepared a short appendix to his work in order to explain his ideas on the subject. Mr. Wilberforce concluded with an elegant eulogium on the display of both moral sentiments and talents which the house had that night witnessed on the side of humanity and justice, particularly on the part of the younger members; whose lofty and liberal sentiments, recommended and enforced by the elevation of their rank and purity of their form, must tend to produce the happiest effects on all classes of the community. Such an indication of mind and feeling would show to the people, that their legislators, and especially the highest orders of their youth, were forward to assert the rights of the weak against the strong; to vindicate the cause of the oppressed; and that, where a practice was found to prevail inconsistent with humanity and justice, no consideration of profit could reconcile them to its continuance.

Mr. Wilberforce himself, every one acknowledged and felt, was, above all others, entitled to the highest degree of praise for his unwearied exertions, and the ability and prudence he had displayed in bringing the great measure before the house to a successful issue; for it was now evident that it would not meet with any effectual opposition. He was complimented on the occasion by different speakers, particularly by the Solicitor-general. When he looked at the man now at the head of the French monarchy, surrounded as he was with all the pomp of power, and all the pride of victory, distributing kingdoms to his family, and principalities to his followers, seeming, when he sat upon his throne, to have reached the pinnacle of earthly happiness; and when he followed that man into his closet, or to his bed, and considered the pangs with

which his solitude must be tortured, and his repose banished, by the recollection of the blood he had spilled; and when he compared with those pangs of remorse, the feelings that must accompany his honourable friend (Mr. W.) to his home, after the vote of the night should have confirmed the object of his humane and unceasing labours; when he should retire into the bosom of his happy and delighted family; when he should lay himself down on his bed, reflecting on the innumerable voices that would be raised in every quarter of the world to bless him: how much more pure and perfect felicity must he enjoy in the consciousness of having preserved so many nations of his fellow creatures, than the man with whom he had compared him, on the throne to which he had waded through oppression and slaughter!

The question being loudly called for, the house divided: Ayes 283, noes 16. The house then resolved itself into a committee *pro forma*, and at half-past four adjourned to Friday, 27th February; when, after several observations from the principal leaders on both sides of the question, the bill was committed, and, with some amendments, passed on the 16th of March, without a division.—On Wednesday, the 18th, lord Howick, accompanied by Mr. Wilberforce and others, carried the bill to the lords. Lord Grenville, on receiving it, moved that it should be printed; and that, if this process could be finished by Monday, it should be taken into consideration on that day. The reason of this extraordinary haste was, that his majesty, displeased with the introduction of the Roman-catholic-officers' bill into the commons, had signified his intention to the members of the existing administration, that they were to be displaced. The uneasiness, which, a few days before, had sprung up among the friends of the abolition, on the report that this event was probable, began now to show itself throughout the kingdom. Letters were written from various parts, manifesting the greatest fear and anxiety on account of the state of the bill, and desiring answers of consolation. Nor was this state of the mind otherwise than what might have been expected upon such an occasion; for the bill was yet to be printed—being an amended one, it was to be argued again in the lords—it was then to receive the royal assent—All these operations implied time; and it was reported that the new ministry was formed; among whom were several who had shown a hostile disposition to the cause.

On Monday, the 23d, the house of lords met. Such extraordinary diligence had been used in printing the bill, that it was then ready. Lord Grenville immediately brought it forward. The earl of Westmoreland and the marquis of Sligo opposed it. The duke of Norfolk and the bishop of Llandaff (Dr. Watson) supported it. The latter said, that this great act of justice would be recorded in heaven. The amendments were severally adopted without a division. But here an omission of three words was discovered, namely, "country, territory, or place," which, if not rectified, might defeat the purposes of the bill. An amendment was immediately proposed and carried. Thus the bill received the last sanction of the peers. Lord Grenville then congratulated the house on the completion, on its part, of the most glorious measure that had ever been adopted by any legislative body in the world. The amendment, now mentioned, occasioned the bill to be sent back to the commons. On the 24th, on the motion of lord Howick, it was immediately taken into consideration there, and agreed to; and it was carried back to the lords, as approved of, on the same day.

But, though the bill had now passed both houses, there was an awful fear throughout the kingdom, lest it should not receive the royal assent before the ministry was dissolved. This event took place the next day; for on Wednesday the 25th, at half past eleven in the morning, his majesty's message was delivered to the different members of it, that they were then to wait upon him to deliver up the seals of their offices. It then appeared that



a commission for the royal assent to this bill, among others, had been obtained. This commission was instantly opened by the lord chancellor (Erskine), who was accompanied by the lords Holland and Auckland; "and, as the clock struck twelve, (says Mr. Clarkson,) just when the sun was in its meridian splendour to witness this august act, this establishment of a magna charta for Africa in Britain, and to sanction it by its most vivid and glorious beams, it was completed. The ceremony being over, the seals of the respective offices were delivered up; so that the execution of this commission was the last act of the administration of lord Grenville, an administration, which, on account of its various exertions in behalf of the oppressed African race, will pass to posterity, living through successive generations, in the love and gratitude of the most virtuous of mankind. Thus ended one of the most glorious contests, after a continuance for twenty years, of any ever carried on in any age or country. A contest, not of brutal violence, but of reason. A contest between those, who felt deeply for the happiness and the honour of their fellow-creatures, and those, who, through vicious custom and the impulse of avarice, had trampled under-foot the sacred rights of their nature, and had even attempted to efface all title to the divine image from their minds." *Clarkson's History of the Abolition of the Slave trade.*

To a dispassionate reader, if he peruse with attention the different arguments and reasonings of the abolitionists and of their antagonists, it will appear plain that the latter generally united in their minds the emancipation of the slaves as they now exist in our West-Indian colonies, with an entire cessation of the slave-trade. The former plan would have been most egregiously deprecated by any man of sense, whereas the other could not fail obtaining an abettor in every feeling heart. The abolition of the slave-trade was founded upon *justice*. The emancipation of the slaves already bought, besides many other reasons against it, would have been an *injustice* committed against the proprietors who were *bona fide* purchasers. This feeling was evident by the fate of lord Percy's motion, on the 23d of March, for leave to bring in a bill for the *gradual abolition of slavery* in his majesty's colonies in the West-Indies.—Lord H. Petty deprecated any discussion of this subject at the present moment. He entreated most respectfully, but most strongly, his noble friend either to withdraw his motion, or to concur in the previous question, which he should feel it his duty to move.—Sir C. Pole also deprecated the discussion; but was glad the motion had been made, as it would open the eyes of all who were interested in the West-India islands, to the dangers which threatened them.—Mr. Wilberforce declared that both he, and they who acted with him, were satisfied with having gained an object which was to be obtained with safety. The sole point they had in view was, the abolition of the slave-trade, and not the emancipation of the slaves. The enemies of the abolition had always confounded these two objects; the friends of the abolition had always distinguished them.—Mr. Hibbert said, if there remained a ray of hope that the colonies might be saved, it must be decidedly shown, and clearly understood, that the house would not for a moment listen to any proposal for emancipation.—But Mr. Sheridan, who, on the preceding night, had considered the bill then passed as only a prelude to the ultimate measure of emancipation, expressed his hope that the young nobleman, who had done his feelings so much credit by the proposition which he had that evening made, would stand to his ground. If he persevered in the pursuit of his object with the same zeal as his right honourable friend Mr. W. had done, he had no doubt but he would meet with the same success. He trusted that the planters might be induced to lead the way to emancipation; and, were they themselves always resident on their estates, he should have good hopes. But the negro-drivers would not soon forget their fixed habits of brutality, or learn to treat the unhappy wretches in their charge with clemency and compassion. Slavery would not

wear itself out. It would become more rigid, unless the legislature should become more vigilant, and remind the planters of the new duty that had fallen upon them, of rearing the young slaves in such a manner as that they may be worthy of freedom.—After a conversation between Mr. Wilberforce and some other members, the house, which had become very thin, was counted, and, there being only 35 members in it, it was immediately adjourned, and the question was dropped.

The abolition of the slave-trade was indeed an act of legislation sufficiently bold of itself, without its being followed immediately by another for even a gradual emancipation. It was sufficient that we at length put an end to a traffic which had long disgraced mankind, and had caused those intestine wars, the principal object of which, among the African princes, was to get slaves for the purpose of selling them. A modern author expresses himself in the following manner in regard to the benefit which the African nations will reap from the act:

On Niger's sedge banks,  
Or where, from rock to rock, rude Senegal,  
Athwart the burning sands, unfurls and rolls,  
In thund'ring majesty, his awful waves;  
When first he heard the ten-times welcome news,  
The negro knelt, and blest'd such pow'r unknown  
As bids him stay unfold, and now secure,  
Where freedom, hardly check'd by nature's laws,  
Smiled, and play'd, and strung his infant limbs  
To chase the wild goat, or the gazell course  
Along the desert shores, but not to lend  
His manly vigour to the pamper'd sons  
Of avarice.

This measure has stamped with immortal honour the short administration of the *Foxites*; and will be long remembered in all countries of the world. Nor does it appear that our commerce, or the prosperity of our West-India islands, has been eventually affected by the abolition of this horrid traffic; but, even if it had been injured in some degree, still let us endeavour to impress the nobler truth, that national greatness depends more on virtue than on commerce:

Is commerce all? shall her omnific word  
Impart its valour to the hero's sword?  
Has she a gale as pure as honour's breath,  
Through life unfulfilled, and serene in death?  
Know, virtue only can the strength create  
That clothes in native majesty a state;  
Virtue alone that sacred spirit pours  
With which the hero springs, the patriot soars;  
Virtue, thou breath of life untam'd by time,  
Thine is the impulse and the power sublime;  
The firm unconquerable will is thine,  
Force passing strength, the energy divine.  
Know, Commerce follows Nature's social laws  
As peace or charity her blessing draws.  
Still shall she bear from Africa's genial plains  
Their native wealth, though man untouch'd remains.  
Let Britain's sons the fruitful coast explore,  
And kindly bless the race they wrong'd before;  
With gentle promises invite to toil,  
With precious gifts endow the docile soil;  
Till Africa's race in grateful reverence bend,  
And hail the teacher where they find the friend.

*Mrs Benger's Poems.*

The history of a great nation does not always consist in the relation of the wars, which the wages against the enemies of her honour, security, or interest. The character and morals of the people in civil, political, and religious, concerns, constitute also an integral part which the writer ought not to neglect. The following fact will give the reader an opportunity of estimating to what a pitch the religious zeal for preaching was brought at this time.—At the Middlesex sessions, on the 17th of January, three



men, one a *shot-maker*, another a *brush-maker*, and the third a *sailor*, severally applied to the court, that the oaths might be administered to them to qualify them to preach the Gospel. The chairman asked these candidates for ecclesiastical fame, whether any of them had received the necessary education at either of the universities, Oxford or Cambridge, or at any public school; or whether they were deeply read in theology? They replied in the negative. The chairman observed, they must necessarily entertain very wild and extravagant ideas in regard to religion; and he wished to learn the inducements they had to become preachers. They replied, that they had no objects of lucre or gain in view; but were actuated by a strong and vehement inclination to promulgate the Gospel of God, for the purpose of contributing, as far as in them lay, to the salvation of souls. They intended to exercise their holy functions entirely within the county of Middlesex. The chairman granted their application, and they withdrew to the office of the clerk of the peace. Similar applications of unlettered apostles are not unfrequent.

On the 23d of February, a most dreadful accident happened at the execution of two men for the murder of Mr. Steele. The crime was perpetrated on the 6th of November, 1802; and it was not till this year that the guilty were brought to condign punishment. This horrid transaction excited such interest in London, that, on the north side of the Old Bailey, the multitude to see the execution was so immensely great, that, in their movements, they were not unaptly compared to the flow and reflux of the waves of the sea, when in troubled motion. Just before the culprits mounted the scaffold, the feelings of the spectators were agitated to a most alarming degree, by the deplorable and pitiable situation of a very great number of persons in the crowd, who, from the extraordinary pressure and other causes, were every moment in danger of being suffocated or trampled to death. In all parts there were continued cries of Murder! murder! particularly from the female part of the spectators and young boys; some of whom were seen expiring, without the possibility of the least assistance being afforded them; every one being employed in endeavours to preserve his own life. The most affecting scene of distress was seen at Green-Arbour-court, nearly opposite the Debtors' door. The terrible occurrence which took place near this spot is attributed to the circumstance of two pie-men attending there to dispose of their pies; and, one of them having his basket overthrown, which stood upon a sort of stool with four legs, some of the mob, not being aware of what had happened, and at the same time severely pressed, fell over the basket and the man at the moment he was picking it up. Those who once fell were never more able to rise, such was the violence of the crowd. At this fatal place, a man of the name of Hetherington was thrown down, who had in his hand his youngest son, a fine boy about twelve years of age. The youth was soon trampled to death; the father recovered, though much bruised. A woman, who was so imprudent as to bring with her a child at the breast, was one of the number killed; whilst in the act of falling, she forced the child into the arms of the man nearest to her, requesting him for God's sake to save its life; the man, finding it required all his exertion to preserve himself, threw the infant from him, but it was fortunately caught at a distance by another man, who, finding it difficult to insure its safety or his own, got rid of it in a similar way. The child was again caught by a person who contrived to struggle with it to a cart, under which he deposited it until the danger was over, and the mob had dispersed. In other parts the pressure was so great, that a horrible scene of confusion ensued, and seven persons lost their lives by suffocation in one spot. It was shocking to behold a large body of the crowd, as in one convulsive struggle for life, fight with the most savage fury with each other: the consequence was, that the weakest, particularly the women, fell sacrifices. As fast

as the mob cleared away after the execution, and those on the ground could be picked up, they were conveyed in carts and on boards to St. Bartholomew's Hospital, where every attention was shown, and every assistance afforded, to those who exhibited signs of life. As soon as the bodies of the deceased were washed, and in a fit state to be exposed, they were laid out in the Elizabeth-ward, in order to be claimed by their friends. No language can describe the anguish of the scene when the people first recognized these mutilated remains; some found a brother, some a son, and others a father. A young woman, who found amongst the dead an only brother, was so strongly affected, that she went into violent fits, and continued in that state throughout the whole day, and great doubts were entertained of her recovery. It was truly affecting to see the persons who had missed their relatives, so strongly agitated between hope and fear, as they entered the room to view the dead. Some had not resolution sufficient to convince themselves of that which they wanted to know. Many who had missed their friends or relatives came too late to view the dead, and were almost raving when they were told they could not see the bodies till the next day. Every person about the hospital was employed in this melancholy duty from nine o'clock in the morning until nearly five in the afternoon, at which time the ward that contained the dead bodies was locked up. As fast as the bodies were owned, they were put into shells, with the names of the parties upon them, to the number of twenty-eight. The coroner's inquest sat at Bartholomew's Hospital for four successive days. Their verdict was to this effect; viz. "That the several persons came by their death from compression and suffocation."

Another distressing occurrence, arising from the pressure of a crowd, comes naturally to be spoken of here, though some intervening matters must be noticed afterwards.—In the audience-part of Sadler's Wells, on Thursday night, the 19th of October, about ten o'clock, some one called out "a fight;" which was mistaken for "fire." The fatal catastrophe which followed was produced by the violent pressure of persons who had quitted the gallery of the theatre on the first alarm, endeavouring, when they found it to have been groundless, to return to their places; but a number of others, who were still pressing to get out, being on the staircase, occasioned such a concussion between the two parties, as to produce the fatal suffocation by which eighteen lives were lost.

A coroner's jury was convened next morning in the drawing-room of the dwelling-house of Mr. Dibdin, adjoining to this place of public entertainment. They first examined the bodies of the eighteen deceased persons, which were exposed in the music-room and in the kitchen. They were extended at length, dressed in the clothes in which they appeared at the theatre, with their legs only bare, and their apparel somewhat loosened for the greater facility of inspection. It was a remarkable fact, that, of all these persons, not a single limb was broken, although many had received violent contusions; and a prodigious number of wounded persons, who had escaped with life, suffered from the most terrible fractures. Of the dead bodies, some had undergone a material change, from the rapid progress of putrefaction, so that the age of one of them could not be ascertained within twelve or fourteen years; and the countenance of another was unknown to her companion; she could only be recognized by her dress.

Besides those we have mentioned, a great many others were conveyed into the apartments appointed for the reception of the dead, who were supposed to have been deprived of life, but who, after bleeding, and a short interval of repose, recovered. We cannot avoid noticing one instance of this kind:—A husband and a wife were both carried for dead into this place. On breathing a vein of the wife; there was no emission; but, on a like incision being made in the arm of the husband, the blood burst forth, and, after a few minutes of suspended animation, his senses returned, and the first object which attracted his



eyes was his own wife, a corpse by his side. A paroxysm of frenzy was the immediate consequence, and he was borne off from the scene of death in this dreadful situation.

After the jury had inspected the bodies of the deceased, they proceeded to the theatre to assist their judgment in ascertaining the cause of this distressing occurrence. Not the least symptom of conflagration was to be seen in any part of the premises, either before or behind the curtain; and throughout the building not a plank had given way, excepting the front of the orchestra, which had been broken down by persons attempting to escape in that direction. After they had thus satisfied their minds with respect to these particulars, the jury again returned to the drawing-room, where Mr. Hodgson, the coroner, having taken the chair, they proceeded to the interrogation of witnesses.

Little or no interest can attach to the examination of one set of witnesses, being merely the parents or other relations of the deceased, or friends who had accompanied them to the theatre, and were separated from them in the crowd. The following, however, is worth notice: Benjamin Price, deceased, was identified by his mother, who stated that he resides at No. 31, Lime-street, Leadenhall-street; the deceased was eleven years of age; he obtained leave to accompany some neighbours to Sadler's Wells. About half past ten, his little sister, who was at home, went into the kitchen, where she saw her brother, who she thought was at the play. She called him, but he immediately disappeared. She then became alarmed, and said it certainly was her brother's ghost, and she was sure he was dead. Witness, being alarmed at the story told by her daughter, hastened with a friend to Sadler's Wells, where she found her boy a corpse.

The next series of witnesses deposed to the attention paid to the unhappy sufferers, and to the diligence and humanity of the proprietors of the theatre and others, to prevent, as much as possible, the fatal consequence of the general alarm and confusion.

Mr. George Smith, a performer, deposed, that he was, the preceding night, upon the stage, when he noticed a considerable disturbance. He saw two men, in particular, fighting in the middle of the gallery. He then heard a cry of fire, and some women were pressing over the front of the orchestra. He leaped into the orchestra to assist them. They were wounded and bruised. The front of the orchestra was broken down by the pressure. The witness then went to undress; when near his dressing-room, he found a boy lying on the ground, for whom he procured the attendance of Mr. Knight, a medical gentleman; the witness thought the first cry was "fight," although afterwards it was "fire." He exerted himself, exclaiming, there was no fire. All the doors were thrown open for the escape of the audience.

Jones, a lame young man, was brought in next. He said, he was in the gallery; that two men at first jumped up, and struck several blows at people. One of them gave him a violent knock on the shoulder; on which he fell, crying out, "I am robbed!" He remained on the stairs until he was picked up. A young woman was with him; she had not returned home; and he did not know where she was. The witness could not describe the men, but thought he should know them if they were shown to him. They were somewhere about the middle of the gallery.

John Dobson, chemist and druggist, in Coleman-street, deposed, that he was in the pit, standing on the benches near the door, where there were seven or eight men, with two girls, handsomely dressed, quarrelling among themselves. About ten o'clock, they were most riotous. It was a benefit-night, and the pit was very full. These men and girls tried to affront several people, who would take no notice of them.

Mr. Reeve, one of the proprietors, and a musician, said, that every thing was done, by the use of the speaking-trumpet, and otherwise, to appease the general alarm. He was in the orchestra during the whole of the last piece.

About a quarter past ten there was a little disturbance, which seemed to begin with a fight. The noise rapidly increased; a cry of fire was raised, and the ladies in the side boxes lifted up their hands and screamed, so as greatly to alarm the crowd in the gallery. Then it was that the confusion above stairs became general. He saw many persons dropping down from thence into the pit, where they made their way into the orchestra, and leaped upon the stage. The cry of fire was now vociferated on all sides, and the witness exclaimed "No fire! No fire!" in vain.

The evidence being terminated, the coroner observed upon it as follows: "Gentlemen of the Jury, There is little to be said on this occasion, since it is impossible to attach any thing criminal. It can only be *casual death*; although it might have been otherwise, if a design had been proved to knock any person down, or to commit similar violence. Riot is a misdemeanour, but would not constitute, in a case of this nature, the crime of murder; nor can it, in these circumstances, come under the distinction of manslaughter. If a charge of riot can be fixed upon any party, it is a misdemeanour of which the law takes cognizance; but we cannot do so here." The verdict, after the names of the deceased had been read, was immediately given; "Killed casually, accidentally, and by misfortune."—Mr. Hodgson then added, "No blame is attached to the theatre; they have done all that humanity could dictate; nothing has been neglected." The jury unanimously concurred in this observation.

We turn from these scenes of woe to commercial and political transactions.—The Grand Surry Canal Basin at Rotherhithe, which had so long been an object of attention in the mercantile world, was opened for the reception of shipping and craft on the 13th of March. The ceremony took place in the presence of a numerous assemblage of spectators, composed principally of the proprietors and their friends, together with a large company of ladies, who all appeared much gratified on this interesting occasion. At two o'clock the ship intended to take the lead in entering began to dress in the colours of various nations; and the remaining ships also followed the example, though in a plainer style. About the same time the company assembled on the insular wharfage, where marquees and a cold collation were prepared for their accommodation. At length the tide rose to a level with the water in the basin; the gates were thrown open, and guns were fired as a signal for vessels to enter. About half past three o'clock, the *Argo*, a fine brig of 242 tons burthen, the property of Mr. John Hall, made her entry amidst the acclamations of the spectators. She was saluted by a discharge of cannon on-shore, which was returned by the vessel; whilst a band of martial music on the deck played God save the King, and Rule Britannia. Four other vessels, all handsomely ornamented with colours, immediately followed. The whole made a very interesting appearance.

The next event to be noticed in the order of time is the change of the ministry.—We have already noticed (p. 154) their last public act; and we lament that a set of men, combining so much integrity and talent, who had honoured themselves by introducing limited service into the army—by the most strenuous endeavours for peace—and by the abolition of the slave-trade—should have been induced to propose and insist upon a measure, to which, had it been carried through the house, the king neither would nor ought to have given his assent. It was entitled "A Bill for enabling his Majesty to avail himself of the Services of all his liege Subjects in his naval and military Forces;" and the preamble stated, that this was "for the maintenance of the rights of his crown, and of the interests, honour, and independence, of Great Britain." The intent of it, however, was to admit Roman Catholics into every rank of the navy and army. Upon this subject, which has been much agitated since, we beg to refer our readers to the article LIBERTY OF CONSCIENCE, vol. xii. p. 589 & seq.



The following is a list of the ministry which at this time superseded those characters which had been called, exultingly by their friends, sneeringly by their enemies, "all the talents." Those with a star formed the cabinet-council.

Prefident of the Council	-	Earl Camden.*
Lord Chancellor	- - -	Lord Eldon.*
Lord Privy-seal	- - -	Duke of Westmoreland.*
First Lord of the Treasury	-	Earl of Portland.*
First Lord of the Admiralty	-	Lord Mulgrave.*
Master-general of the Ordnance	-	Earl of Chatham.*
Secretary of State, Home Department	-	Lord Hawkebury.*
-----, Foreign Affairs	} Right Hon. G. Canning.*	
-----, War and Colonies	} Lord Castlereagh.*	
Lord Chief Justice	-	Lord Ellenborough.*
Chancellor of the Exchequer	-	Right Hon. S. Perceval.*
A seat in the Cabinet without an Office	-	Earl Fitzwilliam.*
Prefident of Board of Controul for India	-	Right Hon. R. S. Dundas.
----- of Board of Trade	-	Earl Bathurst.*
Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster	-	Right Hon. S. Perceval.*
Secretary at War	- - -	Sir James Pulteney, Bart.
Treasurer of the Navy	- - -	Right Hon. George Rose.
Joint Paymaster-general	-	{ Lord Charles Somerset.
		{ Right Hon. Charles Long.
		{ Earl of Chichester.
		{ Earl of Sandwich.
		{ William Huskisson, Esq.
Secretaries of the Treasury	-	Hon. Henry Wellesley.
Master of the Rolls	- - -	Sir William Grant.
Attorney-general	- - -	Sir Vicary Gibbs.
Solicitor-general	- - -	Sir Thomas Ploner.
Lord Lieutenant of Ireland	-	Duke of Richmond.
Lord Chancellor, ditto	-	Lord Manners.
Chief Secretary	- - -	Sir Arthur Wellesley.
Chancellor of the Exchequer	-	Right Hon. John Foster.

The city of London, upon this as upon other like occasions, evinced its patriotism and loyalty by an address, which was presented to his majesty at the Queen's Palace, on the 23d of April, by a deputation of the corporation, consisting of the lord-mayor, twelve aldermen, the recorder, sheriffs, and twelve commoners. It was as follows:

"Most gracious Sovereign; We, your majesty's most dutiful and loyal subjects, the lord-mayor, aldermen, and commons, of the city of London, in common-council assembled, approach the throne with our warmest and most unfeigned gratitude for the dignified and decided support and protection recently given by your majesty to the protestant reformed religion, as by law established; and for the firm and constitutional exercise of your royal prerogative to preserve the independence of the crown. Deeply sensible, as your majesty's faithful citizens of London at all times are, of the great and substantial blessings we enjoy under your majesty's paternal government, we should justly incur the imputation of criminal indifference, as the first municipal body in your majesty's dominions, were we lightly to consider the scrupulous regard and fervent zeal which have invariably guided your majesty for the preservation of our religion, laws, and liberties, more particularly at this interesting conjuncture, or silently to withhold our loyal acknowledgments due to the best of kings, for his wise and steady resolution to secure inviolate our glorious constitution in church and state. We contemplate, sire, with the warmest affection, and most profound veneration, the exercise of those unextinguishable principles in the royal breast, which protect in every situation the religious interests of your people, and provide for the happiness and freedom of posterity, by guarding the protestant succession in your majesty's royal house on the throne of the united kingdom. Your majesty's

faithful citizens of London, feel it no less their pride and exultation, than their bounden and indispensible duty, to express the sentiments of satisfaction which animate their hearts, at the wise and dignified measures pursued by your majesty, securing the glorious independence of the crown as one of the three estates of our well-tempered and invaluable constitution. That your majesty may be long spared to us by an over-ruling Providence, and that the people of this land may be long sensible of the blessings of your majesty's most auspicious government in the protection of every thing dear to them, is the ardent prayer of your majesty's loyal citizens of London."

To which address his majesty was pleased to return the following most gracious answer: "I receive, with the greatest satisfaction, the assurances you give me of your concurrence in those principles which have governed my conduct on the late important occasion. It has ever been my object to secure to all descriptions of my subjects the benefits of religious toleration; and it affords me particular gratification to reflect, that during my reign these advantages have been more generally and extensively enjoyed than at any former period. But, at the same time, I never can forget what is due to the security of the ecclesiastical establishment of my dominions, connected as it is with our civil constitution, and with all those blessings which, by the favour of Providence, have hitherto so eminently distinguished us amongst the nations of the world."

The new ministry thought fit to advise his majesty to dissolve the parliament; it had sat but four months and fourteen days.

On the 5th of May, a duel was fought between the people's idol, sir Francis Burdett, and his quondam friend Mr. Paull, a candidate for Westminster. They discharged two pistols each: the second shot fired by Mr. Paull wounded sir Francis in the thigh; the second pistol fired by sir Francis wounded Mr. Paull in the leg. Thus the affair ended; but Mr. Paull destroyed himself, in the April following, by cutting his throat.

The election being over, the 29th of June was the day appointed for chairing sir Francis Burdett. The procession commenced from Covent-garden at twelve o'clock, when a great number of electors were assembled; thence they proceeded to the house of sir Francis in Piccadilly, who ascended a car, constructed for his reception, precisely at three o'clock. The vehicle was intended as an imitation of the ancient triumphal car, and was not unclassically constructed. It was mounted on four wheels, superbly ornamented. On the more advanced part was the figure of Britannia, with a spear crowned with the cap of liberty. In the centre were the *saces* firmly bound, the emblem of union; and on the posterior part of the platform was a pedestal, on which was placed a gothic chair for the hero of the day. He sat with his head uncovered, and his wounded limb resting on a purple cushion, while the other was sustained on a sort of imperial footstool, under which the monster Corruption was seen in an agonizing attitude. On different parts of the car were depicted the arms of the city of Westminster, and also the insignia of the United Kingdom. Ornamental draperies of crimson velvet and purple silk were distributed in various parts, and banners embroidered with gold gave to the whole a splendid effect. This equipage was drawn by four milk-white horses, richly caparisoned, and decorated with purple ribbons. The procession was composed of a numerous body of the electors, who preceded the car; and Mr. Jones Burdett, lady Burdett, colonel Boffville, and a number of the friends of the baronet, who followed. We understand that more than 1500 persons dined at the Crown and Anchor on this occasion.

The election for the representation of the city of London, which began early in May, and threatened as severe a contest as had ever been known, found a termination as awful as it was unexpected. Mr. Alderman Hankey, one of the candidates, at the moment when he might be supposed to be flushed with the hopes of success, and when



the fairest promises of it were before him, was called away from all concerns of human life. He died of an inflammation in the bowels on the second day of the poll. The first symptoms of his complaint appeared about eight on the preceding evening. At an early period his approaching fate was announced to him; and he called for his four children, the eldest of whom was about nine years of age, and took an affectionate farewell of them.—The popular custom of pouring brandy into the shoes or boots, with a view of preventing the effects of cold, was the occasion of the death of this gentleman. Feeling his feet damp and cold after canvassing, he was induced, at the recommendation of some friend at the hall where he had been dining, to pour a glass of brandy into his shoes, in which state he walked homewards. He was almost immediately seized with an inflammation and consequent obstruction in the bowels, which in a few hours terminated fatally. This practice is adopted from the supposition, that, because spirits, when swallowed, excite universal warmth, and restore the circulation in the extremities, they must do the same when applied to the extremities themselves. But the very reverse happens. Fluids, when evaporating, produce cold; and, the lighter or more spirituous the fluid, the more quickly it evaporates, and the greater is the degree of cold generated. This may be proved by a very simple experiment: If one hand be wetted with spirits, and the other with water, and both are held up to dry in the air, the hand wetted with spirits will feel infinitely colder than the other. Or, if the bulbs of two thermometers be so treated, the mercury will be observed to fall much more rapidly and extensively in the one case than in the other. Whatever danger, therefore, arises from cold and damp feet, it is greatly enhanced by the practice alluded to. If such a remedy is to be at all employed, it ought undoubtedly to be taken into the stomach not into the shoes.

Mr. Samuel Birch was chosen an alderman in the room of the gentleman who so unfortunately sacrificed himself to a vulgar error.

The duchess of Brunswick, sister to his present majesty and mother to the princess of Wales, having migrated to this country; on the 8th of August, the lord-mayor, attended by four other aldermen and about eighty of the common council, proceeded in state from Guildhall to Montague-house, Blackheath, where they presented the following address:

“May it please your royal and serene highness; We, the lord-mayor, aldermen, and commons, of the city of London, in common council assembled, most humbly entreat your royal and serene highness to accept our sincere congratulations on your safe arrival in this imperial country. The return to her native land of an illustrious princess, so nearly and dearly allied to our beloved sovereign, and to the royal and amiable consort of the heir apparent to the throne of this united kingdom, cannot but renew the most lively sentiments of affection in the hearts of his majesty's loyal subjects, and a warm participation of those feelings which a meeting so interesting to the royal family must have occasioned. Deeply impressed, madam, as we are, by the extraordinary events which have occasioned your return, we trust that your royal and serene highness will permit us to express the sincere joy we feel at your restoration to the shores of a free and loyal people, not more attached to a good and venerable king, by duty to his supreme and august station, than by affection to his sacred person and family.”

To which her royal highness returned the following answer: “My Lord, I return your lordship and the aldermen and commons of the city of London my grateful thanks for an address which has given me the most heartfelt satisfaction. It affords me an additional instance of the loyal attachment of the city of London to the king, and of their affectionate regard for his majesty's royal family.”

Her royal highness continued here till her death, which

took place on the 23d of March, 1813, in the 76th year of her age. She was the last surviving sister of our sovereign. She was born on the 31st of July, 1737; and on the 17th of January, 1764, was married to the late duke of Brunswick Wolfenbuttle, by whom she had issue three sons and three daughters.

In the October following (1807) we received a still more illustrious refugee. On the 29th of that month, Louis XVIII. king of France, landed with his suite from the Swedish frigate Freya, at Yarmouth, under the title of Count de Lille, by which only he will be recognized during his stay in England. He came on-shore in admiral Douglas's barge, in the most private manner. On his landing, he was received by admirals Douglas and Essington, captain Curry of the flag-ship, and Mr. Brooks, of the alien-office, London. The party immediately assembled at the house of admiral Douglas's secretary, which stood contiguous to the spot. Here the count had his first interview with his brother (the count d'Artois). The scene was truly interesting and affecting. The carriages of admirals Douglas and Essington were shortly ready to convey the count and suite to the house of admiral Douglas, to breakfast; where the illustrious guests received a hearty welcome, and were treated with that true English hospitality so congenial to the feelings and heart of a British seaman. The party were joined at breakfast by admiral Ruffell, sir Samuel Hood, and several captains. The count seemed highly gratified at finding himself surrounded by so many brave men. To admiral Douglas and his family, he more than once expressed his gratitude for the attention and hospitality shown him. While at breakfast, the count gave a striking proof of his gallantry; presenting a rose to Miss Douglas, he made a happy simile between the sweetness and delicacy of the flower and the corresponding accomplishments of the young lady.—This unfortunate prince has continued ever since to partake of British hospitality, we believe, at Gosford, the seat of the marquis of Buckingham.

In November died Mr. Abraham Newland, chief cashier of the Bank, in his 78th year, sixty of which he had been employed in that establishment, having been first received as a clerk in February 1748. Distinguishing himself by that regularity and integrity so essential in money-concerns, he rose through the various gradations of service, and was appointed chief cashier in January 1775, which office he resigned only about two months before his death. He was a most faithful and upright servant of the public; nor were his labours unprofitable to himself: he left behind him 200,000*l.* in funded property, and estates to the value of about 1000*l.* per ann. When his funeral passed the Bank and Royal Exchange, there was a momentary suspension of all business, every one standing to contemplate the remains of a man so extensively known.

Mr. Newland was succeeded in his office of cashier by Mr. Henry Hase, whose name now stands to our bank-notes, with a *Promise to pay*, which we hope that gentleman will soon have an opportunity to fulfil.

While the British parliament was employed in debates respecting the means of quieting, or opposing, the growing ambition of France, Bonaparte pursued his career of conquest, triumphing over the vanity of subsidies, the futility of detachments and expeditions, sent at different times, to different places, against one compacted and mighty power, and the imbecility of confederations; and showing to all nations, that it is on the *direction*, not the *existence*, of military force, that the issue of campaigns and the fate of empires depend.

When Bonaparte was raised to the dictatorship of France, it was doubtful whether he would pursue a system of war and conquest, or of conciliation, peace, and all good arts. He was at first careful to appear in the light of a good, as well as a great man. He was solicitous to be considered as the patron of religion, good morals, the arts and sciences, and all manner of improvement: and, for what concerned France in relation to foreign countries, he professed “an emulation



emulation of only great actions and useful enterprises; and was determined to perpetuate a peace, that should constitute the happiness of the French, and the happiness of humanity." This indeed would have been true policy, and true glory. And there were not a few who entertained sanguine hopes that Bonaparte would have exhibited as illustrious an example of moderation and justice, as he had done of bravery, skill, and success in war. But it soon appeared that he was actuated only by the vulgar spirit of domination, which he pursued, both by arms and political intrigue. Peace was always in his mouth, war in his heart. Where the interests and the rights of men are consulted, though war may be resorted to in cases of necessity, the uniform end is peace. When tyranny and the lust of conquest prevail, though peace may occasionally be made the means, the end constantly in view is war. This system, unfortunately for the nations of Europe, was the system adopted by Bonaparte.

After the battle of Jena, a proposition was made, either by Russia in concert with her allies to the ruler of France, or by the ruler of France to Russia and her allies, for a congress of all the belligerent powers, to be held for the purpose of a general pacification. The Russian government, keeping a steady eye on Constantinople, objected to the admission of the Turks into the congress. Bonaparte insisted on the admission of the grand-signior as the friend and ally of France, in return for which, Russia would be permitted likewise in the congress to make common cause with England. Though the negotiation had been interrupted by a series of hot actions, and the king of Prussia, and the Russian generalissimo, had declined to enter into any treaty for an armistice, or peace, as noticed at p. 150, after the battle of Eylau; Bonaparte, on the fall of Dantzic, made a direct proposal for renewing the negotiation to the emperor Alexander, accompanied by a declaration, that he was desirous of peace above all things, and ready to listen to any reasonable overtures for that end.

The secret history of the negotiation for peace, the circumstances that determined the Russians to avoid a general action before the fall of Dantzic, and yet to make a vigorous attack on the French fifteen days after the capitulation of that place, time has not yet disclosed. On the 5th of June, the campaign began, and was concluded on the 15th; in the course of which ten days, were fought the battles of Heilsberg and Friedland, which will make a prominent figure in another article. On the 19th of June, 1807, at two o'clock P. M. Bonaparte with his guards entered Tilsit, the second town in Prussia, after Konigsberg; containing ten thousand inhabitants. The Russians, pursued after the battle of Friedland by the grand duke of Berg, crossed the Niemen, burned the bridge of Tilsit, and continued their retreat eastward. The emperor of Russia, who had remained three weeks with his Prussian majesty at Tilsit, left that place along with the king in great haste. On the 19th, an armistice was proposed to the *chiefs of the French army*, by the Russian commander-in-chief. In consequence of this, an armistice was agreed on at Tilsit, on the 22d of June, in which the Prussian armies were included. The first interview between Bonaparte, or the Emperor Napoleon as he was now called, and the Emperor Alexander, took place, on the 25th of June, on a raft constructed for the purpose, on the Niemen, where two tents had been prepared for their reception by the French. Alexander and Bonaparte landed from their boats at the same time, and embraced each other. Great were the mutual courtesies and expressions of kindness and respect that ensued among French, Russians, and Prussians, of all ranks; visiting, feasting, and all kinds of entertainment and festivity that could be thought of. Human nature gladly relaxed from the miserable rage of war, and indulged, and was eager to acknowledge, and emphatically to express, every sentiment of social and generous affection. A magnificent dinner was given by Napoleon's guards to those of Alexander

and the king of Prussia. At this entertainment they exchanged uniforms; and were to be seen in the streets in a motley kind of dress, partly Russian, partly Prussian, and partly French. A stranger to the ways of Europe, witnessing, at Tilsit, such ardent love among those different tongues and nations, from the highest to the lowest, might have wondered what could possibly have impelled such good-natural and tender-hearted people to the most horrid scenes of war and bloodshed.

A treaty of peace was concluded, between his majesty Napoleon, styling himself Emperor of the French and King of Italy, and his majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, at Tilsit, July 7th. The great sacrifice to peace, was, of course, the kingdom of Prussia, which was reduced at once from the rank of a primary to, at best, that of a secondary power of Europe, and all that had been done for the augmentation and aggrandizement of the monarchy by the great Frederic in the course of twenty years undone in one day. The king of Prussia, by the peace of Tilsit, together with an immense territory, lost near the half of his yearly revenues, and five millions of his subjects. For particulars we must refer our readers to the articles PRUSSIA and RUSSIA. On the whole, Prussia was brought back nearly to the state in which it was on the 1st of January, 1772, before the first partition of Poland.

Mr. Arbuthnot, the English minister at the Porte, who had observed, that, ever since the great victories obtained by the French over the Prussians, the influence of the French at Constantinople had increased, and that of Russia and England been proportionably diminished, did not fail to write home to our government the state of affairs there; and intelligence to the same effect was communicated to the British government by the Russian ministers at Petersburg, accompanied with a recommendation to send a British fleet, with a large military force, which might defeat the ascendancy of the French counsels at the Porte, and cause a powerful diversion of the force of France in favour of Russia. A negotiation for peace with the Porte was commenced by the Russian in conjunction with the English government. To give weight to this, a fleet, under the command of sir Thomas Duckworth, was sent to force the passage of the Dardanelles, and, if certain terms should not be acceded to by the Turkish government, to bombard Constantinople. The fleet consisted of seven ships of the line, besides frigates and bomb-ships. Two of the ships of the line were three-deckers, three carried 84 guns, and two 74. This naval force cast anchor at the Isle of Tenedos about the middle of February, where it was joined by the frigate on-board of which Mr. Arbuthnot had made his escape from the personal violence of which he had been in apprehension at Constantinople; he carried along with him all the English residing in that city.

Our fleet passed the Dardanelles on the morning of the 19th. A Turkish squadron, consisting of a 64-gun ship, four frigates, and several corvettes, had been for some time at anchor within the inner castles. Orders were given to commodore sir Sidney Smith, who was well acquainted with those seas, having been stationed there, with a naval force under his command, in 1799, to bear up with three ships of the line, and destroy them, if any opposition should be made to their passage. This division was followed closely by the other ships. At a quarter before nine o'clock, the whole of the squadron had passed the outer castles, without having returned a shot to the Turkish fire, which did our ships but little injury. This forbearance was intended to express the pacific disposition and amity of our sovereign and government towards the Sublime Porte. But, in passing the narrow strait, between Sestos and Abydos, our squadron sustained a very heavy fire from both castles. A tremendous fire was therefore opened by our ships of war on the castles, with such effect, that the firing of the Turks was in a great measure slackened when they were passed by the sternmost vessels of the squadron. The small Turkish

squadron.



Squadron within the inner castles was attacked by sir Sidney Smith, driven on-shore, and burnt; and the guns of a formidable battery, to the number of more than thirty, on a point of land which our Squadron had yet to pass, called Point Pesquiez, were spiked by a detachment of marines.

On the 20th of February, in the evening, the English Squadron came to anchor near the Isles of Princes, at the distance of eight miles from Constantinople. A flag of truce was immediately sent to the seraglio, with a letter from Mr. Arbuthnot to the Turkish government, recapitulating the efforts that he had made, by an amicable negotiation, to preserve the relations of peace and friendly intercourse between the Sublime Porte and Great Britain; and various considerations of interest, and former habits of mutual good-will and confidence, that were calculated to restore the same good understanding between the two powers, that had been unfortunately interrupted through the intrigues of a party inimical to both. At the same time, a letter in the same spirit was sent by the admiral sir Thomas Duckworth, to the reis effendi. After many conciliatory observations, he said, that, perceiving the change that had taken place in the disposition of the Sublime Porte, and having it in his power to destroy both the capital and ships of all descriptions, the line of conduct to be pursued in these circumstances lay clearly before him. Nevertheless, as he was convinced that the prince he had the honour to serve was far from being disposed to punish any others than the guilty; and being also persuaded that neither the sultan, nor his people, were disposed by any means to go to war with Great Britain, and that the measures complained of were to be ascribed solely to the base and pernicious intrigues and suggestions of the French; he would feel the utmost reluctance to involve so many innocent persons in the miseries and horrors of war, and the ruin and destruction of every object that was valuable and dear to them in life. The vice-admiral, moved by these considerations, proposed to the Turkish government, as a condition of peace and amity, *to deliver into his hands all the ships and vessels of war, belonging to the Sublime Porte, with all necessary stores and provisions; in which case the British Squadron would not, in any shape or degree, molest the city, but immediately retire beyond the Dardanelles.* He allowed the space of half an hour, after his note should be translated into the Turkish language, for the divan to deliberate and decide upon his proposition; protesting that, if he should be reduced to the hard necessity of seizing the ships by force, and proceeding to the work of destruction, for the accomplishment of which, he possessed ample means, the blame would lie on the Sublime Porte, not on the king, his master.

The vessel, bearing the flag of truce, was dispatched with these notes by break of day, on the morning of the 21st. But the officer who had charge of them, was not permitted to land; wherefore Mr. Arbuthnot sent back the flag of truce, with a short additional note, stating that, from an anxious desire of peace, it had been thought proper to make a second effort for the delivery of those sent before to the reis effendi, and expressing, in a few words, the substance of those notes, which was, to give the Sublime Porte the option of declaring itself either on the side of the French or the English; and that, if it should prefer the former alternative, still the British admiral would spare the city, *on the condition of surrendering to him the whole Turkish fleet, with sufficient naval stores.* In the middle of the night, between the 21st and 22d of February, Mr. Arbuthnot wrote another note to the reis effendi, stating that the English officers had discovered, by means of telescopes, how the time was employed that had been allowed the Sublime Porte for coming to a decision on the subject of the former notes, from himself and the British admiral. It had been observed, that the subjects of the Porte were busily engaged in withdrawing the ships of war from their usual stations, to places more capable of defence, and constructing batteries all along the coast. If those defensive measures

were not immediately stopped, the British ships of war would act in such a manner, as might be most conducive to British interests. His highness, the sultan, might give an assurance in two words, written with his own hand, that the good understanding between the Porte on the one part, and Great Britain and Russia on the other, would be renewed. The celerity with which the British fleet had passed the Dardanelles, was a proof that the determination announced would be carried into execution.

Early on the morning of the 24th, the English admiral received a letter from the reis effendi, signifying the disposition of the Porte to enter into a negotiation for a definitive treaty of peace immediately; and requested that a person, invested with full powers of treating on the part of the English, might be sent to meet the plenipotentiary who had been chosen by the Sublime Porte.—A correspondence now ensued, concerning the place where the conference should be held. The Turks proposed Dadi-koi, on the coast of Asia. The English admiral, either one of the Isles of Princes, or his own ship, the Royal George, or the Endymion frigate, which had been sent forward, bearing a flag of truce, and lay at anchor before Constantinople, while the ships of the line and bomb-ships kept at the distance already mentioned. The admiral, having previously apprised the Turkish government, moved the Squadron four miles nearer the city, but still kept without cannon-shot.

Threats were still intermixed with professions and tokens of amity; but in the mean time the fortifications of which the English complained were not interrupted, but continued night and day, with unremitting activity and vigour, at many different points, and on both the European and Asiatic sides of the canal of Constantinople. The flames of the small Turkish Squadron, destroyed on the 19th of February by sir Sidney Smith, did not intimidate the Turks, but roused and united them in a determination to resist aggression, and to preserve the city from destruction, and the contamination of infidels. The grand signior himself, conducted by the French ambassador, Sebastiani, appeared at the places most proper for the construction of redoubts and batteries. Men, women, and children, Turks, Armenians, Greeks, Ulemas, Sheiks, and Dervises, lent their aid. The Greek patriarch, and a number of his clergy, put their hands to the pick-axe and wheel-barrow. Thousands of workmen flocked from different quarters. The works were carried on under the direction of certain officers of the corps of engineers, and of artillery that had arrived opportunely from Dalmatia. The members of the divan, and other grandees, remained on the busy scene night and day, each of them at one battery, for encouraging the labouring people, and forwarding the work. They took the necessary repose in small tents. The grand signior too slept in a tent; and every day made the round of all the batteries, encouraging the workmen by kind looks and words, and the distribution of money. At the end of four days, batteries, with excellent breast-works, were mounted with 500 pieces of cannon and 100 mortars.—Such are the effects that may be produced by unanimity and zeal, among the inhabitants of a great city, in the public service!

Sir Thomas Duckworth was of opinion that, notwithstanding this enthusiasm of the populace, there was a sincere disposition to negotiate for peace, on the part of the Turkish government, up to February 27th; but, had there been no hopes of successful negotiation, it was not in his power to act otherwise than he did; for, from the moment of the Squadron's casting anchor, till that of its weighing anchor to repass the Dardanelles, which it did on the morning of the 1st of March, such was the unfortunate state of the weather, that it was not at any time in the power of the admiral to have occupied a station that would have enabled the Squadron to commence offensive operations against Constantinople. The fire of the two inner castles on our ships in their inward passage had been severe; but the effect they had on them in their return proved



proved them to have been doubly formidable. Bullets, or blocks of marble, of immense weight and size, were fired at our ships, from huge mortars. One of these, weighing 800 pounds, cut the mainmast of the Windsor man-of-war in two; and it was not without much trouble and pains that the ship was saved. Our loss of men in this unfortunate expedition, amounted, in killed and wounded, to about 250. Sir John Duckworth appears to have done every thing that was possible, to effect the object of the expedition; but the expedition itself was so ill contrived, that success was not to be expected. It was generally condemned, not only as being injudicious and weak, but silly and childish. Indeed one may say of this expedition, what the Turkish envoy to Charles VII. of France said of a grand tournament, exhibited for his amusement; "that, if it was in good earnest, there was not enough done; but, if it was in jest, too much."

The failure of our attempt on the capital of the Turkish empire seemed for some little time to have been, in no small degree, compensated by the possession of Alexandria.—On the 6th of March, a military force of about 5000 men, including three companies of artillery, with two engineers, was sent against that city, by general Fox, from Messina, under the command of major-general Mackenzie. On the night of the 17th, the Apollo frigate, with nineteen transports out of thirty-three which conveyed the troops, parted company; and the other fourteen, with the Tigre, came to an anchor, to the westward of Alexandria, on the 16th. When our squadron approached the land, a vessel was dispatched by major Misset, (who appears to have resided at Alexandria in the character of British consul, and with whom the general was directed by his instructions to consult as to the best plan of operations,) with a letter to him, earnestly recommending him to land the troops immediately, as the inhabitants were well affected to the English; and expressed his hopes that they should be able to get possession of the city, without firing a shot. The general stated the diminution of his force, in consequence of the separation of the nineteen transports. The major still urged his immediate landing. The troops were landed, part on the 17th, part on the 18th. The general, finding his situation, from the increased height of the surf and appearance of the weather, to be very precarious, both with respect to getting provisions or stores on-shore, or having any communication with the transports, determined, at all hazards, to force his way to the western side of the city, where he could receive supplies from Aboukir-bay, at the same time to advance into the town with the small force he had, and push his way, if possible, into the forts that commanded it. He therefore moved forward, about eight o'clock in the evening of the 18th. In their way, the British forced a pallisadoed entrenchment, with a deep ditch in front of it, that had been thrown up as a defence against the Mamalukes and Arabs, on the western side, stretching from Fort des Bains, on its right flank, mounting thirteen guns. This they effected with very little loss, though under a heavy fire of cannon and musquetry; and proceeded within a few yards of Pompey's Gate, where they found the garrison prepared to receive them, the gate barricadoed, and the walls lined with troops and armed inhabitants. This, added to the smallness of the British force, not much exceeding 1000, determined the general to proceed to the westward. In the morning of the 19th, he took up his position on the ground which the British troops had occupied in the action of the 21st of March, 1801; and immediately sent detachments to take possession of Aboukir-castle, and the cut between the lakes Mahadie and Mareotis, by which communication a reinforcement of Albanians was expected in Alexandria. In both these designs they succeeded.—The next day, the 20th, the general sent in by a friendly Arab, that had stolen out of the town, and joined the English, a manifesto addressed to the inhabitants, warning them of the danger of an assault, in the horrors of which friends would be involved with foes, and urging them to force the government to

capitulate. This had the desired effect: A flag of truce was agreed to and signed. The religion, the laws, and the property, of the inhabitants were respected. The vessels belonging to government, and all public property, to be given up to the British forces. The crews to be sent to a port of Turkey, with the arms and baggage of individuals; but to consider themselves as prisoners of war, and not to take up arms against the British forces or their allies, until exchanged. The garrison of Alexandria, before its surrender, consisted of 467 men; soldiers, gunners, sailors, and marines. The loss of the British, in this reduction of Alexandria, was no more than one officer, six rank and file, killed; one officer, one serjeant, eight rank and file, wounded. The Apollo, with the nineteen missing transports, came to anchor in Aboukir-bay on the morning of the 20th; and sir John Duckworth's squadron arrived there on the 22d.

In consequence of a strong representation, by major Misset, our resident at Alexandria, as just mentioned, that the inhabitants of Alexandria ran a risk of being starved, unless Rosetta and Rhamanie were occupied by British troops, general Frazer, with the concurrence of admiral Duckworth, March 27th, detached the 31st regiment, and the chasseurs Britanniques, amounting together to about 1500, under major-general Wauchope and brigadier-general Meade, for that purpose. Our troops took possession of the heights of Abermandour, which command the town of Rosetta, without any loss. But the general, instead of keeping his post there, penetrated, with his whole force, into the town, without any previous examination of it; when our men were so briskly fired on, and otherwise annoyed, from the windows and tops of houses, without ever seeing their enemy, that, after a loss of about 300 men in killed and wounded, they retired, in good order, to Aboukir, without molestation; from whence they were directed to return to Alexandria. Apprehensions of famine being still strongly declared both by our resident, major Misset, and the *forbagi*, or chief magistrate, in the name of the people, without the occupation of Rosetta, another corps, about 2500 strong, was sent for the reduction of this important place, under the command of the honourable brigadier-general Stewart and colonel Oswald. This force took post opposite the Alexandrian gate of Rosetta on the 6th of April, and, after a summons to the town to surrender was treated with defiance, began to form their batteries. Great fires had been laid by the British commander on assistance promised by the Mamalukes; and their appearance was now daily, or even hourly, expected. Lieutenant-colonel Macleod, with a detachment from the main body of our little army, was sent to seize an important post, at the village of El Hammed, for the purpose of facilitating a junction with the expected succour. No succour, after an anxious expectation of many days, nor intelligence of any succour, was received. Early on the morning of the 22d of April, sixty or seventy vessels were seen sailing down the Nile; and there could not be a doubt that this was a reinforcement sent to the enemy from Cairo. Orders were immediately dispatched to colonel Macleod to retreat from his position to the main body; but these orders were unfortunately intercepted. The detachment at El Hammed was completely cut off; and general Stewart, overpowered by so large a force, retreated, fighting all the way, to Alexandria.—Our loss in this unfortunate expedition was not less than 1000 men, in killed, wounded, and missing. This rash enterprise was deeply regretted, when it was afterwards found that the apprehensions of famine were altogether groundless. There was no scarcity of provisions at Alexandria; great quantities of rice, so great was the plenty, had been lately exported; while, at the same time, a quantity equal to a year's consumption of rice, and six months of wheat for the inhabitants, six months for the army, and four for the navy, remained on hand. Indeed, while the British garrison remained in Alexandria, provisions of all kinds became every day more and more plentiful.



Had this expedition against Egypt been planned by the new ministry, they would, no doubt, have supported it, by reinforcements from Messina or Malta. But they did not approve of it; and their disapprobation of it was not, it may be presumed, kept a secret from generals Mackenzie and Frazer, who, threatened with expulsion, by the disaffection of the inhabitants, and a formidable force of infantry and cavalry on its march from Cairo against Alexandria, abandoned the idea of making any defence. On the approach of the enemy, he sent out a flag of truce, announcing that, on the condition of the delivery of British prisoners, the army under his command should immediately evacuate Egypt; which condition was accepted without hesitation. The British troops, setting sail from Alexandria on the 23d of September, returned to Sicily; where they set free a part of our troops stationed there for the protection of that island. The troops thus liberated were brought to Gibraltar, with a view to co-operate in securing the retreat of the royal family of Portugal, from Lisbon; an object, however, which, as will by-and-by be related, was happily effected without the necessity of employing them.

Another expedition, still more unfortunate than those against Constantinople and Alexandria, had been undertaken, not by order of government, but by individual commanders on their own responsibility, against a nation bearing no small resemblance in their political state and relations to the subjects of the Ottoman Porte; a nation in its decline, prone to peace, and above all, though the government had been brought under the influence and power of Bonaparte, at peace with England. A combined military and naval force, under the command of general Beresford, and commodore sir Home Popham, proceeding from the Cape of Good Hope to the great river of La Plata, took the town of Buenos Ayres, the capital of a great province or government, without much resistance. It was soon retaken. But a re-inforcement of British troops from the Cape, towards the close of 1806, took post at Maldonado. Farther re-inforcements were expected; and farther operations on the Rio de La Plata projected.

During the years 1806 and 1807, and perhaps for some time before, there was an obvious want of system, connection, and dependency, among some of the measures of the British government; an air of improvidence, unsteadiness, and vacillation. It sufficiently appears, from documents published in an edition of sir Home Popham's trial, authenticated by himself, that his design on Buenos Ayres was countenanced by Mr. Pitt and lord Melville. Yet the same ministers had very nearly, at the same time, encouraged the design of general Miranda, conceived in quite a different spirit; a spirit of conciliation, concord, and conciliation.

General Miranda, with the knowledge and a good understanding between him and the British government, set out from England for the purpose of carrying into execution, if possible, his long-cherished project of emancipating Spanish America. He proceeded to the United States of America, for the purpose of procuring that assistance, which, from the assurances he had received while in this country, he had every reason to expect, particularly at a period when there was every prospect of a war between the United States and Spain, on account of a dispute about Louisiana. But, on his arrival, he had the mortification to find that the dispute about Louisiana was compromised; and that, although the wishes of the American, like those of the British, government were for him, he could not expect their avowed assistance. The general, however, animated by that persevering ardour which is inspired into great minds by great designs, induced, on terms agreed on, Mr. Ogden, a merchant of New York, to fit out a ship, the *Leander*, captain Lewis, with two hundred young men of great respectability, who volunteered their services; and to proceed with her to St. Domingo, for the purpose of being joined by a second vessel, the *Emperour*, commanded

by another captain Lewis, brother to the master of the *Leander*. Unfortunately, soon after the departure of the *Leander* from New York, the American government, giving way to the urgent solicitations of the French and Spanish ambassadors, brought an action against Mr. Ogden, and a colonel Smith, a zealous friend to the cause of general Miranda, on the plea, that the equipment of the *Leander* was unauthorized and illegal. The parties prosecuted were honourably acquitted. But the first consequences of the trial were of incalculable detriment to general Miranda's expedition; for, the master of the *Emperour* having heard, while at St. Domingo, that an action had been brought against the parties just mentioned, absolutely refused to proceed on its destination. It now became necessary to engage, instead of the *Emperour*, two small schooners. The general, however, though thus cruelly disappointed in his expectation of being joined by the armed ship *Emperour*, of about thirty guns, proceeded with his little squadron for the coast of Caraccas; where, as he supposed that the Spanish government still continued ignorant of his movements, he hoped to effect a landing without opposition. The Spanish ambassador, however, having obtained information of this enterprise, sent advice thereof to the governor of Caraccas; where general Miranda, instead of meeting, as he expected, with none but friends apprised of his approach, had the mortification to learn that the government of Caraccas had given the necessary orders for taking measures of defence, and where his two schooners unfortunately fell into the hands of the Spanish guarda costas. In these circumstances, general Miranda failed directly for Trinidad, for the purpose of procuring a British auxiliary force. Admiral Cochrane, then commanding on the windward station, assured the general of support, in both ships and men; and immediately ordered some sloops of war and gunboats to proceed with him on the expedition. Thus reinforced at Trinidad, the general set sail from thence, on the 24th of July, 1806, again for the coast of Caraccas, with his little fleet, now consisting of about fifteen vessels in all, and having on-board about five hundred officers and men, all volunteers. On the morning of the 2d of August, his little army effected its landing at a place called *Vela-de-Coro*. But, the disembarkation having been delayed by a gale of wind, and the ignorance, perhaps the treachery, of the pilot, for thirty-six hours, the agents of the Spanish government had time for spreading the alarm along the coast, and preparing for defence. The boats, with the troops on-board, however, rowed boldly, in the dark, for the shore; where upwards of 500 Spanish soldiers, and about 700 Indians, were drawn up to oppose the landing. The Spaniards kept up a heavy but ineffectual fire on the boats, as they approached; but, without returning the fire, they quickly gained the shore; when, on general Miranda and his troops advancing on the enemy, and exchanging a couple of volleys, which wounded a few on both sides, the Spaniards fled in every direction, and the Indians, released from the presence of their late masters, flocked in crowds around their new victors, and, learning the object of their arrival, cried out, "Success to general Miranda!" Two forts, and upwards of twenty guns, intended to protect the port of La Vela, immediately surrendered, with their stores and ammunition. And general Miranda, assured of the friendly disposition of the inhabitants of *Vela-de-Coro*, who amounted to upwards of 3000, set out, a few hours afterwards, on his march for the city of *Coro*, situated about fifteen English miles up the country, and containing a population of about 12,000 persons. He entered *Coro* before day-break next morning. From *Vela-de-Coro*, general Miranda, under the title of Commander-in-chief of the Columbian Army, issued a proclamation to the inhabitants of Columbian America, in which he says, "Brave countrymen and friends! In obedience to your wishes, and the repeated requests and calls of the country to whose service we have cheerfully consecrated the greater



part of our lives, we have disembarked in this province of Caracas. The opportunity, and the time, appear to us highly favourable for the completion of our designs; and all persons composing the army are your friends and countrymen—all resolved to sacrifice their lives, if necessary, for your liberty and independence, under the auspices of the British navy. The innocent Indians, and other men, will consider us all as brother-citizens, and that precedence belongs only to merit and virtue; in which belief, they will primarily obtain, most certainly, military and civil recompenses, the reward of merit alone." An arrangement was announced for carrying the plan of emancipation into execution, with due security and efficacy. The principles and views with which the little Columbian army had landed on the shores of South America, were also unfolded in other proclamations, and in letters to the city council of Coro, and the bishop of Merida. "Their principal object was the independence of the whole Columbian continent, for the benefit of all its inhabitants, and the inhabitants of the human race." The members of this council, who, on the approach of general Miranda to Coro, had retired to Buena Vista, a few miles from town, kept up a secret correspondence with the general for several days; during which time, the most friendly civilities were interchanged between the general and all the respectable families of the place. But the smallness of his force prevented confidence in his success. The people dreaded the cruel vengeance of the Spanish government, in the event of his defeat; and, as the captain-general of Caracas was collecting troops, general Miranda retired from Coro, and removed his head-quarters to the shore; having previously assured the people, in a proclamation, of his just and friendly intentions, and that "it was not in the cities, but in the field, that he and his army wished to fight with the oppressors alone of the Columbian people." From thence, general Miranda dispatched an officer (captain Ledlie) to our naval and military commanders on the Jamaica station, to represent his prospects, the absolute necessity there was for a force sufficient to give confidence to the South-American people, and to request that this aid might be sent to him without delay. Sir Eyre Coote and admiral Dacres regretted that they were precluded from giving the assistance which his views demanded, as they had not received any official instructions from home on this subject. Admiral Dacres, however, gave orders to his cruisers to afford every possible protection. Captain Ledlie immediately returned with this answer to general Miranda; who, after dispatching that officer to Jamaica, had proceeded himself with his troops to Araba, a few leagues from Vela-de-Coro, with an intent to seize the strong post of Rio de la Hache, and there wait the arrival of succours. Soon after, admiral Cochrane sent him a ship of the line, and two frigates, with reiterated assurances of support. But, erroneous reports having reached the West-Indies, that preliminaries of peace between Great Britain and France had been signed by lord Lauderdale at Paris, and these reports accompanied with an intimation that admiral Cochrane would consequently be obliged entirely to withdraw the aid of the naval force, general Miranda found himself under the necessity of abandoning all farther operations on the Spanish Main, and retired with his companions in arms to Trinidad.

Had general Miranda been seasonably supported by the co-operation of a British auxiliary force, as he had reason to expect, his success would have been complete. The grand design in which he and his worthy companions were engaged, was not marred and disgraced by any selfish and dishonourable considerations of personal gain. On the contrary, his chief care was to direct the views of his officers and men to the grandeur and glory of the object before them, and to inspire them with a sense of the necessity of constantly observing a suitable conduct towards the people whom they had come to emancipate; while, at the same time, he used all possible means to convince his

countrymen of the beneficence of his views, as well as of the equitable and conciliatory measures by which he hoped to attain them. In short, the expedition to Caracas, under Miranda, conceived in a spirit the most liberal and generous, formed a direct contrast with that which was on foot about the same time to the Rio de La Plata, which appears to have originated in a spirit of rapacity and plunder.

The commander of the land-troops in this last expedition (brigadier-general Beresford) displayed, in his conduct, military skill, promptitude of decision, and cool courage; and also the noblest generosity and winning affability towards the inhabitants of Buenos Ayres, and all men. And, although he was not authorized to have recourse to the conciliatory measures by which he might have united the interests of Great Britain with those of Spanish America, the lives, the property, and the prejudices, of the people who had fallen under his power, were respected; and the attachment of the inhabitants of Buenos Ayres to his person, was won by many disinterested and generous acts of kindness. It was the success of the expedition, a secure and permanent footing on La Plata, that was his object, not personal gain and plunder. The military eye of the general pointed to Monte Video, as the first object of attack, not Buenos Ayres; but, with too much facility, he gave way to the earnest desire of the naval commander of the armament, who was seconded by all the captains of ships, to advance immediately against Buenos Ayres, the depôt of so much public and private treasure. It unfortunately happened that the commodore, with equal inhumanity, it must be owned, and impolicy, had sent on-shore 200 Spaniards, the crews of some vessels that had fallen into his hands, on the island of Lobos, in La Plata, several leagues distant from Maldonado, that he might not be incumbered with so many prisoners, leaving them to the danger of perishing from famine. The men subsisted some time on the flesh of seals and shell-fish. At length, a number of them, with the assistance of the skins of seals, formed into somewhat that assisted them in swimming, as bladders do, made their way to the shore; when a vessel was sent to the desert isle, consisting of little else than a ledge of rocks, to fetch their companions. These men came to Buenos Ayres, and, by relating what had happened to them, inspired the inhabitants with sentiments of indignation, aversion, and horror. The deportment of the commodore, at a meeting with the cabildo, was not of a nature to do away the prejudice that was contracted against him: it was haughty and insolent, and altogether that of a proud conqueror; though, when our troops took possession of Buenos Ayres, the commodore was at a very considerable distance. An incident happened, of a kind somewhat ludicrous, that marked how much sir Home, in this expedition to Buenos Ayres, was bent upon plunder. At a time when general Beresford was involved in a conflict with the Spaniards, a black boy arrived with a letter from sir Home Popham to the general, informing him that in a certain church he would find a very considerable treasure. When matters had grown worse and worse with the British at Buenos Ayres, and the general wished to concert with the naval commander some measures for extrication, sir Home was in a great haste to break up the conference, and get on-board a frigate that carried him to his squadron, at anchor a great way down the river, as far as Monte Video. This abrupt retreat had greatly the appearance of forsaking the army, and running away; and every one said that the commodore had shown more anxiety about securing the plunder, than co-operating with the army, by taking such positions with the ships under his command as might have tended to intercept the passage of Spanish troops from Monte Video to Colonia de Sacramento, and from thence to the right bank of the Rio de la Plata, on which Buenos Ayres is situated, to the haven of Las Conchas.

This unauthorized expedition, instigated and undertaken by sir Home Popham, was not more dishonourable and disadvantageous



disadvantageous to the British government than it was detrimental to a very great number of individuals. Sir Home Popham wrote home to the society at Lloyd's coffee-house, and to the principal manufacturing towns in Britain, setting forth how fine a market had been opened to a great variety of English goods. And the ministry, as soon as they heard of the conquest of Buenos Ayres, sent thither a ship of war with a convoy of merchantmen. The market was overflocked; many London merchants suffered great loss, and some were ruined. The *conduct* of Sir Home Popham was generally attributed to rapacity; his *success*, as far as his own interest was concerned, in his projects, to a very plausible, eloquence, and address in operating on the particular characters, prejudices, interest, and passions, of men, and bodies of men. His *conduct* was declared by a court-martial, held in March 1807, to be highly reprehensible in a British officer, and leading to a subversion of all military discipline, as well as subordination to government; and he was reprimanded accordingly.

It was not greatly to be wondered at, that the British ministry did not show much promptitude in supporting an expedition unauthorized by government, and originating in such views as that of Sir Home Popham's enterprise against Buenos Ayres. Besides, the views and hopes of Mr. Fox were wholly pacific. He was not disposed, it may be presumed, to send out an armament to the Rio-de-la-Plata, so long as there was any hope that all differences with France might be settled by negotiation. His inviolable attachment to peace was perhaps the noblest feature in his public character. Even his most determined enemies lamented his death, when they saw the negotiations which had owed their birth entirely to him expire as our only minister of peace expired.

In October 1806, the very month after Mr. Fox's death, a reinforcement was sent to La Plata, from England, under the command of Sir Samuel Auchmuty, and convoy of Sir Charles Stirling, in the Ardent ship of war, who was appointed to supersede Sir Home Popham in the naval department. The transports were such bad failers, that they were obliged, in their voyage, to go into Janeiro for water. He there received intelligence of the recapture of Buenos Ayres; but of our having possession of Maldonado, near the mouth of the river. The general, on his arrival at Maldonado, found our troops were without artillery, without stores of any kind, with only a few days' provision, and without any prospect of procuring more, unless by detaching a large force many miles into the country, exposed to the insults of a corps of 400 horse, that hovered round the English to intercept supplies. Maldonado was an open town, and so situated, that with a small force it could not be rendered tenable. The only point that appeared assailable with propriety, as it had also done to general Beresford, was Monte Video. He conceived his resources equal to the enterprise; but he found it a most arduous undertaking. He had not entrenching-tools sufficient to make approaches; and, after a few days' firing, the whole powder in the fleet was reduced to 500 barrels, about four days' consumption; to add to his difficulties, 4000 picked troops, with 24 pieces of cannon, were rapidly approaching him. He therefore determined, if possible, to take the place by assault; in which design, though with a heavy loss, he happily succeeded. The number of British troops employed in the reduction of Monte Video amounted to upwards of 4000, of which 1200 were engaged in the storm; that of the Spaniards to 6000. The loss of the British, which fell chiefly on the storming column, was 600. The loss of the enemy was very great; about 800 killed, 500 wounded, and upwards of 2000 officers and men, including the governor, prisoners. The merit of our soldiers was greatly enhanced by the bravery of their opponents. Sir Charles Stirling, in his letter to Mr. Windham, dated Monte Video, Feb. 8, says, "It has been much the custom to speak slightly of the resistance to be expected from the Spaniards in this country, and with confidence of the facility which has been given to

naval operations by a prior knowledge of the river; but the battles lately fought prove the former opinion to be erroneous; and experience proves that all the information hitherto acquired had not prevented the most formidable difficulties."

Before intelligence was received of the recapture of Buenos Ayres, in August, by the Spaniards, it was hoped by the British ministry, that an expedition to the west might meet with the same success which, it was yet believed, had attended his majesty's arms on the east coast of South America. With a view to this object, and to the opening and facilitation of a commercial intercourse with the interior of the country, a force of 4200 men was sent out, under the command of brigadier-general Craufurd, at the end of October 1806, accompanied with a competent naval force under that of admiral Murray. The choice of the course to be steered, whether to the eastward, by the way of New South Wales, or to the westward, round Cape Horn, was left to admiral Murray, who, it appears, proceeded in the eastern direction as far as the Cape of Good Hope. It was explained to the general, that the object of the expedition was the capture of the seaports and fortresses, and the reduction of the province of Chili. If the general should succeed in obtaining possession of Valparaiso and St. Jago, or establishing any other sufficient footing in Chili, he was instructed to take the earliest possible means of appointing brigadier-general Beresford thereof, and of concerting with him the means of securing, by a chain of posts, or in any other adequate manner, an uninterrupted communication, both military and commercial, between the provinces of Chili and Buenos Ayres.

But, when intelligence was received of the recapture of Buenos Ayres by the Spanish soldiery assisted by the townsmen, the Fly sloop of war was dispatched with orders to general Craufurd to proceed, not to Chili, but to the Rio de la Plata, to join the British force under the command of Sir Samuel Auchmuty. The sloop fortunately, as was then supposed, arrived before the general left the Cape of Good Hope. He set sail from the Cape in April, and arrived in La Plata on the 14th of June. After this junction between the two generals, the whole British force in La Plata was computed at 9500 men. "As it had been thought advisable, (to use the words of the secretary of state for the department of war and colonies,) that an officer of high rank, as well as talents and judgment, should be sent to take the command of such of his majesty's forces as were at that time employed, or likely soon to be employed, in the southern provinces of South America, it was his majesty's pleasure to make choice for that purpose of *general Whitelocke*." The general accordingly set sail for his destination early in March, carrying an additional force of 1630 men; of which there was a troop of horse-artillery to the number of 130, dismounted, with harness and appointments. The service intrusted to his care, was the reduction of the whole province of Buenos Ayres.

General Whitelocke arrived in La Plata on the 9th of May: on the 11th, he took the command of the troops; one division of which, consisting of the troops that had arrived with general Craufurd, was stationed at Colonia, opposite to Buenos Ayres, and one at Monte Video. Transports were ordered for the reception of troops for their passage to Buenos Ayres. On the 28th of June, a force was assembled near Encenada de Barragon, amounting to 7822 rank and file; including 150 mounted dragoons. It was provided with eighteen pieces of field-artillery, and 206 horses and mules for their conveyance, and for that of small-arm ammunition. There was, besides, a large quantity of ordnance-stores embarked, and a reserve-artillery of heavy pieces, mortars and howitzers. There were entrenching-tools for 1000 men, six pontoons with their carriages, &c. &c.

After some fatiguing marches, through a country much intersected by swamps and deep muddy rivulets, the army reached Reduction, a village about nine miles distant from the



the bridge over the Rio Chuelo; on the opposite bank of which, the enemy had constructed batteries, and established a formidable line of defence. The general, therefore, resolved to turn this position, by marching in two columns from his left, and, crossing the river higher up, to unite his force in the suburbs of Buenos Ayres. He sent directions at the same time to colonel Mahon, who, with two regiments, was bringing up the heavy artillery, to wait for further orders at the village of Reduccion. Major-general Gower, having the command of the right column, crossed the river at a ford called Passo Chico, and, falling in with a corps of the enemy, attacked and defeated it. Next day, general Whitelocke, with the main body of the army, having joined general Gower, formed his line by placing sir Samuel Auchmuty's brigade on the left, extending it towards the convent of the Recoletta, from which it was distant two miles. Two regiments were stationed on its right. Brigadier-general Craufurd's brigade occupied the central and principal avenues of the town, being distant three miles from the great square and fort; three regiments on his right extended in a line towards the Residencia.

The town was thus nearly invested; and this disposition of the army, and the circumstances of the town and suburbs being divided into squares of 140 yards each side, together with the knowledge that the enemy meant to occupy the flat roofs of the houses, gave rise to the following plan of attack: Brigadier-general sir S. Auchmuty to take possession, with a regiment, of the Plaza de Toros, and the adjacent strong ground, and there to take post. Four other regiments, divided into wings, were ordered to penetrate into the street directly in its front. The light battalion divided into wings, and each followed by a wing of the 95th regiment and a three-pounder, was ordered to proceed down the two streets on the right of the central one, and the 25th regiment down the two adjoining; and, after clearing the streets of the enemy, this latter regiment was to take post at the Residencia. Two six-pounders were ordered along the central street, covered by the carabineers and three troops of the 9th light dragoons; the remainder of which regiment was placed as a reserve in the centre. Each division was ordered to proceed along the street directly in its front, till it arrived at the last square of the houses next the river Plata; of which square it was to take possession, forming on the flat roofs, and there wait for further orders. Two corporals with tools were ordered to march at the head of each column, for the purpose of breaking open the doors. The whole troops were unloaded; and no firing was to be permitted until the columns had reached their final points and formed. A cannonade in the central streets was the signal for the whole to come forward.—The issue of the conflict which ensued, was such as was to be expected from a plan so weak, and indeed ludicrous. Our troops moving forward in the appointed order, with their unloaded muskets and iron crows, were assailed by a heavy and continued shower of musketry, hand-grenades, bricks, and stones, from the tops of the windows of the houses, the doors of which were barricaded in so strong a manner, as to render it almost impossible to force them. The streets were intersected by deep ditches; and cannon, planted on the inside of these, poured volleys of grape-shot on our advancing columns. They were saluted also with grape-shot at the corners of all the streets. Every householder, with his negroes, defended his own dwelling, which was in itself a fortress. Yet, in the midst of all this assaillance, and while the male population of Buenos Ayres, by the means of destruction just mentioned, was employed in its defence, sir S. Auchmuty, after a most spirited and vigorous attack, in which his brigade suffered much from grape-shot and musketry, made himself master of the Plaza de Toros, took 82 pieces of cannon, an immense quantity of ammunition, and 600 prisoners; which served as a place of refuge to some other regiments that were overpowered by the enemy. Brigadier-general Craufurd with his bri-

gade, being cut off from all communication with any of the other columns, was obliged to surrender; so also was lieutenant-colonel Duff, with a detachment under his command. Still, however, the result of this day's action left general Whitelocke in possession of the Plaza de Toros, a strong post on the enemy's right, and the Residencia, another strong post on his left; whilst general Whitelocke himself occupied an advanced post on his centre. But these advantages had cost about 2500 men in killed, wounded, and prisoners.—This was the situation of our army on the morning of the 6th of July, when general Linieres addressed a letter to the British commander, offering to give up all his prisoners taken in the late affair, together with the 71st regiment, and others taken with brigadier-general Beresford, on the condition of his desisting from any further attack on the town, and withdrawing his majesty's forces from the river Plata; intimating, at the same time, that, from the exasperated state of the populace, he could not answer for the safety of the prisoners if he persisted in offensive operations. General Whitelocke, influenced by this consideration (which, he says, he knew from better authority to be founded in fact), and reflecting of how little advantage would be the possession of a country the inhabitants of which were so absolutely hostile, resolved to forego the advantages which the bravery of his troops had obtained, and acceded to a treaty of peace, on the basis that had been proposed by the Spanish commander.

At a general court-martial, held at the hospital of Chelsea, on the 28th of January, 1808, and continued by adjournments until the 18th of March, lieutenant-general John Whitelocke received the following sentence: "That the said lieutenant-general Whitelocke be cashiered, and declared totally unfit and unworthy to serve his majesty in any military capacity whatever."

The plan of attack on Buenos Ayres adopted by general Whitelocke, it would appear, was none of his own contrivance, but one proposed to him by lieutenant-general Gower. This was declared by the general himself in his defence; and general Gower admitted in his evidence, that the basis of the plan adopted by general Whitelocke was very much like his. Indeed, general Whitelocke appears, from his trial, to have been very undecided and wavering in his conduct, and in that state of mind which reposes on the counsels of others. Towards the end of the trial, public curiosity was less excited to know its issue, than the interest or means by which general Whitelocke had obtained his important appointment.

After the battle of Friedland and the peace of Tilsit, all the continent of Europe lay prostrate before Bonaparte. But the island of Great Britain, mistress of the seas, still defied his power, and threatened to harass his extended coasts with never-ceasing aggression, which she seemed still able to continue by means of the resources opened by her vast commerce. It was against this commerce, that Bonaparte had now to make war; and, as he could not do this at sea, his fleets having been almost annihilated, he conceived the extravagant design of doing it at land, by shutting it out, not only from the ports of France, Italy, and Holland, but from all the ports of Europe.

By a decree, dated at Hamburgh, November 11, 1807, and another at Milan, the 27th of December, declaring the whole island of Great Britain to be in a state of blockade, he in a great degree compelled all the other continental powers, even Portugal for a time not excepted, to prohibit commerce with any of the dominions of his Britannic majesty. No nation was allowed to trade with any other country, in any articles, the growth, produce, or manufactures, of any of the British dominions, all of which, as well as the island of Great Britain itself, were declared to be in a state of blockade. He appointed commercial residents in every trading country; and no ship was to be admitted into any of his ports without a



*certification of origin*, that is, of the nature of the goods they carried, and that no part of these was English.

The wants of men, not the less importunate that they were luxurious or artificial, having opened back-doors to various English articles, both manufactures and colonial produce, he enforced the execution of his decrees against English commerce, by means of new regulations, with greater and greater rigour. In consequence of these decrees, the English commerce, during the months of August, September, and October, 1807, that part of the year in which the Berlin decree of November, 1806, was carried into full effect, was not only greatly cramped, but lay prostrate on the ground, and motionless, until a protecting and self-defensive system was interposed by our orders in council. An order of council, January 7th, 1807, containing a measure of mild retaliation, had been evaded, and turned to the advantage of the enemy, in carrying on a circuitous trade to this country. Therefore new orders of council were issued on the 11th and 21st of November, allowing neutrals to trade with countries not at peace and amity with Great Britain, on the condition of their touching at the ports of this country, and paying the customs or taxes imposed by the British government. The neutrals were thus placed between confiscation and confiscation. If they went to an enemy's port without first paying duty here, they were to be captured by our cruisers; and, if they came here and paid the duty, then they would be confiscated if they went to the ports of the enemy. The options were both of them hard. It was a system that ran into great complexity; order upon order in explanation, was issued respecting various cases. But, on the whole, immediately after the orders of council were issued, trade began again to lift up its head, and to flourish: not perhaps so greatly as at its best former period; for the injurious and violent system of the enemy, though counteracted by the orders of council, could not be wholly fruitless.

A treaty of amity had been made by lord Grenville, with America, on the 31st of December, 1806; but it was not ratified by the president of the congress. For an unauthorized act of force, committed against an American ship of war, spontaneous reparation had been made by Great Britain. But with this particular case the American government attempted to connect the general question, respecting the right of searching for British seamen and deserters; to abandon which, was considered by the British government as inconsistent with the maritime rights of Britain.

To balance, in some measure, the discouragements arising to our commerce from the misunderstanding with the United States, which was every day growing worse, a commercial and friendly intercourse was established between Great Britain and general Christophe, who, having defeated and destroyed the emperor Dessalines, governed a great part of the island of St. Domingo, under the more modest title of President of Hayti. See the article *HISPANIOLA*, vol. x. p. 204.—Christophe appears to have possessed, in a very eminent degree, the virtues of humanity, and a regard to the true interests of his country, as well as good sense, and military skill and courage. He declared it to be the great object of his government, to repair the havoc and devastation of Hayti, by the establishment of just laws, social order, freedom of trade, and, above all, a commercial and friendly alliance with the only people that had stood forth in support of regular government and law, in so many countries subverted, and every-where shaken. He had great confidence, and a predilection, for the personal character of the English. He spared the lives of the crowds of prisoners that had fallen into his hands; took great care of the sick and wounded; and assured all men, peaceably disposed, of his protection.

Christophe, with the assistance of other men of enlarged views, had been employed for some time, in the formation of a new constitution for Hayti; which was proclaimed on the 17th of February, 1807, the fourth year

of independence. The whole of the code of Christophe displays patriotism, moderation, firmness, and political wisdom. The tenth head, guaranteeing the neighbouring colonies, was a masterly stroke of policy: "The government of Hayti declares to the powers possessing colonies in the neighbourhood, never to interfere in the government of those countries. The people of Hayti make no conquests beyond their own isle, and content themselves with the conservation of their own territory."

A number of turbulent persons in the southern part of Hayti had formed designs of revolt and revolution in Jamaica, and had sent emissaries there for that purpose. But general Christophe, who had been informed of the plot, and who were the principal individuals concerned in it, immediately denounced them, and they were arrested.—It was impossible for the British government to be otherwise than on good terms with such a neighbour. An order of council was issued at the court of St. James's, February 1807, authorizing all British merchantmen bound for Buenos Ayres and La Plata, to proceed to any port in the island of St. Domingo not under the power of France or Spain, there to dispose of their cargoes, to take the produce of the country in return, and either to bring such cargoes directly to any port of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, or to ship them on-board neutral vessels, to be sold at any of the colonies of the enemy; the owners of the cargoes to return with the proceeds of such adventures on-board the neutral vessels to any of the ports of the united kingdom.—This measure was certainly wisely calculated both for encouraging the trade of Hayti, and of Great Britain and Ireland.

Another event, fortunate for the British commerce, happened on the 1st of January, 1807. The island of Curaçoa was taken by a squadron of British frigates, commanded by captain Brisbane, under the orders of vice-admiral Dacres, with the loss of only three men killed, and fourteen wounded. Yet the harbour was defended by regular fortifications, of two tiers of guns; Fort Amsterdam alone mounted 66 pieces of cannon. The entrance was only fifty yards wide; and across it were moored two frigates, and two large schooners of war. A chain of forts on the commanding heights of Mideburg, and Fort Republique, deemed nearly impregnable, was within distance of grape-shot, and enfiladed the whole harbour. Soon after day-break, the British frigates made all possible sail in close order of battle. The vessels appointed to intercept their entrance were taken by boarding; the lower forts, the citadel, and town of Amsterdam, by storm. The port was entered at a quarter after six in the morning. Before ten a capitulation was signed. The British flag was hoisted on Fort la Republique. And the inhabitants of the town, to the number of 30,000, swore allegiance to the British government.

In contemplating the events of this year, the mind is forcibly impressed by a very general, and, as it should at first sight appear, a very calamitous, extension of the war in which our country had been for so many years, almost uninterruptedly, engaged. We call this extension *apparently* calamitous, because, although we see powers hitherto neutral, and some of them the allies of Great Britain, reversing their respective relations, and engaging in hostilities against her; yet, on a slight view of the means of annoyance possessed by those powers, and on reference to what has actually happened, it will be seen also, that, in reluctantly submitting themselves to the dictates of the French ruler, they have forced upon us contests for the most part bloodless, in which the pen rather than the sword has been the arbiter of our differences. Austria, Russia, the Ottoman Porte, Prussia, and Denmark, had, in the present year, been added to the already-formidable host of our enemies; and it cannot escape observation, with what indifference so large an accession of hostile agency was received by the British public, and, we may also add, by the government into whose balance the weight



of it was thrown. The excitement of the national sensibility was chiefly reserved for the Danish war: a circumstance highly creditable to the national feelings and character, as it must be recollected, that Denmark was, with one exception, the weakest of our new adversaries, and that it was from hostilities against her only that Great Britain derived those advantages by which she succeeded in counteracting the designs of the more powerful of them.

The war with Denmark, and the military and naval measures by which it was commenced, offering the first grand feature of active and successful warfare that occurred in this year, as well as the first specimen of the politics of the new administration, it is our duty to present this subject to our readers in one connected view; in order to which, we must take a short retrospect of preceding events. In the course of the negotiations which, from the unfortunate peace of Presburg, and the still more lamentable policy of the Prussian cabinet, terminated in the conclusion of the treaties of Vienna and Paris, between Prussia and France, repeated intimations were given by Bonaparte, when he found that the tide of fortune continued to run in his favour, that one of the first and principal uses he should make of his success, would be, to cut off those channels of communication which Great Britain still preserved with the continent. As the concurrence, and even the co-operation, of Prussia was necessary for this purpose, to her were these intimations first addressed. She was not long in acceding to those measures, which, ere many months elapsed, proved the cause of her own downfall: she took forcible possession of the King's German dominions, and excluded the British flag from her own ports, and from others to which her power or influence extended.

Denmark offered yet a feeble obstacle to the wishes of Bonaparte: it was to overawe her that he next turned his attention. To engage her by fair or foul means to shut the ports of her German provinces, and to attempt to obstruct the commerce of England in its passage through the Sound, was the next step in his restless career. This was announced in no unintelligible terms, by the many official and unofficial agents, which his active diplomacy employed in every court of Europe: the public newspapers were sometimes made the expounders of his will upon these topics. The court of Denmark could not be the last informed of what was passing; her own interests, and the desire of Bonaparte, that she should at once learn his determination, and the success he had met with in binding Prussia to it, speedily put her in possession of what she was to expect. She took the alarm. In hopes, perhaps, of obtaining some consolatory information, or in the still more delusive expectation of deriving some assistance by which to avert the impending storm, count Bernstorff, the Danish minister for foreign affairs, undertook a journey to Berlin. That court, divided as it had been, for some months, between the honest but feeble endeavours of one minister and the infamous intrigues of another, had not yet thrown itself into the gulf. Its final and official consent to Bonaparte's proposal had not been given; and the well-intentioned part of the Prussian ministry was still in hopes of preserving their own and their country's honour. To these men count Bernstorff directed his attention—on them his hopes rested; and, as they did not despair of maintaining their own independence, they allowed him to believe that they would assist in the support of that of Denmark. He accordingly did not hesitate to assert, that Denmark would resist any attempt upon her independence, from whatever quarter it came. At that time, possibly, he believed it; and the events of the summer of 1806 rather tended to confirm him in this belief. The battle of Jena, however, and its immediate consequences, dissipated the delusion. Then Bonaparte became the absolute disposer of all the north and north-east of Germany: he placed garrisons in the Hans-towns; he violated the neutrality of the Danish territory, and assumed, for the winter, a position so bordering upon it,

held himself, and by his agents, such language, and authorized acts of such magnitude, that there could no longer remain, in the mind of any unprejudiced man, a doubt as to his future intentions.

Such was the state of things, when the British government, having kept an attentive eye upon the transactions which led to it, determined to send to sea a powerful military and naval armament, consisting of about 20,000 men, and a fleet of 27 sail of the line, with vessels of all other descriptions, to the number of near ninety pendants. But such had been the secrecy attending these preparations, that the whole force was nearly ready for sea before the extent of it was known to the public; and it had actually left the ports of England many days before its destination was even suspected. A division of the fleet, under the immediate direction of commodore Keats, was detached to the Great Belt, with instructions to allow no military force whatever to enter Zealand. That enterprising and judicious officer led his line-of-battle ships through a little-known and intricate navigation, without the smallest accident; and stationed his whole squadron in such a manner, as that, by the vessels being within telegraph-distance of each other, nothing could attempt to pass them without a certainty of interception. The communication was entirely cut off between Zealand, the adjacent isle of Funen, and the main land of Holstein, Sleswic, and Jutland. No troops from any of the latter could pass into Zealand; which was thus placed, as to any military succour, in a complete state of blockade—a wise and humane precaution, calculated at once to ensure the success of our enterprise, and to render it as bloodless as possible, if it should be ultimately necessary to have recourse to arms. The British army accompanied the main body of the fleet to the Sound, where it was reinforced by the troops that had been for some time employed at Stralsund and the isle of Rügen, as auxiliaries to the king of Sweden. Lord Cathcart, who was with those troops, was appointed to be the chief command of the whole land-force. Admiral Gambier, one of the lords of the admiralty, commanded the fleet.

Hitherto the warlike preparations of our government appear as the most prominent feature of this undertaking. Much of its success was indeed expected to be derived from them; but it was, at the same time, understood, that, with the exception of the above-mentioned eventual and precautionary order to obstruct the passage of any troops across the Belt, the whole of our armament was to remain, in the first instance, inactive. No offensive operations were to be undertaken, until the result of a negotiation was known, which was, at the same time, to be opened with the court of Denmark, in order to obtain, without hostility, and by an arrangement equally advantageous to both countries, the object which was considered of paramount importance to Great Britain.

To conduct this negotiation, his majesty's ministers selected Mr. Jackson, who had, for several preceding years, resided at the court of Berlin, as envoy from this country, and who was supposed to have become peculiarly well acquainted, in that and other high diplomatic situations, with the general politics of the North of Europe. The details of that gentleman's mission to the Danish court have not been, as practised on many similar occasions, laid before parliament. But the substance of his instructions, which were themselves offered to be produced when the subject was discussed in the house of commons, was very generally known; and we have been able, from good and authentic sources, to collect the following particulars of what passed upon that occasion. Upon the ground of Bonaparte's design to shut the ports of Holstein against the British flag, and forcibly to employ the Danish navy against this country, Mr. Jackson was instructed to repair to the residence of the prince-royal of Denmark, and to enter into immediate and unreserved explanation with his royal highness respecting the views and sentiments of the British government. He was to use every argument in his



power to induce the prince regent to enter into these views and sentiments, as no less conducive to his royal highness's own interests and safety; and he was to endeavour, by every means, to establish, on terms of friendly accommodation, the measure which was to be the main object of his whole proceedings. This measure was the *delivery of the Danish fleet into the possession of the British admiral*, under the most solemn stipulation that it should be restored at the conclusion of the war between this country and France.

This demand was to be steadily adhered to; and the British negotiator was directed, after having exhausted every endeavour to obtain the prince royal's consent to it, as the foundation of a treaty of alliance and general co-operation between the two countries, to announce unequivocally to his royal highness the determination of this court, to enforce it by the operations of the powerful armament assembled in the Sound. In presenting this alternative, every possible stipulation was to be advanced, by which the present and future interests of the crown of Denmark were to be fostered by all the resources of the British empire. Permanent alliance; guarantee, and even aggrandisement, of their actual possession; every thing that the fleets and armies, and the treasury, of England could afford, both for immediate support and for future safety, was to be put at the prince royal's disposal. Specific proposals were made to this effect; and whatever other conditions the Danish government might suggest, would, it was declared, be readily listened to, and, if possible, admitted, on his majesty's part. If they feared the effects which an appearance of connivance at our views might produce in France, we had an imposing force at hand, which would give to acquiescence an air of constraint, rather than of free will; and the extent of our armament was well calculated to put that construction upon it. In short, every possible stipulation, whether public or secret, that could be devised by either party, for the purpose of rendering the proposed measure acceptable to the feelings of Denmark, and propitious to her permanent interests, was to form a part of the agreement to be entered into upon this occasion; but, in the last resort, the prince royal was to be informed, that, if he failed to agree to them, the British commanders would forthwith proceed to hostilities.

Under these instructions, and with a charge to bring his negotiation to a speedy termination, Mr. Jackson left England on the 1st, and arrived at Kiel on the 6th, of August. On the day following, he announced the purport of his instructions to count Bernstorff, and requested an audience of the prince royal, to whom he was directed to address his overture personally.—It is understood, that the Danish minister exhibited much warmth of temper, and violence of expression, in the discussion; and that he inveighed with unusual vehemence against the general policy of England, which he described with the most unqualified terms of reprobation.—The prince, his master, on the contrary, is said to have remained calm and unruffled during a long interview with the British minister; to have argued upon the proposals made to him with dignity, and in terms of strong but decorous resistance; and finally to have declared his determination to reject them, and to adhere to the line of policy which he had hitherto pursued.—It was then that Mr. Jackson had to execute the delicate and painful task of announcing the immoveable determination of his court, to employ means of coercion. The next day he was informed by count Bernstorff, that the prince had set out for Copenhagen, and that any proposals Mr. Jackson might have to make in the name of his court would be sent there after him. Mr. Jackson deemed it however most conducive to the interests entrusted to him, whether with a view to the feeble hope he might still entertain of coming to a friendly accommodation, or to the more awful alternative of a rupture, to follow the prince to his capital, and to make, without the necessary interruption and delay of distant communica-

tions, a last effort to avert the calamities of war. He accordingly embarked in the bay of Kiel, with a prospect of reaching Copenhagen as soon as his royal highness; but a storm, and an extraordinary continuance of tempestuous weather, baffled this hope; and, after a day and a half contending with contrary winds, he landed, and undertook the journey to Copenhagen through the duchies.

In the afternoon of the 12th of August, Mr. Jackson reached Copenhagen; it was no doubt satisfactory to perceive that the secrecy with which the measures of his court had been hitherto pursued, and the vigilance of the squadron stationed in the Belt, had been so successful, that no progress whatever had been made in assembling an army in Zealand. The few militia-men that accompanied him were the first that had come from without; some dozens were on the road from different parts of that island; a levy had been made in Copenhagen from amongst the populace; but without the walls of that city, and of Elsinour, there was not throughout the whole island a battalion of troops of any description. Not a gun was mounted on the ramparts of Copenhagen. Some fermentation prevailed amongst the inhabitants, occasioned by the prince royal's sudden arrival there, the cause of which had not become generally or accurately known, although the appearance of our men-of-war and transports in the Sound, and the secession of the French minister, and of others whose courts were dependent upon France, were thought to indicate that the pressure of the moment came from the side of England.

Count Joachim Bernstorff, in the absence of his brother, who had not accompanied the prince royal from Kiel, was charged, in the capacity of under secretary, with the direction of the foreign department. To him the British negotiator had been referred by the principal minister, and to him therefore he applied as soon as he reached the Danish capital, in order to renew his intercourse with the prince royal, and to ascertain exactly what could be yet expected to result from his royal highness's determination. He was admitted without delay to an interview; but informed, at the beginning of it, that the prince had stayed but a short time at Copenhagen, and was returned to Sleswic, whither he had directed all communications to be forwarded to him. The intention of the Danish government now became evident; their plan could only be to gain time, to amuse the British minister by an appearance of negotiation, the particulars of which, when he was at Kiel, were to be sent for decision to Copenhagen, and, when he was at the latter place, to be returned back to Kiel. This sort of equivocating conduct, on the part of the Danish government, could not fail to be regarded as an undoubted symptom of a studied disposition to avoid negotiation, and, at the same time, to prevent the British minister from forming that conclusion upon which the operations of the British forces were to be regulated. It therefore became necessary for him to state the case pointedly to count Joachim, and to require an unequivocal answer, whether or not the prince royal had left him any power and authority to negotiate upon the basis on which alone it was known to his royal highness that a rupture could be prevented. No distinct answer was, we understand, for a long time given to this question; but, upon being closely pressed, the Danish minister was under the necessity of acknowledging that he was at liberty only to receive the overtures that might be made to him, and to transmit them to Kolding; and that he had no authority whatever to conclude any arrangement upon terms at all compatible with Mr. Jackson's instructions. Upon this point then the negotiation broke off; and Mr. Jackson, having taken his leave of the Danish minister, and being furnished by him with the necessary passports, repaired that same evening on-board the advanced frigate of the British squadron, at anchor within a few miles of the port of Copenhagen. The next morning the British commanders were informed that all hope of a friendly accommodation had been frustrated, and that they were at liberty



erty to proceed in their operations according to the instructions with which they were for that case provided.

The army accordingly landed without opposition, at the village of Vedbeck, on the morning of the 16th of August; and, after some ineffectual attempts of the Danes to annoy its left wing by the fire of their gun-boats, and to impede its progress by sallies which were always repulsed with loss, it closely invested the town on the land-side. The fleet, removing to an advanced anchorage, formed an impenetrable blockade by sea; at the same time, a proclamation was issued by the commanders, notifying to the inhabitants of Zealand the motives of their undertaking; the conduct that would be observed towards them; and an assurance, that, at any time when the demand of his Britannic majesty should be acceded to, hostilities should cease.

On the evening of the 2d of September, the land-batteries, and the bomb and mortar vessels, opened a tremendous fire upon the town, and with such effect, that, in the course of a very short time, a general conflagration appeared to have taken place. The fire was returned but feebly from the ramparts of the town, and from the citadel and crown-batteries. On the night of the 3d, the British fire was considerably slackened. This has been variously accounted for; some supposing that it was owing to the great expenditure of ammunition on the preceding night, and the apprehension that enough would not remain for the prosecution of the siege; others, that the British general expected that the impression already made would produce proposals for capitulation. It was probably because the enemy adopted the first of these suppositions, that the second was not realised: they on the contrary conceived some hope, and were encouraged in their resistance, by the relaxation of our fire, which was, however, resumed with so much vigour and effect on the night of the 4th, that the next morning a trumpeter appeared at the British out-posts with a letter from the commandant of the town, containing the proposal of a truce for twenty-four hours, to give time to negotiate a capitulation, which he was willing to conclude on the basis of 100 British troops being admitted within the city of Copenhagen. It should seem, however, either that that basis was not at first considered as admissible, or that it was accompanied by some other objectionable condition: for we find, that the capitulation was not signed until three days afterwards, viz. the 8th of September, when the British army took possession of the citadel, dock-yards, and batteries dependent upon them. The British admiral immediately began rigging and fitting-out the ships that filled the spacious basons where they were laid up in ordinary; and, at the expiration of the term limited in the capitulation, they were all, together with the stores, timber, and every article of naval equipment found in the arsenal and store-houses, conveyed to England, where, with the exception of one line-of-battle ship, that grounded on the isle of Huen, and was destroyed, they all arrived safely in the last days of the month of October.

The following instance of domestic affliction took place during our attack upon Copenhagen: A citizen, who resided with his family, a son and three daughters, near the walls of the city, saw his house so much exposed to the fire of the British artillery during the siege, that he resolved to draw his children from the dangers of their situation, and conduct them if possible to a place of security. While he was in the act of removing them from his battered abode, a shell burst near them, killed one on the instant, and so dreadfully wounded the other two, that they expired in the course of the night. The father, frantic with rage and despair, flew to the city-walls, and in vain sought the fate of his unhappy children. He was, however, reserved for more accumulated miseries; and the same night his son was shot dead by his side. The wretched parent now sunk under his misfortunes, and was carried from the ramparts in a state of apparent death. The next day a detachment of the British troops marched

into the city to take possession of the citadel; the bodies of the unfortunate sufferers were lying in the open streets; the agonized and heart-broken old man pointed to the scene of ruin, fell on the lifeless bodies of his children, and expired.

In the capitulation, no notice whatever had been taken of the large quantity of shipping and naval stores that were in the merchants' docks; the consequence of which neglect was, that we had scarcely left the waters of Copenhagen, before a considerable number of armed vessels was prepared to act against us; and we have been informed, that they actually drew up in line of battle, in front of the port of Copenhagen, when admiral Gambier's flag-ship was still in sight of the town. The losses suffered by our commerce, from this newly-created species of Danish naval force, were very considerable; and they were the more sensibly felt, because, under the apprehension of the turn which might be given, during the ensuing winter, to the politics of Russia, large purchases of hemp, timber, and other naval stores, had been made; these were sent home in single ships, in the confident expectation of having no danger to fear till they cleared the Categat, or that they would obtain ample protection before they reached the Sound; instead of which, they were for the most part captured by small privateers from the isle of Bornholm; and those which escaped in that quarter fell into the hands of the Danes off Draco Point, where no adequate force had been stationed for their protection.

As soon as the effect of the operation of our forces was known in England, a declaration was published by his majesty's government, setting forth the grounds on which the expedition was undertaken, and the sentiments which were still entertained towards Denmark by his majesty. This declaration was afterwards laid before parliament, and became the ground-work of the defence set up by ministers when attacked, as they were most vigorously, on the policy of the whole undertaking. We must refer our readers to the debates upon this subject, which will be found in the daily newspapers, where the sentiments and feelings of the different parties are sufficiently developed. As for ourselves, we conceive that the intention of Bonaparte, being in unison with his interest, pointed immediately to the junction of the Danish forces to his own, in hostility to these kingdoms; and that of the execution of this intention there could be no other doubt than that which might attend its practicability. But, if there could remain, in the mind of any politician, the smallest difficulty in acquiescing in this proposition, it surely must be removed by the overtures that were made to the prince-regent of Portugal, and which he had the fairness to communicate to the British government. In these, the adhesion of Denmark to the French system, was announced both as the means, and as a motive, for obtaining that of Portugal; and to both countries it was notified, that measures must be immediately taken to exclude the British flag and manufactures from their respective ports.—These overtures were, with equal good faith and propriety, made known by the Portuguese government to that of England, as soon as they were received; and, as there is strong reason to believe that they were simultaneously made to the court of Denmark, the concealment of them, by that court, furnishes of itself no slight ground for suspecting that her disposition towards England partook of much of the hostility in which they originated.—These reflections naturally bring us to notice the last political occurrence of this eventful year; namely, the emigration of the court of Portugal to South America.

The treaty of Tilfit was hardly concluded, when Bonaparte turned his eyes towards the west of Europe, and resolved on the subjugation of Portugal and Spain. Or, perhaps, it was at first his design, not directly or formally to subvert the thrones of these kingdoms, but, under the veil of alliance and union, to reduce them to the same



total dependence on himself as the Confederation of the Rhine, Holland, Switzerland, and Italy. However this may be, we find, that, very soon after the signing of that treaty, Bonaparte demanded of the court of Lisbon, 1. To shut up the ports of Portugal against England. 2. To detain all Englishmen residing in Portugal. 3. To confiscate all English property; denouncing war in case of a refusal. And, without waiting for an answer, he gave orders for detaining all Portuguese merchant-ships that were in the ports of France. The prince-regent of Portugal, hoping to ward off the storm, acceded to the shutting up of his ports; but refused to comply with the other two demands, as being contrary to the principles of the public law, and to the treaties that subsisted between the two nations. The court of Portugal then began to adopt measures for securing its retreat to the Portuguese dominions in South America. For that purpose, the prince-regent ordered all ships of war fit to keep the sea to be fitted out; and also gave warning of what was intended to the English, directing them to sell their property and leave Portugal; in order thus to avoid an effusion of blood, which, in all probability, would have proved useless. He resolved also to comply, if possible, with the views of the emperor of the French, in case he should not allow himself to be softened down to more moderate pretensions. But Bonaparte peremptorily insisted, not only on the shutting up of the ports, but on the imprisonment of all British subjects, the confiscation of their property, and a dereliction of the project of a retreat to America. The prince-regent, when he had reason to believe that all the English, not naturalized in the country, had taken their departure from Portugal, and that all English property had been sold, and even its amount exported, adopted the resolution to shut up the ports against England, and even to comply with the other demands of France; declaring, however, at the same time, that, should the French troops enter Portugal, he was firmly resolved to remove the seat of government to Brazil, the most important and best-defended part of his dominions.

It had been frequently stated to the cabinet of Lisbon by the English ambassador, lord Strangford, that the king of Great Britain, in agreeing not to resent the exclusion of British commerce from the ports of Portugal, had gone to the utmost extent of forbearance; that, in making this concession to the peculiar circumstances of the prince-regent's situation, his majesty had done all that friendship could justly require; and that a single step beyond this line of modified hostility must necessarily lead to the extremity of actual war. Nevertheless, the prince-regent, in the fond hope of preserving Portugal by conciliating France, on the 8th of November signed an order for detaining the few British subjects, and the very inconsiderable portion of British property, that yet remained at Lisbon. On the publication of this order, lord Strangford removed the arms of England from the gates of his residence, demanded his passports, presented a final remonstrance against the recent conduct of the court of Lisbon, and proceeded, November 17, to a British squadron, commanded by sir Sidney Smith, who immediately, on the suggestion of lord Strangford, established a most rigorous blockade at the mouth of the Tagus. A few days after, the intercourse between the court of Lisbon and the British ambassador was renewed. Lord Strangford, under assurances of protection and security, proceeded to Lisbon on the 27th; when he found the prince-regent wisely directing all his apprehensions to a French army, which had entered Portugal, and was on its march to Lisbon; and all his hopes to an English fleet. The object of this march he was at no loss to understand; for Bonaparte had declared in his journals, "That the house of Braganza had ceased to reign." Lord Strangford promised to his royal highness, on the faith of his sovereign, that the British squadron before the Tagus should be employed to protect his retreat from Lisbon, and his voyage to the Brasils. A decree was published, November 28,

in which the prince-regent announced his intention of retiring to the city of Janeiro until the conclusion of a general peace, and of appointing a regency to administer the government at Lisbon during his royal highness's absence from Europe.

On the morning of November 29, the Portuguese fleet set sail from the Tagus, with the prince of Brasil and the whole of the royal family of Braganza on-board, together with many of his faithful counsellors and adherents, as well as other persons attached to his present fortunes. The fleet consisted of eight sail of the line, four large frigates, several armed brigs, sloops, and corvettes, and a number of Brasil ships; amounting in all to about thirty-six sail. While they passed through the British squadron, our ships fired a salute of twenty-one guns, which was returned with an equal number. The friendly meeting of the two fleets, at a juncture so critical and important, was a most interesting and affecting, as well as a grand, scene. Four English ships of the line were sent by the British admiral to accompany the royal family to Brasil, where they arrived in safety, after a remarkably fine and quick passage.

The prince-regent landed at Rio de Janeiro, with the other branches of the royal family, amidst the acclamations of his subjects, on the 8th of January, 1808; and the first acts of his government were to form arrangements very favourable to the commerce of Great Britain; that is, had our London merchants acted with prudence and foresight, instead of precipitation and folly. From a region thus newly settled and thinly peopled, our countrymen, had they been well-informed, would not have expected an extensive and immediate consumption of British manufactures. But, the moment permission was obtained, our merchants poured in cargo on cargo, as if the market of Brasil knew no limits. Never was the exaggerated estimate, which we are apt to form of distant objects, more surprisingly exemplified. The civilized population of Brasil, which is fitted to use and able to pay for European goods, may amount to half a million, and the warehouses of Rio de Janeiro are adapted to the limited supply which they require: but our vessels succeeded each other with a rapidity which surpassed the means of accommodation both in the town and the custom-house, and made it necessary to pile our goods along the beach. Prices fell forthwith one hundred per cent. and the deceitful practice of selling goods, apparently damaged, on the account of the insurer, was often adopted. This fraud, so much dreaded at Lloyd's, and so little comprehended by persons out of business, becomes practicable to a great extent in a town which possesses but few respectable merchants. The insurer being, by the terms of his contract, bound to make good all lots arising from damage, a fraudulent merchant can often, in the case of an unfavourable market, ascribe to damage the diminished price which was in fact produced by a very different cause. The safety of the underwriter consists chiefly in the respectability of the gentlemen who are called to examine the ostensible damage; and hence the disadvantage under which he labours in a country that is not likely to afford witnesses of undoubted character.

The immense loss on our shipments to Brasil arose from a double cause; the ridiculous excess of quantity, and the still more ridiculous unsuitness of many of the articles for the intended market. One speculator, of wonderful foresight, sent large invoices of stays for ladies who never heard of such armour; another sent *staves*, for the use of a people who are totally uninformed that water can become ice; a third sent out a considerable assortment of coffin-furniture, not knowing that coffins are never used by the Brasilians, or in the neighbourhood of La Plata. To these absurd speculations may be added numerous others, particularly in articles of taste; elegant services of cut glass were little appreciated by men accustomed to drink out of a horn or a cocoa-nut-shell; and brilliant chandeliers were still less valued in a country where only lamps

that



that afforded a gloomy light were used. Superfine woollen cloths were equally ill-suited to the market; no one thought them sufficiently strong. An immense quantity of high-priced saddles, and thousands of whips, were sent out to a people as incapable of adopting them as they were of knowing their convenience. They were astonished to see Englishmen ride on such saddles; nor could they imagine any thing more insecure. Of the bridles scarcely any use could be made, as the bit was not calculated to keep the horse or mule in subordination: these articles were of course sacrificed. Great quantities of the nails and ironmongery were useless, as they were not calculated for the general purposes of the people. Large cargoes of Manchester goods were sent; and, in a few months, more arrived than had been consumed in the course of twenty years preceding. No discrimination was used in the assortment of these articles, with respect either to quality or fineness; so that common prints were disposed of at less than a shilling a yard, and frequently in barter. Fish from Newfoundland met with a similar fate; also porter, large quantities of which, in barrels, arrived among a people, of whom a few only had tasted that article as a luxury. How the shippers in London, and other British ports, could imagine that porter would at once become a general beverage, it is difficult to conceive, especially when sent in barrels. These cargoes, being unsaleable, were of course warehoused, and of course spoiled. Many invoices of fancy-goods, and such as do not constitute a stable trade, were sold at from sixty to seventy per cent. under costs and charges, and others were totally lost. What must have been the delusions of those traders who sent out tools, formed with a hatchet on one side and a hammer on the other, for the convenience of breaking the rocks, and cutting the precious metals from them, as if they imagined that a man had only to go into the mountains, and cut as much gold as would pay for the articles he wanted!

This evil led to another of equal magnitude; a ruinous loss by the Brazil produce received in barter. The young men, who were sent out in such numbers from London as supercargoes, found themselves placed in a new sphere, and were obliged to take goods in return, of the quality of which they were unfitted to judge. Hides and Brazil-wood are principal articles of export from this part of the world; but, with regard to hides, the London purchaser was ill-qualified to discern the injury received in the drying; and, as to wood, he learned, when too late, that the kind growing around Rio de Janeiro is greatly inferior to that of Pernambuco, on which the favourable character of Brazil-wood has been founded. Other objects of speculation proved still more unfavourable. Precious stones appeared to offer the most abundant source of riches; the general calculation was made upon the price at which they sold in London; but every trader bought them, more or less, at the price at which they were offered; invoices of goods were bartered for some, which in London would sell for, comparatively, a trifle, as they were taken without discrimination as to quality or perfection; tourmalines were sold for emeralds, stained crystals for topazes, and common stones and vitreous paste were bought as diamonds to a considerable amount. Both gold and diamonds were well known to be produced in Brazil; and their being by law contraband was a sufficient temptation to eager speculators, who had never before seen either in their native state. False diamonds were weighed with scrupulousness, and bought with avidity, to sell by the rules stated by Jefferies. Gold-dust, as it is commonly called, appeared in no inconsiderable quantity, and, after being weighed with equal exactness, was bought or bartered for. But previous to this many samples underwent the following easy and ingenious process: The brass pans purchased of the English were filed, and mixed with the gold in the proportion of from five to ten per cent. according to the opinion which the seller formed of the sagacity of the person with whom he had to deal; and

thus, by a simple contrivance, some of our countrymen repurchased at three or four guineas per ounce the very article which they had before sold at 2s. 6d. per pound.

Amid this scene of folly and misfortune, numerous litigations could not fail to arise; and it is a consolation to reflect that, as far as the interference of the Portuguese governor and the British ambassador could go, the evil was prevented from expanding in its course. A judge of great respectability was appointed for the determination of all cases concerning the English; and the latter, in consideration of being strangers, were allowed certain privileges similar to those of the nobility of Portugal. They were permitted to claim the occupancy of such houses as could be spared, exempted from rise of rent, and indulged with long delay in case of embarrassment in their affairs. Hence arose a current saying among the Portuguese, "That, to live comfortably in Brazil, it was necessary to become an Englishman." So great was the over-stock of British goods, and such the miserable fall in their value, that, for one-fourth part of the quantity sent to Brazil, we should have obtained an equal return by keeping the market at a fair and steady rate. A recurrence of this evil may be prevented by carefully attending to the articles which are adapted to the consumption of the country, and which may be thus enumerated: hard-ware, low-priced cotton goods, hats, boots, shoes, earthen-ware, glass, cheap furniture, shot, drugs, fancy-articles, common woollen cloths, and salt either from Liverpool or the Cape de Verd islands. A time will arrive, and is probably fast approaching, when the intercourse of Rio de Janeiro with India will be greatly increased. It may become a kind of half-way station between Europe and Asia; and, if Brazil on the one hand be freed from the colonial restrictions of the Portuguese, while India, on the other, is laid open to the enterprise of British merchants, we may safely conclude that the extension of trade would proceed with great rapidity. *Mauve's Travels in Brazil*, 4to. 1812.

The British parliament was opened by commission on the 31st of January, 1808. The speech from the throne turned, as usual, on the great public questions that would come under discussion during the session; the most important of which, was the expedition to Copenhagen. In the house of peers, the address was moved by the earl of Galloway, who recapitulated, with great strength and clearness, the most prominent features of the speech. But the duke of Norfolk, not completely satisfied with the measure adopted against the Danes, and wishing some information as to the necessity of the expedition, moved that the clause in the address respecting the Baltic should be omitted. This amendment was seconded by lord Sidmouth, and supported by lord Grenville and the earl of Lauderdale; but strenuously opposed by the earl of Aberdeen, lord Hawkebury, and lord Mulgrave; and at length was rejected. A similar motion was made in the house of commons, and met with the same fate. Perhaps these acrimonious debates were more peculiarly excited by the fresh and still-bleeding wounds which the late administration had received in leaving their places. Like the Parthians, they shot their arrows as they retired, as a sort of consolation in their flight; but this conduct is not new, and we have witnessed it at almost every change of the ministry. The possession of authority and of the management of affairs has such charms, that the loss of it is always accompanied with a bitter draught, which introduces into the mind of the losers some vindictive elements that they are always sure to combine in order to vex and persecute their successors: however, to a philosophical mind, these actions and reactions appear to be ultimately useful to the people in general, since they conduce to preserve the balance of power between the governors and the governed.

The next interesting object which occupied the attention of parliament, was the state of our relations with Russia, and the necessity of producing on the table sundry papers relative to that subject. After this, Mr. Whit-



bread, on the 29th of February, rose to make his announced motion, for entering immediately into a negotiation for peace. After some prefatory observations respecting the acknowledged danger of the present crisis, he said, that his present intention was to take a review of the information now before the house, respecting the conduct of ministers in refusing to enter into negotiation with France; thereon to ground a resolution expressive of what the state of the country might have been, had a different course been pursued. He had, a month ago, stated some of the symptoms of the present crisis of the country. Since that time, several petitions had been presented to the house, of which the statements were most distressing, the prayer most moderate, and the general tone most patriotic. He did not bring forward the motion he was about to make, in consequence of these petitions; but he was not sorry that they had been presented, because he was a friend to petitioning. Much good had been produced by petitions. It was by the petitions of the people, that an end had been put to the American war; and, if the petitions of the people had been attended to in the early part of the last war against France, our situation now would have been far different from what it was. All projects were at length given up of obtaining indemnity for the past, of dictating a constitution to France, or of curbing the power and ambition of Bonaparte. Our only aim now, was to defend ourselves. And what probability was there of obtaining a more honourable peace than might be concluded at the present moment? He called the attention of the house to the present situation of the country with regard to foreign powers. The peace of Tilsit had been treated in his majesty's declaration, and in the speech of the commissioners, as most disastrous to Russia, and represented as the effect of despondency and alarm. But Mr. W. contended, that this peace had prevented the Russian army from being totally and completely extinguished. Before the peace of Tilsit, however, was concluded, an offer had been made by Russia, to mediate a peace between Great Britain and France; an offer which he had always considered as an effusion of Alexander's heart towards this country. Here Mr. Whitbread entered into a detailed analysis of the papers which had been laid on the table, relative to this offer on the part of Russia, and the refusal of ministers to accept of it. Mr. W. after exposing the delusive hopes of conquering France through her finances, proceeded to show the futility of another delusion; namely, that Bonaparte would be hated by the people and the army, and that the mass of the population of the different countries he should enter would rise against him. All this had been proved to be completely unfounded. The last point he would touch upon was the allegation that Bonaparte had sworn the destruction of this country. He asked, where and when he had done so? Was it during his consulate? Was it after he became emperor of France? No. For then, also, he had made an offer of peace; yet it might be said that in all this he was insincere. This might be the opinion of some; but, before that opinion could be rendered general or universal, it would be necessary to enter into a negotiation to prove it. He concluded by moving the following resolutions: That it is the opinion of this house, that the conditions stipulated by his majesty's ministers for the acceptance of the mediation offered by the emperor of Russia, were inexpedient and impolitic. That it is the opinion of this house, that the conduct of his majesty's ministers on the subject of the mediation of the emperor of Austria, was unwise and impolitic, and not calculated to ascertain how far the restoration of the blessings of peace might or might not have been attainable through the means of such mediation. That this house feels it incumbent on itself to declare, that there is nothing in the present circumstances of the war, that ought to preclude his majesty from embracing any fair opportunity of acceding to, or commencing, a negotiation with the enemy, on a footing of equality, for the termination of hostilities,

on terms of justice and honour.—After long and animated debates, the house divided upon each of the resolutions: upon the first, the numbers were, ayes 70, noes 210; upon the second, ayes 67, noes 211; upon the third, ayes 58, noes 217.

The metropolis, being the centre to which all the branches of trade naturally resort, was much affected by the decrees of the emperor of the French declaring the whole island of Great Britain to be in a state of *blockade*, a most curious application of a word which really means the preventing ingress and egress in and out of any fortified place. However this was really a sort of passive blockade, since nearly all the ports of the continent were as if hermetically shut against English traders. By a sort of *représailles*, a protecting and self-defensive system was interposed by our orders in council; and trade began again to flourish: yet there was no measure of administration discussed in the present session that occupied so great a portion of the time and attention of parliament, or occasioned such keen and pertinacious debates, the Baltic expedition alone, perhaps, excepted. On both these subjects the members in opposition had the advantage of standing not only on what they maintained to be political expediency, but the plausible ground of justice and the law of nations; though there was not now, *in fact*, any law of nations, or at least any such law in force. Bonaparte, who swayed a sceptre of iron on the continent, acknowledged no law but that of superior force. It was very generally remarked, that during the present session the opposition to ministry was unusually keen, vigilant, and persevering. The present ministers were not supposed to possess much ability—on the whole, there was allowed to be a superiority of powers, of both reasoning and oratory, among their opponents; who, fully sensible of this, seized every opportunity of hanging on the skirts of ministers, and distracting and worrying them with incessant debates. Those concerning the orders of council possessed very little interest, were universally accounted dry, and at length became tiresome at the time. They cannot appear more interesting now. See p. 165, 6.

The transactions in the east, were next a subject of animadversion; the interest of the British empire at the mouth of the Ganges was deeply felt in Leadenhall street, and seriously canvassed in St. Stephen's chapel. The conduct of the marquis of Wellesley, relative to the nabobs of Oude and Arcot, was minutely scrutinized; and the spirit of party, assuming the awful character of defender of the rights of nations, rose to impeach the late governor of India.

The question concerning the transactions of lord Wellesley with the nabob of Oude, gave rise to very long debates; which began on the 9th of March, and were continued by various adjournments to the 15th. On the side of the prosecution there appeared Mr. Charles Grant, Mr. Lushington, sir Thomas Turton, lord Milton, Mr. Sheridan, and Mr. William Smith. On that against it, and in defence of the marquis of Wellesley, Mr. Whitshed Keen, sir John Anstruther, colonel Allan, Mr. Wallace, Mr. Henry Wellesley, lord Castlereagh, and sir James Hall.

Colonel Allan (member for Berwick), in a maiden speech, of considerable length, defended the marquis of Wellesley with ability and with spirit. Other members also spoke warmly in his praise: but that which made the greatest impression, and probably decided the vote, was the speech of sir John Anstruther, who, to the weight of his own character and abilities, added the advantage, on the present question, of having resided for many years in a high and important situation in Bengal. Sir John entered fully into the subject, and, in a speech clear and convincing, showed, that the conduct of lord Wellesley was in perfect conformity to the wishes, intentions, and tenour, of that kind of conduct approved by his employers; and, that the security of Bengal imperiously required and demanded it. The question being put on the resolution of censure on the

marquis's



marquis's conduct, the house divided: for the motion, 31; for the previous question, 182.—Sir John Anstuther then moved, "That it appeared to that house, that the marquis of Wellesley, in his arrangements in the province of Oude, was actuated by an ardent zeal for the service of his country, and an ardent desire to promote the safety, interests, and prosperity, of the British empire in India." On this motion the house divided: for the motion, 189; against it 29.

Notwithstanding this decision of the house, the same question was again brought forward, in another shape, on the 31st of March, by lord Archibald Hamilton, who moved a series of resolutions; the purport of the last of which was, "That it appeared to the house, that the British government was bound in honour to reconsider and revise the treaty of 1801, with the nabob of Oude, with a view to an arrangement more favourable to the nabob." A short debate ensued; and, on a division, there appeared, for the resolution 20, against it 80.

A question of a similar nature was again brought before the house on the 17th of May.—Sir Thomas Turton moved his promised resolutions, respecting the deposition of the nabob of the Carnatic. He had every disposition to think well of the politics of the marquis of Wellesley, who had been educated in the same school with Mr. Pitt, and had for some time followed his steps; but, at the same time, he had no hesitation to declare, that, if he was guilty of the acts detailed in the papers before them, he was a most improper minister for this country. When sir Thomas came into parliament, he found the Carnatic-question still floating; and did every thing in his power to induce some other member to bring it forward, preferring to be the seconder rather than the mover. No choice, however, was left him. The gentleman (Mr. Sheridan) to whom he had particularly looked, had found himself, after the change of the ministry, in circumstances that prevented his urging the question, as it might have greatly embarrassed those with whom he acted. He had no doubt, however, but that gentleman was convinced, that he had just grounds for what he had done in the business. The baronet then gave a brief historical view of the progress of the company's interference with the Carnatic, from the beginning of the war that ended in 1754, when they supported one candidate for the musnud, in opposition to another supported by the French, down to the treaty of 1796, with Omdut ul Omrah, by which the payment of a certain kist was secured to the company. That treaty continued till the death of Omdut ul Omrah in 1801, when those disgraceful transactions commenced which the gentleman opposite (Mr. Sheridan) had not coloured more strongly than they deserved. Sir Thomas, having also painted them in glowing colours, concluded with moving a series of resolutions, containing a recital of facts relative to the assumption of the Carnatic, reprobating the deposition of the nabob, and declaring, that the British parliament will never countenance an act of injustice and oppression in India; and stating the propriety of appointing a committee, to inquire into the best means of indemnifying the family of Mahomed Ali, and of ensuring the safety of our Indian possessions.

A very long debate ensued, which was continued by adjournment to the 1st of June. The defence of lord Wellesley, made with great ability and eloquence by Colonel Allan, Mr. Lushington, and Mr. Wallace, consisted chiefly of three points: That the nabob was not an independent prince, but our vassal; that the government of the Carnatic was badly managed; and that a treasonable correspondence had been carried on by Wallajah and Omdut ul Omrah, with our enemies. All the resolutions moved by sir Thomas Turton were negatived by vast majorities. The house having divided on the 4th resolution, directly criminating the conduct of the marquis of Wellesley, the numbers for the resolution were ayes 15, noes 124.

Mr. Wallace said, that, after the complete defeat which

the cause of the honourable baronet had sustained, he might well forbear moving any resolution of approbation; for what approbation could be stronger, than that testified by the majorities with which the resolutions had been rejected? but he would read the resolution with which he intended to close the business. "Resolved, that it is the opinion of this house, that the marquis of Wellesley and lord Clive, in their conduct relative to the Carnatic, were influenced solely by an anxious zeal and solicitude to promote the permanent security, welfare, and prosperity, of the British possessions in India." Which resolution was, of course, agreed to.

The following article will show how much original MSS and records are valued in this country. The Lansdown library of manuscripts was purchased by parliament for the British Museum, at an average of the valuation made by three parties, being 4925*l*. Mr. Planta, the principal librarian of the Museum, estimated their value in the following manner:

Burleigh and Cecil papers, 120 lots, at 10 <i>l</i> . per lot	£1200
Sir Julius Cæsar's papers, 50 vols. at 10 <i>l</i> . per vol.	500
27 volumes of original Registers of Abbeys, at 10 <i>l</i> .	270
150 volumes, at 5 <i>l</i> .	750
985 ditto, at 2 <i>l</i> .	1970
40 Numbers of Royal Letters, at 5 <i>l</i> .	200
Eight volumes of Chinese Drawings, at 10 <i>l</i> .	80
	<u>£4970</u>

Our merchants having been so unsuccessful in their speculations of trade to Buenos Ayres and the Brasils, (see p. 164, 170.) and the ports of Europe being nearly all shut against us, Mr. Perceval thought fit to hold out a lure to moneyed men, to employ a part of their funded stock in the way of life-annuities, the principal to go towards paying the national debt as the lives should fall. Mr. Perceval opened his plan in a committee of the whole house on the 12th of May. He began by observing, that the operation of the sinking fund had recently very much increased the price of stocks. There was every reason to believe, that, by the continuance of that operation, they would still further increase in price. It was not to be doubted, that, if the measure were consistent with public faith, it would be extremely desirable to give the nation an opportunity of discharging the whole of the national debt at the present price of the stocks, because that would preclude the effect which any future advance in the price must have in retarding the operation of the sinking fund. There were two objects which the sinking fund had in view: the one to provide for the final redemption of the national debt; the other to keep up the price of stocks in the market, so as to enable government, whenever the exigencies of the state might require it, to make an advantageous loan for the public. These objects, however, were in some degree inconsistent. In some degree they counteracted each other. Whatever measure raised the funds, and thus enabled government to borrow on the best terms, prevented the commissioners for the reduction of the national debt from reducing that debt on the best terms. Now the measure proposed would combine both these objects. It would tend to increase the price of stocks, and it would at the same time secure the redemption, at a low price, of so much stock as might be transferred antecedently to the rise produced. Every person who transferred his stock to the commissioners would be entitled to such an annuity as would be equivalent to the value of the stock and of his life; the calculation proceeding on the principle that the sum which he would otherwise have received as interest, the additional sum granted as an annuity, and the compound interest on the whole, would redeem the sum originally transferred, within the period to which his life will be calculated as likely to extend. A great deal of conversation ensued about the principle and mode of calculating the value of lives, and the probable rise or fall of stocks; and apprehensions were entertained by some of the members, that the price of the funds, instead



instead of rising, would fall, in consequence of a defalcation of revenue arising from a stagnation of trade. But, besides the objections to the measure proposed, drawn from the calculations of political arithmetic, there was one much insisted on of an ethical nature.

Mr. Windham observed, that there was this obvious and fundamental objection to it, that it would tend in a greater or less degree to vitiate the morals of the lower orders of the people. He was afraid that too many parents would be found who would be very willing to sacrifice the future interests of their children to their own immediate gratification. The system of annuities was too generally attended with such consequences, and he saw nothing in the plan now proposed, to obviate such effects in the present instance.—Sir John Newport, too, deprecated the holding out any inducements to the lower classes to speculate in annuities. If there were vices in a country, government ought not to partake of them. In France, in the time of the *rentes viagères*, there had been many instances of persons who sacrificed the interests of their posterity for their own immediate gratification. This was not consonant to the feelings of the people of this country; and he should deprecate any measure that would have the effect of assimilating the habits and morals of this country to those of France.—Neither could Mr. W. Smith abstain from bearing his testimony to the immoral tendency of this plan. He looked upon these annuities as a moral poison, which should not be circulated.

Mr. Hukisson defended the plan of his right honourable friend. It gave no *bonus* to persons for investing their capitals to the prejudice of their families. The scale was calculated upon the usual principles of the probabilities of life. And, as to the effect it might have on the morals of the people, it should be recollected that the short annuities which had lately fallen in, to the amount of 4 or 500,000*l.* per annum, had been in the market without producing any such effect, though, upon the principles of the gentlemen opposite, they were much more dangerous, as they required a greater proportion of capital to be sunk.

The debate was resumed on the 27th of May; when Mr. Tierney made a variety of calculations intended to show the inefficacy and inutility of the plan. He objected to it as interfering with the sinking fund, and with the faith of the country, pledged in consequence of that measure; of which faith he considered it as a direct infraction. He dwelt particularly on the extravagant inducement which this measure held out to a man of 70 years of age, to leave his family and relations destitute; seeing he could thus raise his own income in the proportion of 12 to 3; or, instead of 100*l.* could procure for his own life 400*l.* per annum.—Lord Petty thought the plan altogether objectionable in a political, moral, and financial, point of view. Would it be proper, would it not on the contrary be dangerous in the extreme, if the great bulk of the property of this country were allowed to be thrown into annuities?

Mr. Davies Giddy thought that the plan now proposed would have the effect of encouraging a greater degree of frugality in the lower classes, by affording them an opportunity of applying their savings with perfect security to the increase of their incomes; and that in this point of view the benefit would overbalance any evil that might arise from it.—Mr. Biddulph did not think there could be any sound objection to this plan; on the contrary, he was friendly to its adoption; because, in a free country like this, there should be as great a diversity as possible of option afforded to persons wishing to lay out their capital with security. And, as a proof how much he approved the measure, he proposed that the annuities should be rendered more marketable by facilitating the insurance of the lives of the nominees; which would be effected by taking off the tax on the policies of insurance upon such lives.

The resolutions were agreed to, and afterwards carried

into effect by acts of parliament; for the particulars of which, and the Tables for calculating the annuities, see the article LIFE-ANNUITY, vol. xii. p. 647–650.

The establishment of a local militia was proposed in the house of commons, and after long and interesting debates was passed on the 21st of June.—The necessity and advantages of it on one side, the danger of arming the people, exemplified by the French revolution, on the other, were forcibly urged; but the imperiousness of circumstances gave strength to the partisans of the bill, and it became a law.

It has been generally acknowledged, that the criminal code of Great Britain requires alteration in several points, but most particularly on account of capital punishments being appointed for so many crimes, whilst the convict generally escapes the severity of the law by a commutation of punishment, viz. transportation instead of death, and perhaps a temporary penance at Woolwich, instead of transportation. Sir Samuel Romilly, who unites to a profound knowledge of our national laws a feeling heart and a discriminating mind, made a motion on the 18th of May, in the house of commons; and said, that, in common with others, he had always lamented, that, by the criminal law of the country, capital punishments were appointed to be inflicted for so many crimes. He said “appointed,” because, in fact, they were not so frequently executed, although no principle was better established, than that the *certainty*, not the *severity*, of punishment, rendered it efficacious. This principle had long been proved, and published to the world by the marquis of Beccaria. But the admiration which his work produced in Great Britain had not produced any change in our system, which was directly the reverse of that noble writer’s; for with us punishments were *most severe*, and *most uncertain*. Having illustrated the truth of this proposition, he said, that, for the present, he would confine his observations and his motion to one class of those crimes, which, as he had before stated, seldom received the punishment the law had appointed for them; a class on which the law inflicted extraordinary severity of punishment, without any well-founded motive to that severity. He meant those cases where the capital part of the charge depended on the amount. By a statute of William and Mary, privately to steal from a person to the value of five shillings, was rendered capital. In queen Anne’s reign, to steal to the value of forty shillings in a dwelling-house, was rendered capital; and, by a statute of queen Elizabeth, a theft of so small a sum as twelve-pence, under certain circumstances, was made a capital offence. As the necessities, the conveniencies, and the luxuries, of life, had become dearer, the severity of the laws occasioned the frequent non-execution of them. He therefore moved for leave to bring in a bill to repeal so much of the act of queen Elizabeth as related to taking away the benefit of clergy from persons stealing privately from the persons of others. Leave was given to bring in the bill; and sir Samuel Romilly met with great applause for turning his enlightened mind to the consideration of such subjects as those on which he had that evening addressed the house. In a committee of the whole house, June 24, the solicitor-general proposed a clause, declaring that stealing without a person’s knowledge, whether privily from the person or not, as contradistinguished from robbery, should be punished by transportation for life, to be reduced at the discretion of the judge to any period not less than seven years; leaving it, however, optional with the judge, if the case should seem to merit it, to commute the punishment into imprisonment for any period not exceeding three years. The bill was passed with this amendment. See the article LARCENY, vol. xii. p. 241.

Several bills were also proposed during this session, for the better administration of justice in SCOTLAND, (see that article;) and for the enforcing the residence of spiritual persons in IRELAND on their benefices.

Though the petition of the Roman-catholics of Ireland



for complete emancipation from all disabilities whatever, civil or military, was, after the usual discussions, rejected; a grant of 9520*l.* was made for the current year for the support of the Roman-catholic college of Maynooth. In the course of the discussions that took place on this subject, Dr. Duigenan, a well-known champion against the popish children of Hibernia, read the oath of the catholic priests, in order to show that they paid an-obedience to the pope which was inconsistent with the king's supremacy. The provisions for the education of the established clergy, he observed, fell short of those proposed to be granted to the papists. There were in the university of Dublin 30 poor scholars *who got but a dinner once a-day, and 72 scholars of the house that got a dinner once a-day, but no lodgings.* [The doctor, we suppose, meant one meal a-day, which was their dinner; for the fellows of Oxford and Cambridge, as far as we have been informed, dine but once a-day.] The doctor described the catholics as bad subjects and hostile to the state; and declared, that, if any one would move to withdraw the public aid altogether from Maynooth, he would second the motion.

The original grant to the Roman-catholic college at Maynooth was 8000*l.* In addition to this sum, the last parliament had voted 5000*l.* making in all 13,000*l.* Before this vote, however, could be carried into effect, that parliament was dissolved; and, when the new parliament met, his majesty's present ministers wished to resort to the former sum. But, finding that the trustees had acted upon the faith of receiving the larger, they had, for that one year, carried into execution the intention of their predecessors. The sum of 9250*l.* now proposed, was a kind of compromise between contending opinions.

Mr. Grattan, and other members on the same side of the question, contended, that a provision for the education of 250 students would be insufficient to supply the vacancies that would occur in the catholic clergy by deaths or casualties. By reducing the grant of 13,000*l.* a-year, though some addition had been made to that of 8000*l.* the house would secure the ignorance and prejudices of a great portion of the catholics.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer observed, that the memorial of the catholics, which had led to the establishment at Maynooth, claimed no pecuniary aid. The catholics promised to defray the whole expense themselves; and, though the government and parliament gave them 8000*l.* in aid of the object, that was no reason why the country should be subject to constantly-increasing demands, for a purpose of which there was no precedent in any age or country, that of educating, at the public expense, the priesthood of a religion differing widely from the established one. He thought it was as much as could reasonably be asked, to educate 250 persons at the public expense; who, with 111 educated in a private manner, were an abundant supply for the catholic ministry. It was no part of religious toleration, Mr. Perceval added, to make provision for the education of the clergy of the tolerated sect. If it were so, the ministers of the methodists, anabaptists, sandemanians, &c. would on that ground have as good a claim to education as the catholic clergy. The house divided on the question: when there appeared for the grant of 13,000*l.* 58; for 9250*l.* 93.

Among the most important and generally-interesting laws enacted in this session of parliament, a distinguished place is occupied by the act to prohibit the distillation of spirits from corn or grain for a limited time. In the last session of the last parliament, earl Temple had moved, in the house of commons, the appointment of a committee to consider of the possibility and propriety of permitting sugar and molasses to be used in distilleries and breweries; not to the exclusion of grain, but on principles of fair competition. A committee was appointed; and it was stated by lord Binning, chairman of the committee, in the house of commons, May 19, that it had become necessary to ascertain how far the restriction of the distilleries to the

use of sugar and molasses would affect the agriculture of the country. This investigation, he stated, had led to the knowledge of facts which established the wisdom and necessity of the restriction, exclusively of all consideration whatever of the interests of the West-India islands; though the two questions could not indeed be separated. The committee, finding that this country was generally dependent for a sufficient supply of corn and flour upon foreign countries, and that this supply in the present state of Europe was cut off, without any prospect of a sufficient resource in the last year's crop of this country, thought it right, as a precaution against famine, to stop the distillation of corn, with a view to a ready and immediate, as well as a more ample and satisfactory, supply of sustenance for the people. He entered into a variety of calculations to show, that the saving by the prohibition of the distilleries would cover more than half the deficiency created by the stoppage of importation, and more than the whole importation of oats! Lord Binning concluded with moving, that the report of the committee of inquiry be referred to a committee of the whole house; and he anticipated, from the moderation and good sense of the gentlemen present, that the wishes of the committee would be carried into effect.

A great alarm was excited amongst the agriculturists throughout the whole country, and many petitions were presented against the bill. In both houses of parliament it was opposed warmly, and not without plausible arguments; the most solid of which, in our judgment, was the tendency of the measure to prevent that accumulation of grain in the hands of the farmers, which in this country supplies the place of the magazines established in so many other countries. It tended, if long continued, or frequently repeated, to deprive the agriculturist of that market, which, by creating a demand for more grain than the mere support of the population requires, induces him to raise more; to which superabundance, in case of a comparative failure of the crop, recourse can be had for supplying the extreme and claimant wants of the people. The bill, after a great struggle, was read a third time in the house of lords, and passed, on the 2d of July.

At this period, Britannia, the friend of the oppressed, and therefore the metropolis, whose commercial connections with the peninsula are of the greatest import to the trade of our merchants, felt deeply interested in the affairs of Spain. The ruler of France, by his threats, had forced the family of Braganza to seek for peace, refuge, and more tranquil climes, beyond the Atlantic Ocean; and now his object was to subject the whole of Spain to his despotism. From the Vistula to the Tagus his eagles had flown, and proved victorious. The court of Madrid was enslaved to the sceptre of the Corsican; and the chivalrous spirit of the old Castilians was still awed or lulled to sleep by the Circean cares, or the menaces, of Bonaparte.

This national torpor was not, however, to last. Tyranny walks on dangerous ground: the mind of the most abject slave feels, by starts, an elastic reaction, and will show itself as opportunity offers. Free, like the air we breathe, the mind of man may be confined and compressed; but, the longer the confinement, the closer the compression, the more dreadful will be the explosion. As soon as the Spaniards, that brave and ancient race, so well known, not only in the peninsula, but in the Austrian Netherlands, where the *bandes noires* were long the dread of all military antagonists; as soon as they found that the perseverance and gallantry of the English army had freed Portugal, and broken the French yoke on the rocks of Cintra, they began to awake, and saw, at a distance, a glimmering dawn of liberty.—“Let us also be free!” they exclaimed; and this spark of national enthusiasm communicated nearly at once to all parts of Spain.

We shall not give here minute details of all the transactions which took place this year and the following in the peninsula; but, as they are indirectly connected with our



plan, we will present a few sketches of the policy and treachery of Bonaparte in respect to the royal family of Spain.

According to the famous principle in politics, *Divide et impera*, "Divide to command," which he had so egregiously put in practice in Germany, and to which, as much as to his military talents and the bravery of his troops, he owes the ensanguined laurels he culled in the fields of Jena and Eylau, Bonaparte thought that the most easy manner of obtaining supremacy of power beyond the Pyrenees, was to cast secretly the baneful seeds of dissension around the throne of Spain. His faithful and dexterous emissaries prepared the canvas; and the ruler of France went easily to work. Had he foreseen the reverse he experiences at this moment, (Jan. 1814.) had he suspected that fortune might once desert him, and victory fly over to the tents of his opponents; he would have contented himself with the rich and beautiful provinces enclosed between the Alps, the Pyrenees, and the Rhine; and have been thankful to that Providence, who had taken him up from the barren rocks of Corsica to place him at the head of a nation once so famed for her love and submission to her sovereigns, and who seemed eagerly prone to transfer to him that blind obedience she had long vowed to the ancient race of her kings. But the demon of ambition swelled his heart, and must ultimately be the cause of his fall. From the perfidious drama performed at Bayonne in 1808, the present catastrophe originated; and from act to act, and through the divers scenes which naturally followed, may be traced, to the present hour, the events which appall Bonaparte, and astonish the world. One of the most powerful motives which excited Bonaparte, and one more stimulative even than his usual lust of conquest, was his unwillingness that the sovereignty of a neighbouring, rich, and extensive, peninsula, should reside in a branch of the house of Bourbon, from which he could never expect sincere political friendship, much less any thing bearing the name of affection. The reduction of that noble country under his own power, appeared to him necessary for the security of the thrones he had already usurped, and even for his personal safety. Who can expect to be loved by those whom he hates? Measuring the feelings of others by his own, Bonaparte did always, and always will, entertain some sort of suspicion of the powers which existed in the system of Europe ere a tempest hurled him on the throne of France, as the convulsions of other spheres are said to send meteors and stones into our own atmosphere.

The divisions and distractions in the royal family of Spain seemed a most plausible pretence to deluge the neighbourhood of Madrid with torrents of French troops; and the word *protection* was used to veil the real intention of that crafty politician. In this awful situation, the royal family of Spain began to show a disposition to abandon both the metropolis and the peninsula, and to emigrate to Mexico; but this would not have answered fully the plan and wishes of Bonaparte. The Spanish people, alarmed at the idea, exhibited strong marks of discontent; and the delay gave time to set in motion the secret machines which the French ruler intended to make use of for the conquest of Spain.

The first scene was the imprisonment of Godoy, the favourite, who without the title of king had exercised all the functions of royalty; and who favoured the scheme of emigration, in the hope of withdrawing himself and some portion at least of his enormous treasures. This step was soon followed by the abdication of the king in favour of his son and heir, the prince of Asturias; an event which surprised Bonaparte so much, and seemed to disturb his settled combinations so strangely, that he ordered Murat, grand duke of Berg, to advance with his army towards Madrid; which he soon entered, and where he began, without a moment's delay, to play the old and successful game of sowing the seeds of discord among the grandees and the people. In this state of things, the

new king, Ferdinand VII. made his public entry into Madrid, without any other parade than the most numerous concourse of the capital and its environs, the strongest expressions of love and loyalty, and acclamations which sprung from the joy and enthusiasm of his subjects; a scene truly grand and impressive. Of this scene the grand duke of Berg was a witness; but, far from abandoning his plan, he resolved to persevere in it with greater ardour. The experiment upon the royal parents produced the desired effect. But, whilst Ferdinand, the idol of the nation, was present, it was impossible to carry the plan into execution. It was therefore necessary to make every effort to remove this prince from Madrid. To accomplish this object, the grand duke was extremely assiduous in spreading reports of the arrival of a fresh courier from Paris, and that the emperor might be expected speedily in the Spanish capital. He set himself, in the first place, to induce the infant Don Carlos to set out to receive his imperial majesty Napoleon, on the supposition that his royal highness must meet him before he should have proceeded two days on his journey. His majesty, Ferdinand, acceded to the proposal. The grand duke had no sooner succeeded in procuring the departure of Don Carlos, than he manifested the most anxious desire that the king should do the same, leaving no means untried to persuade his majesty to take this step, assuring him that it would be attended by the happiest consequences to the king and the whole kingdom.

After useless hesitation and unavailing reluctance, the royal family, attracted like moths by the faithless glare of the emperor of the French, who was posting to Bayonne, left their palace, their capital, their kingdom, to place themselves, in a foreign country, in the hands of a man whose ambition and perfidy, whose thirst after power and desire of sway, were too well known not to be suspected of inimical intentions.—Scarcely had Ferdinand set foot on the French territory, when he remarked, that no one came to receive him, until, on his arrival at St. Jean de Luz, the mayor, attended by the municipality, made his appearance. The carriage stopped; and the mayor addressed his majesty in the most lively expressions of joy, at having the honour of being the first to receive a king who was the friend and ally of France. Soon after he was met by the deputation of three grandees, who had been sent off by Ferdinand before to meet the French emperor; and their representations, with respect to the intentions of Napoleon, were not of the most flattering nature. He was now, however, too near Bayonne to think of changing his course; he therefore continued his journey. There came out to meet the king, the prince of Neufchatel, and Duroc marshal of the palace, with a detachment of the guard of honour, which the citizens of Bayonne had formed to attend his majesty Napoleon; and they invited his majesty to enter Bayonne, where a place had been prepared for his residence; which he did on the 20th of April. The residence prepared for the king appeared to all, and was in reality, but little suited to the guest who was to occupy it. This remarkable and expressive neglect formed a striking contrast to the studied magnificence with which the king had prepared for the reception of his ally at Madrid. While the king was taken up with doubts concerning the meaning of a reception he so little expected, he was informed that the emperor was on his way to pay him a visit. His imperial majesty arrived, accompanied by a number of his generals. The king went down to the street-door to receive him, and both monarchs embraced with every token of friendship and affection. The emperor of the French staid but a short time with his majesty, and they embraced again at parting. Soon after, marshal Duroc came to invite the king to dine with the emperor, whose carriages were coming to convey the king to the castle of Marrac, about the distance of a mile and a half from Bayonne, where his imperial majesty resided, which accordingly took place. Napoleon came as far as the steps of the coach to receive his majesty; and,



and, having embraced him again, led him by the hand to the apartment provided for him.

Although the history of all absolute monarchies presents many instances of sudden and surprising elevations to great power and wealth, and as sudden and unexpected falls, there is perhaps none so striking as that of Don Manuel Godoy. His story is not unlike that of Don Roderigo Calderona, the favourite of the duke of Lerma, prime minister to Philip III. Godoy was called The Prince of the Peace, and was accounted by far the wealthiest and most powerful subject in Europe. Indeed he had all the power, and in a great measure all the wealth, of the Spanish monarchy at his command. While several of the old imposters had come to be alienated from the crown, and were impropriated by certain great families, through the improvident and profligate favour of the court, the people were oppressed with new and arbitrary taxes, burthenfome in themselves, and rendered more so by the mode of their collection. But the odium of the common people against the prime minister and favourite would never have wrought his fall, if there had not been a very general combination against him among the nobility, whom he so greatly eclipsed in splendour, patronage, and favour, and to whom a predominant favourite at court is a greater nuisance, perhaps, than to the nobles of any other country in Europe. He had been disgraced a short time before the king resigned the crown to his son; and the joy that was excited in all the provinces of Spain, by the imprisonment of this prime minister, with his principal officers, is not to be described. At Salamanca, and several other towns, the bells of the churches were rung; and at Salamanca six hundred monks, and as many licentiatees, danced in the market-place; young women, married women, and old men, mixed with the monks in this extravagant demonstration of their joyful transports. The Spanish newspapers, which had begun to assume a tone of great freedom, styled Don Manuel the Prince of Injustice, the Generalissimo of Infamy, and the Grand Admiral of Treason. Don Manuel, in his retreat, was accompanied by an escort of two hundred horsemen, which appeared necessary for his protection from the fury of the people. He arrived at Bayonne on the 26th of April. A castle in the environs of Bayonne was appointed for his residence; and he was in all respects treated by Bonaparte as a person of distinction and consequence.

The determined interference of Bonaparte for the liberation of Godoy, was owing to the resolution of the king and queen not to quit Spain for France, though called thither by Bonaparte, unless the favourite should be permitted to do so also, and to proceed on his journey before them. King Charles IV. and his queen Louisa arrived on the 27th of April at Burgos, and on the 28th at Vittoria. A detachment of the body-guards who had accompanied the prince of Asturias to Bayonne, happening to be in this town, placed themselves, according to custom, in the palace to be occupied by their majesties. But, when the old king set his eyes on them, with a degree of energy that surprised every one, he ordered them to be gone: "You betrayed your trust at Aranjuez; I want none of your services, and I will have none." The guards were obliged to retire. On the 29th of April, their majesties remained all night at Tolosa; on the 30th they came, about noon, to Irun, where they received letters from Bonaparte; and two hours after entered the walls of Bayonne, where they were received with all public respect and honour.

When the roaring of cannon announced the arrival of the old king and queen of Spain, Ferdinand, with his brother, Don Carlos, went to meet them. All the Spaniards that were at Bayonne also waited on their majesties, and went through the ceremony of kneeling and kissing hands. It was a scene of constraint and awkwardness on both sides; the king seemed as much dissatisfied with them as he had been with his body-guards at Vittoria. He did not speak a word to any one but count Pignatelli de Fu-

entes, an unprincipled and supple courtier, whom Bonaparte had appointed to insinuate himself into the confidence of the prince of Asturias, for the purpose of watching and betraying him. When the ceremony of kissing hands was over, their old majesties, being fatigued, retired to their apartments; the prince of Asturias was going to follow them; but the king stopped him, saying, "Prince, have you not yet sufficiently outraged my grey hairs?" The prince, and the Spaniards who had accompanied him to Bayonne, at these words were thunder-struck, and withdrew in great perturbation. At five o'clock, their majesties were visited by the emperor Napoleon, who remained with them a long time. The conversation turned on the injuries that had been done to the king and queen, the perils in which they had been involved, the ingratitude of men on whom they had lavished favours, and above all on the ingratitude and rebellion, as they said, of their son. The officers of king Charles's household were appointed by Bonaparte; all of them were Frenchmen.

Another engine was now set to work. The abdication of Charles IV. in favour of his son and heir Ferdinand, was published and abused in all the French newspapers, as unconsented to, and even compulsory; and thus the crown of Spain, holding neither to the hand of the old king nor to that of the new one, seemed as it were in abeyance, till a stronger power should seize upon it. The consequence of this necessarily followed from the premises. Like the lawyer in the fable, who settled the dispute between two travellers about an oyster, by swallowing it, and giving a shell to each of the parties; Bonaparte soon insisted upon Ferdinand VII. and all his family renouncing the crown of Spain and of the Indies. Unable to resist, the father yielded first; Ferdinand showed symptoms of resistance; but he was soon made sensible that he was in a state of arrest, and therefore obliged to submit to the iron hand of necessity. Meanwhile the queen gave to the world the most wretched example of feminine passion and wickedness, by bastardizing her own son in the presence of Bonaparte and her own husband: *Notumque furens quid femina possit.*

The scene in which this horrid and degrading declaration took place, deserves to be exhibited. After a conference which was continued above an hour, Ferdinand was called in; and the queen, in a transport of passion, said to him; "Traitor, you have for years meditated the death of the king; but, thanks to the vigilance, zeal, and loyalty, of the prince of the peace, you have not been able to effect your purpose; neither you, nor any of the infamous traitors who have co-operated with you for the accomplishment of your designs. I tell you to your face, that *you are my son, but not the son of the king*; and yet, without having any other rights to the crown than those of your mother, you have sought to tear it from us by force. But I agree and demand, that the emperor Napoleon shall be umpire between us; Napoleon, to whom we cede and transfer our rights, to the exclusion of our own family. I call on him to punish you and your associates, as so many traitors; and abandon to him the whole Spanish nation."

This scene of the queen bastardizing her own legitimate son in the presence of the king, his legitimate father, and proclaiming her own infamy before her husband, is something so new, so surprising, and so singular, that it would not have gained universal and undoubted credit, as it has done, if it had not been attested by many witnesses. It has been supposed, on no improbable grounds, not to have been merely an effusion of passion, but to have been preconcerted between the queen and Bonaparte.

The queen was raving in such a fit of madness, that there seemed to be no end to her reproaches and abuse; when, enjoying secretly, like Satan in Eden, the mischief he had done, Napoleon interrupted her, by saying, "No! I give to Ferdinand the crown of Naples; and to Carlos that of Etruria; with one of my nieces in marriage to



each of them. Let them declare if they are willing to accept this offer."—After a short silence, Don Carlos replied, "Emperor, I was not born to be a king, but an infant of Spain." Ferdinand was silent, and Bonaparte, after a short pause, said, "Prince, you must choose, abdication or death." Six hours were allowed him for coming to a determination. King Charles, seconding the threat of Bonaparte, ordered his son to make an absolute resignation of the crown, under pain of being treated with all his household as an usurper of the throne, and a conspirator against the life of his father. To this proposition, Ferdinand, being desirous not to involve in his misfortunes the number of persons comprehended in the threat of Charles IV. assented; and next day, in a letter to his father, after stating the circumstances of constraint in which he was placed, he made the resignation which was commanded. After this, Ferdinand was deprived of his coach of state and sword of honour. He had no other attendant than the commander of the party that watched him; a Jew, belonging to the militia or national guards of Bayonne.

The natural consequence of all this most perfidious machination, was a treaty of abdication, in which promises, never to be performed, were set before the eyes of the apparently-deluded Ferdinand and the rest of his family. The junta at Bayonne tamely took the oath of allegiance to Bonaparte; and, to close the drama, the Spanish princes were carried into the interior of France, there to deplore their own folly, and to experience the peculiar nature of Napoleon's promised affection and kindness. There we must leave them, as, indeed, there they remain to this day; while we return to the kingdom they so unfortunately quitted.

Providence, which sometimes permits nations to be exposed to the scourge, is ever inclined to mercy. Thus it was in regard to Spain. After a short time of pressure under French dominion, the nation began to emerge; to seek for means of revenge; and the French name became abominable to the ears of a Spaniard. The kidnapping of their kings at Bayonne—their imprisonment in France—a new constitution forced upon a free people—all contributed to rouse them from their temporary slumber; and the counter-revolution began in most of the Spanish provinces. A long struggle ensued; and it was then that Mr. Sheridan, on the 15th of June, rose in the house of commons, and seemed to be nothing less than the solemn organ of the public sentiments. In calling the attention of the legislature to the affairs of Spain, and their utmost exertions to the assistance of the Spaniards; "I am far," said he, "from wishing ministers to embark in any rash or romantic enterprise in favour of Spain; but, if the enthusiasm and animation, which now exist in a part of Spain, should spread over the whole of that country, I am convinced that, since the first burst of the French revolution, there never existed so happy an opportunity for Great Britain to strike a bold stroke for the rescue of the world. But, I wish to declare, that, in my opinion, we must not deal in dribblets; we must do much or nothing. Why do I make this declaration? Because no cabinet which has hitherto existed in this country—not even excepting that with which I had the honour of being connected—has pursued simply and plainly one clear and distinct object. Instead of striking at the core of the evil, the administrations of this country have hitherto contented themselves with nibbling at the rind. I wish, therefore, to let Spain know, that we are resolved fairly and fully to stand up for the salvation of Europe. If a co-operation with Spain be expedient, it should be an effectual co-operation. I repeat, that I am far from prompting his majesty's government to engage in any rash romantic enterprise; but if, upon ascertaining the state of the popular mind in Spain, they find it is warmed by a patriotic and enthusiastic ardour, then all I ask is, that that feeling should be met here with corresponding energy and enthusiasm. Bonaparte has hitherto run a most victorious

race. Hitherto he has had to contend against princes without dignity, and ministers without wisdom. He has fought against countries in which the people have been indifferent as to his success; he has yet to learn what it is to fight against a country in which the people are animated with one spirit to resist him. So far from bringing forward a motion prematurely to embarrass his majesty's government, I solemnly declare, that, if the opportunity to which I have alluded of a vigorous interference on the part of England should arise, the present administration shall have from me as cordial and as sincere a support as if the man whom I most loved were restored to life and power.—Is this a vain discussion? Let those who think so look at the present state of Europe. Will not the animation of the Spanish mind be excited by the knowledge that their cause is espoused, not by ministers alone, but by the parliament and the people of England? If there be a disposition in Spain to resent the insults and injuries, too enormous to be described by language, which they have endured from the tyrant of the earth, will not that disposition be roused to the most sublime exertion, by the assurance that their efforts will be cordially aided by a great and powerful nation? I think this a most important crisis. Never was any thing so brave, so generous, so noble, as the conduct of the Asturians. They have magnanimously avowed their hostility to France, they have declared war against Bonaparte; and now they have no retreat; they must conquer, or perish in the grave of the honour and the independence of their country. It is that the British government may advance to their assistance with a firmer step, and with a bolder mien, that I have been anxious to afford this opportunity to the British parliament, of expressing the feelings which they entertain on the occasion. I move, therefore, that an humble address be presented to his majesty, that he will be graciously pleased to direct that there be laid before this house, copies of such proclamations as have been received by his majesty's secretary of state for foreign affairs, and which have been issued since the arrival of the French army at Madrid; whether by the Spanish government, the French commander-in-chief, or by persons since claiming to act on behalf of the Spanish nation."

The duke of Norfolk, in the house of lords, spoke most eloquently to the same purpose, on the 30th of the same month; and the consequence was, that, on the 4th of July, when the lord-chancellor, in his majesty's name, prorogued the parliament, the concluding and indeed the greater part of the speech turned, as was natural, on the Spanish nation, loyally and nobly struggling against the tyranny and usurpation of France, and therefore no longer to be considered as an enemy, but as the ally of Great Britain.

The avowed protection of the British government animated the Spanish patriots, and created an enthusiasm which was evinced in several actions, and more especially at the siege of Saragossa; and enabled them to become so formidable, that king Joseph was obliged, for the first time, to learn the art of flying, an useful art which he has since had occasion to recur to. Like the kings of a strolling band of mountebanks, Bonaparte's crowned heads seem to be indifferent as to what sort of boards they perform upon, so long however as they are allowed to perform the trumpery parts of would-be sovereigns. The hope of a peace with Spain, after its deliverance from French subjugation, became every day more and more interesting to the trade of the metropolis, and therefore the liveliest attention was excited by the news which came from the peninsula.

On the 4th of August a grand dinner was given to the Spanish deputies, by the merchants and bankers of the metropolis, at the City of London Tavern.—This sumptuous feast, indicative of the sympathy which England felt (and still feels) in the glorious cause of Spain, was attended by a company of noblemen and gentlemen, comprehending a very large proportion of the mercantile wealth



wealth of the British metropolis. No former occasion within our memory, was more distinguished by the respectability and opulence of the company. It was not a party-meeting; for men of all parties were equally ardent and zealous in the cause of the people of Spain. And we saw, therefore, the heads of all the great companies of the first mercantile and banking houses, together with several ministers of the country, statesmen out of place, foreign ministers, and other illustrious characters—all eager to testify to the illustrious deputies from Spain, the interest which they felt in the deliverance of their country. The company did not sit down to dinner till seven o'clock. There were six tables lengthways, and one cross-table in the large room, in which 328 noblemen and gentlemen sat down; and in the adjoining room there were 72, making together 400 persons; and it is not an exaggeration to say, that their united property was not less than fifteen millions of money.—The decoration of the head-table was splendid. The parterre, or sand-work, represented, in one place, Britannia offering her assistance to Spain; in another, Fame supporting a medallion, on which were inscribed the names of the different provinces of Spain which stood foremost in resisting the common enemy; in another, the figure of Time crowning the Spanish patriot's flag with laurel; in another, the figure of Hope leaning on the rock of Justice; in other parts, the arms and standards of Spain intermixed with those of England, with different mottos, such as "Venceró morir," "Success to the Spanish Heroes," &c. &c. The ornaments stood from seven to eight feet high; portraying, in one part, the battle of the Nile, with the blowing up of l'Orion; in another, trophies of flags, &c. &c. at the tops of all, the royal standards of England and Spain; the whole finished with garlands and bouquets of flowers, China figures, vases, &c. &c.

That generous spirit, which always evinces itself in the metropolis whenever opportunity occurs, soon suggested a subscription in favour of the Spaniards. A numerous and respectable meeting of the merchants and traders of London, was held on the 9th of December, at the same tavern, for the purpose of instituting a subscription in aid of the patriotic armies in Spain. The lord-mayor was called to the chair; who, on taking it, observed, that the cause for which they had met together was of so glorious and meritorious a nature, and spoke so powerfully for itself to the hearts of all present, that little or nothing was left for him to say, further than to express the pride he felt in presiding over so highly respectable a meeting, and the interest which, he was persuaded, every true Englishman took in its success.—Mr. Rowcroft thought it necessary to inform the meeting of some circumstances which had occurred relative to it. Those who had proposed to call it, had, in the first place, considered the popular feeling which prevails so strongly in favour of Spain, and which would, he trusted, be made manifest by the measure which was now recommended. They had also ascertained that government would see with pleasure such a manifestation of the public mind respecting the Spanish cause, and that such a measure would be very pleasing to the Spanish deputy in this country, admiral Apodaca, who would thankfully receive, and speedily transmit to his own country, whatever sums should be subscribed for its use. Due notice was then given of the meeting, which had drawn the attention of ministers, who were anxious that every appearance should be avoided which would seem like a reflection cast upon them, for omitting any exertion that it was in their power to make in aid of the Spanish cause. This feeling had induced Mr. Perceval, the chancellor of the exchequer, to write a letter to the lord-mayor (which had been received only a few hours), explanatory of the aids which government had already furnished, or were now furnishing. He then read the letter, which was to the following effect:—"My Lord; Understanding that a meeting is to be convened under the sanction of your lordship, for the purpose of promoting a sub-

scription for the purchase of shoes, clothes, and other necessaries, for the Spanish army, I feel it necessary to furnish you with the fullest information of what has been already done, and what is now doing, by government for those objects. I hope I shall not be so far misunderstood, as to be supposed desirous of repressing any proof which the city of London may be disposed to give, of that sentiment which is felt so generally in this country; but I feel apprehensive, that, unless great caution be used, some injury might be done to that cause which it is the object of this meeting to promote. I therefore think it necessary to inform you, that, as to the purchase of shoes, which is stated as the first object of the subscription, government have taken every means of procuring an abundant supply. From the orders they had given, not only in England, but in Ireland and Scotland, they expect to be furnished with 40 or 50,000 pair a-month for the British and Spanish armies. If the zeal of individuals were to go farther, there would be a great danger that it would create a competition, which would raise the price, and be otherwise injurious. The same observation would also apply to a subscription for the purpose of buying uniforms or clothing. With regard to arms, ammunition, and field-equipment, it is unnecessary for me to make any remark, as I understand that such articles are not within the contemplation of those gentlemen who are about to promote the subscription in view. The money, however, which may be subscribed might be applied to the purchase of other articles, which could not interfere with those on which government are occupied, and which would have the advantage of manifesting unequivocally to Spain, that, besides the government of this country, she has with her the strong wish and general feeling of the people."—A committee was appointed; and the subscriptions quickly amounted to a very large sum.

When the real state of affairs in Spain became manifest to all Europe by the flight of king Joseph from Madrid, and the concentration of the French forces on the desiles of Biscay, and on the Ebro, Bonaparte's sarcasms against the insurgents, and his misrepresentations of facts, were interrupted for a long time, as well as his military operations. Not a word was said of Spain. Even the *Moniteur* was silent. The world entertained great curiosity to know what face would be put on the flight of Joseph, and the inactivity of the French in Spain. It was given out by the French government at Madrid, that the king found it necessary to retire for a time from that city, *for the benefit of his health*; which was every-where made a subject of ridicule. But nothing at all was said on the matter in the newspapers of France, Italy, or Germany. It was evident to Bonaparte, that the Spanish insurrection was of too serious and formidable a nature to be treated lightly in respect of either words or actions. It was manifestly not to be crushed but by a very large force, and a larger one too than any he could march against it, if the Germans should avail themselves of so inviting an occasion to throw off his yoke; and, above all, if the emperor of Russia should swerve from the treaty of Tilsit. Orders were transmitted from Paris to the members of the Confederation of the Rhine, to call out their respective quotas. Of the German troops of this confederation, 80,000 were taken into the pay of France, clothed in the uniform of French soldiers, and sent into France to garrison the towns quitted by French regiments sent to reinforce the French army in Spain. By this manœuvre, it was his object to render it impossible for the German princes to revolt from him to Austria, while at the same time he stationed a force in France better for some of his purposes, such as that of enforcing the conscription, than that which it replaced; inasmuch as Germans would not be so likely as the French regiments to sympathise and coalesce with the people. But, whatever might be the inclinations or the attempts of the Germans, they were not to be considered as formidable, if the Emperor of the North, as Bonaparte had affected to style him, should abide by his engagements.



Alexander, at this moment, held in his hand the balance of Europe, the fate of many nations; their condition, whether as independent states, or as submissive provinces of a great and domineering empire, probably for many centuries! Into whichever of the scales the czar should throw his weight, that must inevitably preponderate. To confirm and fix the resolution of Alexander was a matter of the last importance, and what Bonaparte did not think it prudent to commit to the agency of any of his ministers. He determined to have a personal interview with the emperor of the north; on whose mind it would appear he was perfectly confident he should maintain an ascendant. The place appointed for a meeting and conference between Alexander and Napoleon, was Erfurth, a city in the circle of the Lower Rhine, belonging to the electorate of Mayence. Here they met on the 27th of September. Each was attended by a very numerous and brilliant suite; and kings, sovereign princes, and other persons of high distinction, came day after day to do homage to the great Emperor of the West. Among others who attended Alexander, were his brother the grand duke Constantine, whom it was the policy of Bonaparte to flatter with the hope of reigning at Constantinople; count Romanzow, and the two counts Tolstou, one of whom was the Russian ambassador at Paris. The suite of Bonaparte was composed of Berthier, Talleyrand, Caulincourt, Champagny, Maret, the principal writer of official reports, and the generals Lannes and Duroc, all of them bearing their new titles of princes, dukes, and counts, and in short all the staff-officers belonging to the French army cantoned in Bavaria. The kings and sovereign princes of Germany waited for the most part on Bonaparte in person. The Austrian general, count St. Vincent, arrived at Erfurth, on the 28th of September, with an apology from the emperor of Austria for not attending the conference, and no doubt the strongest and most sincere assurances of friendship towards both the French and Russian emperors. Count St. Vincent was closeted a long time with Bonaparte. Great was the pomp and ceremony, and splendid the feasts and other entertainments, that took place on the occasion of this imperial and royal convention. The little town of Erfurth was astonished to witness a magnificence that might have been admired at Paris. The first dinner was given by Bonaparte. Napoleon and Alexander held their conferences every day at ten o'clock. These being over, they rode out together, either in the same carriage or on horseback, to take a view of the adjacent country. In one of these rides, Alexander consented to traverse, together with Bonaparte, the whole field of Jena, the burying-ground, or grave, it may be called, of the ally to whom he had sworn eternal friendship over the ashes of the great Frederic. Bonaparte little thought that one day this very emperor and the king of Prussia would invade his "sacred territory," and threaten the eastern provinces of France with an army of 200,000 men.

It was the great object of Bonaparte, in the conferences and convention at Erfurth, to conciliate the good will of all parties there, that he might be enabled, having secured quietness in his rear, to bear with all his disposable force on Spain and Portugal. Insignificant as the German powers had become, combinations might be formed by which they might distress him greatly in the present moment. Any concession, therefore, that would secure their connivance at his projects in the west, it would be prudent in him, in the present circumstances, to make; fully aware that, if he succeeded in Spain, it would be an easy task again to reduce the countries in Germany which he now occupied. But, at the same time that he found himself under the necessity of recalling his troops from Germany, he wished to hide as much as possible the weakness therein implied, and avert the designs to which a full conviction of that weakness might give birth. He therefore dexterously contrived to give the withdrawing of his troops the appearance of being the result of a negotiation; an act of favour to the sovereigns of Russia and Prussia.

A negotiation was entered into at Erfurth, under the mediation of Alexander, in consequence of which Napoleon engaged to evacuate the Prussian territory as soon as the contributions should be paid up, which he graciously reduced to one-third of their total amount; and he wrote a letter to the queen of Prussia, with his own hand, in which he promised her the completion of all her wishes. He also relaxed in the severity of his restrictions and imposts on the commerce of Holland.

Another notable effect of the meeting at Erfurth was an offer of peace on the part of Russia and France to the British government. A flag of truce, with two officers, one a Frenchman, the other a Russian, arrived on the 21st of October at Dover. The Frenchman, by orders of lord Hawkebury, who happened then to be at Walmer-castle, was detained. The Russian messenger was allowed to proceed, on the 22d, to London.

It was thought to be the object of Bonaparte, in this overture, to lull the British government into a neglect or delay of sending assistance to Spain, and to excite a distrust of England in her allies. It was proposed to his Britannic majesty, to enter into a negotiation for a general peace, in concert with his majesty's allies; and to treat either on the basis of *uti possidetis*, or on any other basis consistent with justice. The king of Great Britain professed his readiness to enter into such a negotiation in concurrence with his allies; in the number of whom he comprehended the Spanish nation. In the reply returned by France, the Spanish nation was described by the appellation of the "Spanish insurgents;" and the demand, for admitting the existing government of Spain as a party to any negotiation, was rejected as inadmissible and insulting. A declaration, therefore, by his majesty, was published on the 15th of December, concluding as follows: "His majesty deeply laments an issue by which the sufferings of Europe are aggravated and prolonged. But neither the honour of his majesty, nor the generosity of the British nation, would admit of his majesty's consenting to commence a negotiation by the abandonment of a brave and loyal people, who are contending for the preservation of all that is dear to man, and whose exertions in a cause so unquestionably just his majesty has solemnly pledged himself to sustain."

We must now turn our attention, and fix our eyes, on the banks of the Tagns, where we shall witness the same hatred of the French, and the same desire of shaking off the Napoleonic yoke, manifesting itself in all the Lusitanian provinces; we shall find the Portuguese patriots going hand in hand, and having the same object in view, with those of their neighbouring and kindred Spaniards.—The inhabitants of Lisbon, overawed by the army of Junot, had been restrained at first from expressing their joy, otherwise than in private and confidential conversation. The public voice of Portugal was first heard at Oporto. This town, besides the circumstance of being situate at a considerable distance from the force under Junot, possessed another advantage. It had been occupied by about three thousand Spanish troops, who, before their departure to join the patriotic standard in Spain, took the French general under whose orders they were, and all his staff, prisoners, and delivered up the government of the city to Louis d'Oliveira, who had filled that office before the arrival of the French. The treachery of this man, his attachment to the French, and the measures he took for restoring the authority of the French, roused the indignation and rage of the people to such a pitch, that he found it impossible to avert their threatened vengeance otherwise than by yielding up his authority. They rose, on the 18th of June, in one body; broke open the depots of stores; and, having supplied themselves with arms, proceeded to destroy every vestige of French power, and to imprison every person suspected of being in their interest. The bishop of Oporto, who, with most of the other priests, had been incessant in his efforts to rouse the people to arms, was appointed governor of the city, and the most  
vigorous



vigorous measures were adopted for defending it against any force. General Loison, with about 3000 men, advanced against the insurgents as far as Amiraute; but, on being made acquainted with the determined spirit of the people of Oporto, he retreated on Lisbon. Nearly the whole of the northern provinces of Portugal rose in arms against the French. The south of Portugal was restrained from coming forward so generally, or in so open a manner, by their vicinity to the army of Junot, and also by a strong and numerous French party among themselves. Notwithstanding the terror, however, of Junot, a friendly intercourse was maintained between Lisbon and sir Charles Cotton.

The French being expelled from the northern provinces of Portugal, provisional juntas were formed, similar in their character and functions to those of Spain. Of these, that of Oporto exerted itself with the most zeal and effect, in heightening and directing the patriotic enthusiasm of the people, and in the establishment of such orders and regulations as were required by the peculiar circumstances of the country. Oporto, in this respect, was the Seville of Portugal. The junta, having taken such measures for raising and supporting an army as circumstances admitted, naturally looked for support and assistance to England; nor were their hopes disappointed. An army, under the command of sir Arthur Wellesley, (now field-marshal marquis Wellington,) destined for Portugal, where it ultimately landed, was, in the first instance, offered to the Spaniards. This army, consisting of about 10,000 men, set sail from Cork on the 12th of July, and arrived at Corunna on the 20th. The battle of Medina del Rio Seco had taken place a few days before, and the Spaniards were retreating fast in different directions; one division of them adhering to Cuesta, proceeded to Salamanca; another, under general Blake, made for the mountains. In consequence of this intelligence, combined with his instructions, sir Arthur Wellesley offered the assistance of the force under his command to the junta of Galicia. The junta replied, that they did not want men; and that they wished for nothing from the British government except money, arms, and ammunition. But they expressed their firm conviction that his army might be of infinite service both to the Portuguese and their own nation, if it were employed to drive the French from Lisbon. In the north of Portugal, and consequently at no great distance from Galicia, the French were still in force. Against them, in the first place, sir Arthur might direct his attack with every probability of success, and with the certainty of relieving the province of Galicia, if the insurrection at Oporto still existed, or could be revived when he reached that city. Sir Arthur Wellesley, leaving Corunna, proceeded to Oporto. On his arrival there, the bishop, who was the governor, informed him that the Portuguese force was sufficient to deter the French from making any attacks, or, if not, to repel them. Sir Arthur, however, that he might be the better enabled to judge what was best to be done, left his forces at Oporto, in order to have a conference with sir Charles Cotton, off Lisbon; with whom he consulted about the practicability and the prudence of forcing the entrance of the Tagus, and attacking the forts in the near vicinity of that capital.

In the mean time, while he was on-board the *Hibernia*, the admiral's ship, he received a letter from general Spencer, who was then, with about 6000 men, off Cadiz. This force was destined to be employed either in co-operating with the Spanish forces under Castanos, in their operations against Dupont, or in conjunction with the expedition under sir Arthur Wellesley. As the junta of Seville did not deem the aid of general Spencer's corps at all necessary towards the reduction of Dupont's army, and as sir Arthur was decidedly of opinion that his own army, and that of general Spencer, could be but of little avail towards the expulsion of the French from Portugal while they acted separately, he gave orders to general Spencer to join him.

The English general, having made himself acquainted, as accurately as he could, with the numerical strength and disposition of the French army, determined to carry his forces into Mondego-bay, where he would be able to effect a landing, and form his army into order, without any opposition from the enemy; while, at the same time, he should be assisted and supported by the Portuguese army which had advanced to Coimbra. Before he landed the troops, he received advice from the British government, that 5000 men, under general Anstruther, were proceeding to join him; and that 12,000 more, under sir John Moore, would speedily be dispatched for the same purpose. He was also informed of the surrender of Dupont; and that the army of Junot was considerably weakened by the necessity of sending about 6000 men, under general Loison, to quell an insurrection that had broken out in the south of Portugal. This information induced sir Arthur to disembark his troops without delay. Soon after the disembarkation was effected, the corps under general Spencer also landed; and on the 9th of August the advanced guard marched forward on the road to Lisbon. On the 12th the army reached Legria. On the 15th the advanced guard came up with a party of the French at Obidos, where a slight action took place, occasioned principally by the eagerness of the British to attack and pursue the enemy. On the 16th the army halted; and on the next day the general came to the determination of attacking the French under general Laborde at Roleia. The enemy was defeated, but retreated in good order. By this victory the road was cleared to Lisbon. On the day after the battle the British army moved to Lourinha, to protect the landing, and facilitate the junction, of the troops under general Anstruther; and on the 21st they resumed their march.

General Junot, duke of Abrantes, having been informed of the large reinforcement expected under the command of sir John Moore, determined to attack the British army before the reinforcement should arrive. For this purpose he left Lisbon with nearly the whole of the forces under his command, and came up with sir Arthur on the morning of the 21st of August at the village of Vimeira. A hard-fought battle ensued. The French, with fixed bayonets, attacked the British with their usual impetuosity: they were driven back by our troops with the bayonet. They renewed their attacks, in different columns, again and again; and were as often driven back with cooler intrepidity and greater strength of arm. At last they fled from the charge. In this battle the French lost 13 pieces of cannon, 23 ammunition-waggons, and about 3000 in killed, wounded, and missing. Our loss in killed, wounded, and missing, amounted to nearly a thousand.

After the dispositions for the battle of Vimeira had been made, sir H. Burrard arrived at the scene of action, but declined to take upon himself the command of the army. On the 22d, sir Hew Dalrymple, who had been called from his situation of lieutenant-governor of Gibraltar, to take the command of all the different corps sent by the British government into Portugal, reached Cintra, the place to which the British army had moved after the battle. Within a very few hours after his arrival, a flag of truce came in from Junot, proposing a cessation of hostilities, in order that a convention might be settled, by which the French should evacuate Portugal.

When intelligence was received in England, that, in the words of sir Arthur Wellesley, "the whole of the French force in Portugal, under the command of the duke of Abrantes in person, had sustained a signal defeat;" there was an universal expectation, that it would be followed up with other victories, and ultimately lead to some solid advantage. That such an advantage had in fact been obtained, was firmly believed, when, on the arrival of the next dispatches from the army, the firing of the Park and Tower guns was heard, and that too, at a time of night very unusual, if not quite unprecedented.



But how great was the surprise of the public, when it was understood that the discharge of the Park and Tower guns related to a convention, signed at Cintra, by which it was, among other stipulations, agreed on, "That the English government should be at the expense of transporting the whole of the French army to any of the ports between Rochfort and l'Orient. When the army arrived in France, it was to be at liberty to serve again immediately. All the property of the army, as well as the personal property of the individuals of the army, was to be sacred and untouched. It might either be carried off into France or sold in Portugal. In the latter case, full security was to be given by the British to the purchasers, that the property they had would not be taken from them, nor they themselves molested on account of the purchase."

The regret and indignation of the British nation were raised by this convention to a painful height. The throne was besieged, as it were, with petitions from all parts of the kingdom, calling loudly for an inquiry into that transaction. The answer to the petition from the city of London, "that for the institution of an inquiry there was no need of their interference," was universally deemed ungracious. An inquiry was set on foot. The board in their report, after giving a well-arranged, and not altogether an uncircumstantial, account of sir Arthur Wellesley's expedition, declared, "That, on a consideration of all circumstances, as set forth in the report, they most humbly submitted their opinion, that no further military proceeding was necessary on that subject: because, however some of them might differ respecting the fitness of the convention in the relative situation of the two armies, it was their unanimous declaration, that unquestionable zeal and firmness appeared throughout to have been exhibited by lieutenant-general sir Hew Dalrymple, sir Harry Burrard, and sir Arthur Wellesley; as well as that the ardour and gallantry of the rest of the officers and soldiers, on every occasion during the expedition, had done honour to the troops, and reflected lustre on his majesty's arms."

Sir Arthur Wellesley, who, ultimately, by his prudence, courage, and perseverance, has not only set the whole of Portugal and Spain at liberty, but has now planted the British standard on French ground, had strenuously recommended a pursuit of the French; and great pains were taken by his friends at home to screen him from the odium of both the armistice and convention; with which sir Arthur appears indeed to have expressed much dissatisfaction to his friends in private, though he had not hinted any disapprobation when in consultation with the other generals. But the board unanimously approved the judgment of sir Harry Burrard, in abstaining from pursuit. "A superior cavalry," they observed, "retarding our advance, would have allowed the enemy's infantry, without any degree of risk, to continue their retreat in the most rapid manner, till they should have arrived at any given and advantageous point of rallying and formation: nor did sir A. Wellesley, on the 17th of August, when the enemy had not half the cavalry he had on the 21st, pursue a more inconsiderable and beaten army with any marked advantage." In short, the report of the board was an indirect censure on sir Arthur; but more justice has been done him since; and his arduous campaigns in Portugal and Spain have established his character as the greatest general we have had since the days of Marlborough.

As the defeat of Junot and the deliverance of Portugal were only mediate, and not the ultimate objects of the British army, it marched from Lisbon, but not till the 27th of October, nearly two months after the convention of Cintra, under the command of general sir John Moore, to the assistance of the Spanish patriots.

The enthusiasm of Spanish patriotism was not confined behind the Pyrenean mountains; it spread itself through the whole continent, and was admired and hailed as the dawn of a new order of things, and as an ominous star to the power of Napoleon.—By a well-combined plan, concerted between Keats, the British admiral in the Baltic, and Romana, ten thousand of the Spanish troops sta-

tioned in Funen, Langland, Zealand, and Jutland, emancipated themselves from the French yoke, and, under the protection of the British fleet, were conveyed, with their stores, arms, and artillery, to Spain, where they landed at Corunna on the 30th of September. The marquis of Romana himself returned home by the way of London, where he arrived on the 16th of September, for the purpose of having a conference with the British ministry, and British military officers. But one Spanish regiment, near two thousand strong, in Jutland, was too distant, and too critically situated, to effect its escape. And two in Zealand, after firing on the French general Frison, who commanded them, and killing one of his aid-de-camps by his side, were disarmed. While Frison was in the act of haranguing these troops, for the purpose of engaging them to declare for king Joseph, one of the soldiers, burning with indignation, and regardless of consequences, stepped forth from the ranks and fired a pistol at him, which, missing the general, killed the aid-de-camp.

The marquis de la Romana was kept in profound ignorance of the glorious events that had taken place in his country; and various attempts had been made on the part of the British government, to communicate the tidings to him, and to devise means for his escape with the troops under his command, without effect. At length a Swedish clergyman was found, in whose honour, good sense, and enterprising disposition, the firmest confidence could be placed. This gentleman, disguised as a travelling pedlar, went by the way of Heligoland, and, having overcome many obstacles with the utmost patience, prudence, and fortitude, at length arrived at the place where the marquis and his troops were stationed. Having ascertained the person of the marquis, he was obliged to watch incessantly for an opportunity of addressing him, without exciting the suspicion of the numerous spies by whom he was surrounded. The venerable agent at last was obliged, as if by accident, to jostle the marquis in the street, in order to attract his attention. Having done so, he apologized, as if ignorant of the person whom he addressed, and concluded with offering to sell him some excellent coffee. The marquis treated this offer with contempt; and signified, that he supposed he was speaking to a smuggler. The minister of the gospel, however, persevered in recommending his coffee, and in the course of the conversation, found means to intimate, that he was not a smuggler, but a gentleman. "We'll soon see that," said the marquis; and then asked him if he could speak Latin. The minister answered in the affirmative; and a conversation ensued, apparently about coffee, as the gestures of both were calculated to deceive all who might observe them. The marquis was then duly informed of every thing that had occurred in Spain, of the assistance the British government had rendered, and of the readiness of his Britannic majesty to adopt any measure that might be thought practicable for effecting the rescue of himself and his troops, that they might join their heroic countrymen in resisting the base attempts of France to enslave them.

Previous to the famous interview of the two emperors at Erfurth, while the French army lay inactive on the Ebro and the passes into the mountainous province of Biscay, and while Bonaparte was employed in averting danger to his cause on the side of Germany and Russia, the provincial juntas of Spain had leisure to resolve themselves into one supreme and central junta. This supreme and central junta was formed by deputies nominated by the respective juntas, and was installed at Aranjuez on the 25th of September. The president per interim was the venerable count Florida Blanca. Among the members we find two other distinguished names; viz. Don Francisco Palafox, one of the deputies from Arragon; and Don Melchior de Jovellanos, one of the two from Asturias. After hearing mass, which was celebrated by the primate of Laodicea, also archbishop, and one of the members of the junta for Seville, the following oath, administered on the holy evangelists, was taken by all the deputies:—"You swear by God, and all the holy Evangelists, and by Jesus Christ crucified, whose sacred image



is before you, that, in the exercise of the supreme and sovereign central junta, you will defend and promote the conservation and advancement of our holy, catholic, apostolical, and Roman, religion; that you will be faithful to our august sovereign Ferdinand VII. and that you will maintain his rights and his sovereignty. That you will concur in the support of our rights and privileges, our laws and customs, and, above all, those concerning the succession of the reigning family, according to the order established by the laws aforesaid. In short, that you will give your vote for every measure calculated for the general good, the prosperity of the kingdom, and the amelioration of its customs. That you will observe secrecy in all cases where secrecy is proper. That you will protect the laws against all malevolence, and prosecute their enemies, even at the expense of your life, your personal safety, and your fortune." The formula of assent was, "I swear this." The following sentence was subjoined: "If you do this, may God help you. If not, may he punish you, as having sworn in vain by his holy name." The subscriber said, *Amen*.

After a solemn Te Deum, the deputies walked between two lines of troops to the royal palace, a hall of which was consecrated to their sessions. On the opening of the gates of the palace, that had been so long shut, the sad foliage of the magnificent mansion of their kings, and the recollection of the epoch at which, and of the reasons for which, the gates had been shut, drew tears from every eye, and an universal cry of vengeance against the authors of so profound calamities and such pungent sorrows.

The supreme central junta was acknowledged by the council of Castile, and all the other constituted authorities in the kingdom. Its first efforts were directed to setting in motion all the troops in Andalusia, Grenada, and Estremadura, as well as the new levies; to the transportation of Dupont's army, agreeably to treaty; and to furnishing the English army, that had vanquished Junot, with the means of marching from Portugal to join the Spaniards. In the midst of these cares, they sent envoys to demand succours from Britain. The forces of the patriots, including now the army of Romana, and the Spanish regiments that had been confined in hulks of ships by Junot, were divided into three, and disposed in such a manner as to form together, towards the end of October, one grand army. The eastern wing was commanded by Palafox; the north-western, by Blake; the centre, by Castanos.—The number under general Blake was computed at 55,000; that under general Castanos at 65,000; and that under the orders of general Palafox, at 20,000. Castanos was commander-in-chief. Besides these, there was a small army in Estremadura, and another in Catalonia.

Bonaparte, having ordered a levy of 160,000 conscripts, put troops in motion for Spain, and provided for all that might be demanded by the contingencies of war, set out from Paris for Spain without waiting for an answer to the overture for a negotiation with the British government, in like manner as he had hastened to meet the Prussians, leaving lord Lauderdale to dispute with his ministers about the basis of a negotiation, in the autumn of 1806. With his usual celerity, having set out from Rambouillet on the 30th of October, he arrived at Bayonne on the 3d of November; and on the 5th, accompanied by a reinforcement of 12,000 men, he joined his brother Joseph at Vittoria.

It would not serve any purpose either of amusement or instruction to enter into a detail of the means by which the first military commander in the present, and one of the greatest of any age, at the head of a numerous, well-equipped, and veteran, army, accustomed to conquer, defeated armies scarcely yet organized, chiefly composed of new levies, without being properly equipped, without regular supplies of provisions, and extended over too large a space of ground without sufficiently strengthening the

line of their communication. Suffice it to say, that marshal Ney, duke of Elchingen, with his division, passing the line of the Ebro, and dashing forward with great celerity in separate columns, took the Spanish post at Logrono and Colahorra, threw the whole country into alarm and confusion, and cut off the communication between the armies respectively under the command of general Blake and of general Castanos.

In a series of actions from the 31st of October, the army under general Blake was driven from post to post; from Durango to Guenas; from Guenas to Valmaseda; from Valmaseda to Espinosa. Blake, with the remains of his broken army, took refuge in Asturias. What remained of the corps of the marquis of Romana, that had formed part of the Galician army, fled first to St. Andero, and afterwards to Asturias. The Spaniards were pursued closely by marshal Soult, duke of Dalmatia; the van of whose army entered St. Andero on the 16th.

In the mean time the Estremaduran army, under the command of count Belvedere, a young man, was permitted, without opposition, to advance to Burgos, of which he took possession without resistance. Here the French fell on him with superior numbers, and routed his army, after a gallant resistance for twelve hours, and almost annihilated it. The count, with the small remains of his army, fled to Lerma, and from thence to Aranda.

The French, having routed and dispersed the armies of the north of Spain and of Estremadura, next fell on the central army under Castanos; and an engagement ensued at Tudela, 23d of November, which fixed the fate of the campaign. Seven standards, thirty pieces of cannon, twelve colonels, three hundred officers, were taken; four thousand Spaniards were left dead on the field of battle, or driven into the Ebro. While a part of the fugitives retired to Saragossa, the left wing of the Spanish army, which had been cut off, fled in disorder to Tarragona and Agreda. Five thousand Spaniards, all troops of the line, were taken prisoners in the pursuit. No quarter was given to any of the peasants found in arms.

By the battle of Tudela the road was laid open to Madrid. On the 29th of November, a division of the French army, under the command of general Victor, duke of Belluno, arrived at the pass of the Sierra Morena, called *Puerto*. It was defended by 13,000 men of the Spanish army of reserve, under the orders of general San Juan. A charge made by general Montbrun, at the head of the Polish light horse, decided the contest. The Spaniards fled, leaving behind them their artillery and standards; and, as the French bulletin states, their muskets; but this, from subsequent events, appears not to have been truth. Advanced parties of the French cavalry appeared, on the 1st of December, before Madrid. At this period, the inhabitants of this city were busily employed in raising palisades, and constructing redoubts, breathing a determined spirit of resistance. The enemy was beaten back from certain gates several times; but, on the third, they were in possession of the gate of Alcala; and also of the Retiro, the reduction of which place cost the assailants very dear, in the loss, it was computed, of near 1000 men in killed and wounded. The junta then hoisted a white flag. The people of Madrid pulled down the flag, and persisted in their design of defending the city; but this enthusiasm soon began to subside, for want of leaders to keep it up and to direct it; and, when they learnt for certain that the French were fortifying themselves in the Retiro, they began to retire to their respective houses. During the night of December the 3d, a Spanish officer who had been taken prisoner in the affair of Somosierra, brought a message from general Berthier, summoning for the second time Madrid to surrender. The marquis of Castellar, captain-general of Castile, sent in answer a letter to Berthier, demanding a suspension of hostilities, that he might have time for consulting the superior authorities. But there was no need or use in this; the superior authorities,



thorities, who appear plainly to have had a secret correspondence with the enemy, had already come to a determination on the subject. Madrid was undoubtedly given up through treachery.

Napoleon now addressed a manifesto to the Spanish nation, in which he promised them all good things if they received Joseph for their king sincerely and with all their heart. If not, he would put the crown on his own head, treat them as a conquered province, and find another kingdom for his brother; for God had given him both the inclination and the power to surmount all obstacles.—The troops that had fled from the Puerto, or Gate, of Guadarama, having arrived, on the 3d of December, almost under the walls of Madrid, demanded with loud cries to be led to its defence. Their commander, count St. Juan, who opposed so dangerous an attempt, was massacred.

The supreme junta, in conformity with the uniform intentions of the provincial juntas, had declared that the colonies in Asia and America should not be considered as dependent provinces, but enjoy all the privileges of the metropolis and mother-country. This was also declared in the new constitution framed for Spain by Bonaparte. But in the Canaries, in Mexico and the Floridas, in Cuba and the other islands, and throughout the whole of South America, every Spaniard, as if animated by the same soul, breathed the same sentiments of devotion to the king, and detestation of the monster who wished to usurp his throne. In the Floridas, the French were so apprehensive of falling victims to the vengeance of the Spaniards, that they fled with their effects into the territories of the United States. But the moderation, wisdom, and justice, of men in authority, restrained the fury of the populace. The proclamations of the Spanish governors in the colonies, for sense, reason, and justice, equal those of Old Spain, and for a fervent eloquence perhaps even exceed them. The proclamation of Marcus Gomerelos, commander-in-chief of the land-forces, and governor of Cuba, dated on the 18th of July, exhorts the natives to repress the natural impetuosity of their character, and to let the peaceable French, who had sought an asylum amongst them from oppression, find protection. The marquis of Villa Vicensis, commander-in-chief of the marine, in one of the same date, says, "Let us swear, that, if every Spaniard in our mother-country should fall, which ought not and cannot be feared, Spain, notwithstanding this, shall not cease to exist. Is not this country also Spain? Are not we also Spaniards? And shall not Ferdinand VII. and his successors reign over us?—Remember!—The French in Cuba are not mercenary assassins! Not servants or subjects of Napoleon." General Linieres, governor of Buenos Ayres, a Frenchman, in his proclamation upon the state of affairs, after recommending concord, said, "Let us imitate the example of our ancestors in this happy land, who wisely escaped the disasters that afflicted Spain in the war of the succession, by awaiting the fate of the mother-country, to obey the legitimate authority occupying the sovereignty." Hostilities were every-where else declared against France, and the most liberal and prompt contributions remitted to the patriots in Old Spain. This year the French were driven out of the islands of Porto Rico, Defeada, and Marie Galante.

The great affairs of Europe in 1808 are exhibited in the contest between Spain and Portugal, with their ally Great Britain, on the one part; and the ruler of France, aided by his vassal princes and kings, on the other. The annals of other countries sink almost into provincial history. To what concerns France, it may be proper to add, that in the beginning of the year Bonaparte, as a preparation for the farther extension and consolidation of his empire, annexed to France, and took possession of, the military posts of Kehl, Wesel, Cassel on the Rhine, and Flushing. It was probably with similar views that he established and endowed a Greek bishopric in Dalmatia.

Sweden, in the beginning of the year, might have made her peace with France and Russia. The king, with the

general voice of the nation, chose a braver, but more impolitic, part. After the basest attempts on the part of the Russians, tutored, it would seem, in the school of their allies the French, to seduce the Swedish nation from their allegiance to their king and their duty to their country, and a rapid succession of the most sanguinary battles, where the Swedes were bending and ready to fall under the overwhelming power of Russia, the Swedish government signed a convention on the 7th of November, by which Finland, the granary of the kingdom, was virtually given up to Russia. The heroic king of Sweden was not deserted in this extremity of fortune by his ally, Britain. A naval force under admiral Keats drove the Russian squadrons into their ports, where they were held in a state of blockade. A land-force of 10,000 men, under the command of sir John Moore, was sent, in the month of May, to assist Sweden against a combined attack from Russia, France, and Denmark. On the 17th of May this army reached Gottenburgh, but was not permitted to land. Sir John Moore repaired to Stockholm to communicate his orders, and to concert measures for the security of Sweden. He there found, to his surprise, that, though the Swedish army was quite insufficient for even defensive operations, his majesty's thoughts were wholly intent on conquest. It was first proposed, that the British should remain in their ships till some Swedish regiments should be collected at Gottenburgh, and that the combined forces should land, and conquer Zealand. Upon an examination of the plan, it was found and admitted, that the island of Zealand, besides several strong fortresses, contained a regular force far superior to any that could be brought to bear against it; and also, that the island of Funen was full of French and Spanish troops, which could not be prevented from crossing over in small parties. It was next proposed that the British alone should land on Finland, storm a fortress, and take a position there. But sir John Moore represented, that ten thousand British troops were wholly insufficient to encounter the principal force of the Russian empire, which could quickly be brought against them at a point so near Peterburgh.—Sir John escaped from the resentment of his Swedish majesty in disguise, and, conformably to his instructions, brought back his little army to England.

In Italy the most prominent events were the transference of the crown of Naples to Murat grand duke of Berg, Bonaparte's brother-in-law; the usurpation of the papal throne, and annexation of Rome, with all the ecclesiastical states, Placentia, Parma, and Anconia, to the French empire. The cardinals were banished from Rome, but allowed considerable pensions. The person of his holiness was secured in a state of confinement. Bonaparte said, that he only took back what had been given to the church for the support of religion and promotion of piety; but, as the munificent donations of his predecessor, Charlemagne, had been used for very different purposes, it was very fit that they should be recalled. The kingdom of Christ, he observed, like a sound divine, was not of this world.

The same pope, Pius VII. that had gone to crown Napoleon at Paris, and agreed to the subversion of the Gallican church, and the diminution of the apostolical power, by the establishment of the concordat, in this terrible crisis assumed the courage and the character of a martyr. He protested, by a public manifesto, against the irreligious and unjust proceeding of the emperor of the French towards the holy apostolical see. He formally excommunicated him. In proclamations addressed to the Spanish, Portuguese, and all other Catholic nations, he exhorted them to the defence of the altar and the throne, at the hazard of their lives, as well as the expense of their fortune. The affecting passage in the evangelists, describing the remorse of the disciple and apostle Peter, at having denied his Saviour, was applied by the Roman-catholics to Pius VII. See Luke xxii. 61, 2.

It seemed matter of astonishment to many, that so subtle



etc and refined a politician as Bonaparte should incur the hazard of exciting indignation, and a spirit of resistance to his aggressions, in all catholic countries, by the spoliation and imprisonment of the pope. But Bonaparte's power had by this time risen to so enormous a pitch, that he did not think it necessary to keep any terms with the opinions and prejudices of men or nations. His general plan was, to arm and direct one half of the world against the other, and to make every thing bend under the weight of military despotism. It is a maxim of Machiavel's, that, when a prince wants to establish his power on changes, he should leave nothing of the old system, but make all things new. Bonaparte, no doubt well acquainted with the *Italian* politician, appears not to have considered himself as secure until all the venerable institutions of society had been trodden under foot. The foundation of Bonaparte's empire was military force and ingenious combination; the spoils of proprietors distributed among military adventurers; and the efforts of states and kingdoms against one another, dextrously turned to the destruction of the whole. But this career of destruction seems to be calculated, by its very nature, to come, at no great distance of time, to a termination; if indeed it be not terminated at the moment we are writing.

The altar indeed was restored, in some fashion, by the concordat, but not religion. Lucien Bonaparte and Portalis, recommending the concordat to the assembly, said, that "Religion was an useful instrument in the hands of government, as well as a consolation to *weak minds and timorous consciences*." Can such a nation as the French venerate a system of pomp and ceremony, avowedly adapted merely to such purposes, and considered by the legislature itself as mere mummery? But the Roman-catholic clergy have been vilified and brought into contempt; not by the ruling powers of France, but by themselves; by swearing, abjuring, and swearing again, according to circumstances, and by the blasphemous adulation of so many bishops and archbishops, who in their pastoral letters, as well as their sermons on public occasions, did not hesitate to call Bonaparte "a new Cyrus whom God has chosen and supports for the accomplishment of his impenetrable designs—whom God brought back from Egypt, in order to make him the man of his right-hand. This is the Lord's doing, and it is marvellous in our eyes."

A few domestic occurrences of this year remain to be noticed.—On the 7th of January, a fire broke out at the printing-office of Messrs. Nichols, in Red-Lion Passage, near Fleet-street. It is supposed to have begun from a snuff of a candle having been dropped in the ware-room. The whole of that very extensive concern was consumed, and valuable works that had been accumulating for many years (particularly a large stock of the Gentleman's Magazine) were entirely lost. Messrs. Nichols and son were insured to the amount of 12,000*l.* but that sum was by no means equal to cover their loss. The Red-Lion public-house, Mr. Edwards's printing-office, the Scottish Hospital, and some other adjacent places, sustained partial injury.

On the 20th of September, about four o'clock in the morning, Covent-Garden theatre was discovered to be in flames; and so fierce and rapid was the fire, that no exertions could stop its course. Within less than three hours the whole of the interior was destroyed: nearly all the scenery, wardrobe, musical and dramatic libraries, and properties of all kinds, were a heap of smoking ruins. The books of accounts, deeds, and the receipts of the preceding night's performance, were fortunately preserved. A considerable number of engines promptly attended; but there was a total want of water for some time, the main pipe having been cut off with the intention of laying down a new one; and above an hour elapsed before some of the engines could be supplied. During the time that there was no supply of water, the most essential as-

sistance for the neighbours was derived from the pumps of the Bedford coffee-house. The engines afterwards played with the utmost effect for upwards of an hour, when the roof of the theatre fell in with a dreadful crash, and thus announced the destruction of the interior of this elegant building. The fire raged with most violence at the upper end of Bow-street; on the western side of which, the houses No. 9—15 were completely destroyed; and Nos. 16 and 17 seriously damaged, though not entirely consumed. In Hart-street, the flames communicated to the houses opposite the theatre, and four caught fire at the same moment; but, by the great activity of the firemen, they suffered little more damage than a severe scorching. As to the theatre itself, it was totally consumed; and, on the Hart-street side, not even the walls were left standing.

The most painful part of this dreadful event remains to be described. At an early stage of the fire, a party of firemen broke open the great door under the Piazza; and, having introduced an engine belonging to the Phoenix fire-office into the passage, they directed it towards the galleries, where the fire appeared to burn most fiercely; when, dreadful to relate, the burning roof of the passage fell in and buried them, with several others who had rushed in along with them, in the ruins. It was a considerable time before the rubbish, which now blocked up the door, could be cleared away. When it was effected, a miserable spectacle presented itself; the mangled bodies of dead and dying appearing through the rubbish, or discovered in each advance to remove it. Eleven dead bodies were carried into the church-yard of St. Paul, Covent-Garden. Some were sent to St. Bartholomew's, and others to the Middlesex Hospital, miserably mangled, with broken limbs and dreadful bruises.

The insurances on the theatre scarcely exceeded 60,000*l.* and the savings from the premises amounted to 3500*l.* more, which, upon the whole, was not more than one-fourth part of the sum requisite to replace the loss. Besides the usual stock of scenery, there was an additional quantity for a new melo-drama, which was shortly to have been brought forward. Of the originals of the music of Handel, Arne, and many other eminent composers, there are no copies; and of many other pieces of music, only an outline had been given. Some excellent dramatic productions, the property of the theatre, have also been forever lost. It is supposed, with some probability, that the calamity was occasioned by the wadding of the gun fired during the performance of Pizarro, having lodged in one of the scenes. The Bedford and Piazza coffee-houses escaped the flames, owing to a wall which had been erected by the proprietors of the theatre, a short time before, to insulate the theatre from the back of those premises. Too much praise cannot be bestowed on the prompt attendance and active exertions of the volunteer corps, which prevented many depredations; who were afterwards relieved by parties of the life and foot guards.—The organ, left by Handel as a legacy to the theatre, stated to be worth upwards of 1000*l.* and which was played only during the Oratorios, was consumed.—The beef-steak club also, which held its meetings at the top of the theatre, (in addition to their stock of wines, valued at 1500*l.*) had to regret the loss of the table-service and dinner-implements. Mr. Ware, the leader of the band, lost a violin of 300*l.* value, which he had left behind him that night for the first time in two years; Mr. Munden, his wardrobe, which could not be replaced under 300*l.* Miss Bolton, her jewels; and the other performers property, in the aggregate, to a considerable amount.—It is almost too painful to describe the situation of those persons who were dug out of the ruins alive; they were, in general, so dreadfully burned as scarcely to be recognized by their nearest relations; and their flesh, in several instances, literally peeled from off the bone. The dead bodies taken from the same place were nearly shapeless trunks.—Another accident happened the next day by the falling of a



wall in Hart-street, which killed one man and bruised several others. A subscription was opened, and liberally patronised, for the relief of the sufferers. The Opera-house was, with much liberality, offered by Mr. Taylor to Mr. Harris; and the Covent-Garden company, a few days after the event, performed there.

No time was lost in clearing away the rubbish, and in beginning to rebuild; and on the 31st of December following the foundation-stone of the new theatre was laid by his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, as grand-master of the Free-Masons. The spectacle was unusually interesting, as it is not recorded that so distinguished an honour was ever conferred by any prince of Wales upon a similar edifice. The preparations and arrangements were every-way worthy of the event. Detachments of horse and foot guards were stationed to prevent the influx of the populace, and clear the avenues to the ground. The disposition upon the site of the building, both for the ceremonial and for the accommodation of the spectators, was extremely judicious. At the north-east corner of the intended stage of the theatre, the foundation-stone, containing nearly sixty cubic feet, and weighing three tons, was suspended over a basement-stone. On the west side, a covered and extensive awning, with a parapet in front, and inclosed behind, furnished with ranges of seats, was appropriated for the reception of the spectators, who filled it before twelve o'clock. On the opposite side, and parallel to Bow-street, another inclosed awning was constructed for the numerous deputation of free-masons. Near the stone was erected a spacious marquee for the illustrious grand master and his suite. On an elevated platform, parallel to Hart-street, were placed the military bands of the two regiments of horse-guards, the Coldstream and 3d regiments of foot-guards, and that of the city light-horse in full uniform. The grenadier-company of the 1st regiment of guards, with their colours and band, were stationed near the Bow-street entrance, as a guard of honour. At the angles of the ground were hoisted naval and military flags; and, near the stone, the royal standard of England. Upwards of seven hundred workmen, employed in the building, were placed on surrounding scaffolds. At twelve o'clock the grand officers of the several free-masons' lodges, with the principals of the craft, amounting to near four hundred, decorated with their paraphernalia, entered, the chevalier Ruspini bearing the sword before them, as grand tiler, and a band preceding; these took their stations in the gallery. The several bands now played alternately till one, the hour fixed for the arrival of the prince of Wales; at which time his royal highness, accompanied by the duke of Suffex, attended by general Hulse and colonels M'Mahon and Bloomfield, arrived under an escort of horse-guards. His royal highness was received, on his entrance at the Bow-street door, by earl Moira as deputy-grand-master; the detachments of guards saluting with grounded colours, and beating the grenadiers' march. The arrival was announced by loud plaudits of the people, and the discharge of a royal salute of artillery. The prince was dressed in blue with a scarlet collar, and decorated with the insignia of his office as grand-master. As he proceeded uncovered, with his suite, over a railed platform spread with green cloth bordered with scarlet, the company all rose and gave him three cheers, the united bands playing God save the king. Mr. Harris and Mr. Kemble, having paid their respects to his royal highness, ushered him to the marquee. Mr. Smirke, the architect, now presented a plan of the building to his royal highness, who, attended by all the grand masonic officers, then proceeded to the ceremonial. On a signal given, the stone was raised several feet; his royal highness advanced to the north-east corner of it, and deposited in a space cut in the basement a brass box, containing the British coins of the year, and a bronze medal bearing a likeness of the prince, with this inscription on the reverse—*Georgius princeps Walliarum Theatri Regis insaurandi, auspiciis, in Hortis-Benedictinis Londini*

*sua manu locavit M.DCCC.VIII.*—Another medal also accompanied the above, with the following inscription: "Under the auspices of his most sacred majesty George III. king of the united kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland, the foundation stone of the Theatre, Covent Garden, was laid by his royal highness, George prince of Wales, M.DCCC.VIII." On the reverse of this medal is inscribed: "Robert Smirke, architect."

Six hod-men now conveyed the necessary quantity of cementing-mortar, which was spread on the base-stone by the same number of workmen. His royal highness then, as grand-master, finished the adjustment of the mortar with a silver trowel presented to him by earl Moira; the stone was then lowered to its destined position, all the bands playing Rule Britannia, and the people applauding with the most animating cheers. The prince then tried the work by the plumb, the level, and the square, which were presented to him by the proper masonic officers, and then finished laying the stone by three strokes of his mallet; three silver cups were then successively presented to him, containing the ancient offerings of corn, wine, and oil, which he poured over the stone with impressive solemnity. His royal highness then restored the plan of the building into the hands of the architect, desiring him to complete the structure conformably thereto; and, addressing Mr. Harris and Mr. Kemble, wished prosperity to the building and the national objects connected with it. Thus closed the ceremony; and his royal highness, who performed his part with dignity, and whose manners during the whole time were highly captivating, retired to his carriage under another salute of artillery, and amidst the acclamations of the multitude.

The metropolis has seldom witnessed a more tremendous gale of wind than that which commenced on Monday, the 10th of April, and raged with uncommon violence from ten till near three o'clock. Several ships in the river drove from their moorings. About one o'clock a large sheet of lead was raised, by the violence of the wind, from off the top of a house in Ludgate-hill, and thrown down on the pavement: in its way it broke a part of the parapet wall, which fell on the ground with a terrible crash. The hand of Providence was never more visible than in this instance; for, though the street was crowded with passengers, yet none received the smallest injury.

The summer of this year proved remarkably hot. From Hayes in Middlesex we have a particular account of the heat, as observed in a north open aspect by two thermometers, quite detached. On Tuesday the 12th of July, at two P. M. both stood at 87°; at midnight, 69; at half past eleven in the morning, 90; and at one had fallen to 88. The hot Sunday and Tuesday, in the year 1790, only amounted to 83 degrees in open shaded situations. The average heat of the West Indies is about 82 degrees. The thermometer, which is always exposed at the optician's under the northern entrance of the Royal Exchange, was on Thursday at noon, at 87. The thermometer in the shade at a window in the open air, opposite St. James's Park, without any reflection of heat, was on the Tuesday at three o'clock P. M. at 88, and on Wednesday at 94. In a transparent glass thermometer at a window in the Strand, on Wednesday afternoon, it was 101.—The heat of the atmosphere in the north-eastern parts of Lincoln, on Wednesday the 13th, exceeded what it is stated to have been in any other part of the kingdom. A thermometer, hanging in the shade, in a north aspect, at Gainborough, at one o'clock in the day stood at *ninety-four degrees* (ten degrees higher than the meteorological records of this country state it to have ever been before). Human efforts were paralysed under such a temperature, and many of the brute creation died. A respectable correspondent assures us, that a large quantity of sheep was found dead at Burgh in the Marsh, and in the neighbourhood of Spillby, which had perished by the heat.

Lord Eldon has informed us, from the woollack, that "the virtue and morality of the higher orders alone keep



us together as a nation."—In the Sheriff's Court, July 19, an inquisition was held to assess damages in an action brought by lord Boringdon against sir Arthur Paget, for criminal conversation with lady Boringdon. The defendant had first pleaded the general issue; afterwards he withdrew that plea, and suffered judgment to go by default.

Mr. Parke, on the part of the plaintiff, addressed the jury. He stated that the noble plaintiff was a person of the highest rank, who complained against the defendant for one of the greatest injuries which a man could suffer in civil society. The defendant was also a person of *high rank*, and was the second son of a noble family, and had been entrusted by his sovereign with high official situations. The plaintiff and defendant had been at college together, and were co-students on the same foundation; which was a circumstance, as he thought, of great aggravation. The lady, to whom the plaintiff was united, was the second daughter of the earl of Westmoreland; he became acquainted with her in May 1804, and in the June following they were married; the lady at that time not being much more than eighteen years of age. They continued to live together in a state of the utmost harmony and felicity, as he should prove by many witnesses of the highest respectability, until the period when her affections were seduced by the artifices of the defendant. When or at what period the criminal intercourse took place, he was not prepared to prove; but it had been remarked, that sir Arthur Paget was very constant in his visits to the lady, and those visits were always when the plaintiff was from home. Lord Boringdon was in the habit of strictly attending to his parliamentary duties; and, as soon as he had left the house, the defendant came there; so that he must absolutely have been upon the watch, to avail himself of the moment of his lordship's absence. Lady Boringdon was also in the habit of going to Kensington-gardens in the morning, and sir Arthur Paget as regularly met her there; as soon as they met, she parted from her nurse and her child, and walked away in private with the defendant. This intercourse continued for some time before it came to the knowledge of the plaintiff; but at last he received an intimation of the frequency of the defendant's visits during his absence, which induced him at length to mention the fact to the lady, and enquire into the occasion of them. The result of this was, that on the next day, the 10th of May, the lady quitted her husband's house, and had from that time been living *under the protection* (as it was called) of the defendant. The province of the jury now was, to determine what damages they would give the plaintiff as a recompense for the injury sustained; and surely no injury could be greater, nor had ever man deserved it less. His lordship defied the world to show any spot on his character, either as a husband or as a man; and, with respect to his conduct to his wife, her own letters would show how fondly attached to him she was before her affections were seduced. The learned counsel here read extracts from two letters, dated in 1804 and 1806, replete with expressions of fondness and affection; in one of which she apologizes for not going to church, according to his orders, on the ground of her ill health; and in the other she lamented the delay of his company for a single day. Having concluded these topics, Mr. Parke said he demanded such a verdict, as justice, reason, and religion, required.

Several witnesses fully proved the facts stated by Mr. Parke; after which, Mr. Garrow, on the part of the defendant, addressed the jury. He insisted on the known inability of sir Arthur to pay large damages; and attributed the lapse of the lady to the fashion of high life, which leaves a woman exposed to the attacks of a seducer, and that she falls frequently before she is aware of her danger. The jury, after some consideration, found a verdict for the plaintiff—Damages, *Ten thousand pounds*.

On the 12th of May following (1809), the sheriff was again called upon to assess damages in an action Henry

Wellesley, esq. against lord Paget, (now earl of Uxbridge;) the defendant having, as in the former case, suffered judgment to go by default, thereby acknowledging the adulterous intercourse.

Mr. Garrow, with great eloquence and feeling, depicted the previous state of happiness enjoyed by the plaintiff and his wife, and recounted the numerous offspring, the fruit of their connubial intercourse. He then drew an afflicting picture of the mental distress into which the incontinence of his lady had plunged him. Nor was he less eloquent in describing the misconduct of the defendant, who, he said, had courage enough to conquer every other enemy but his own passions. This speech was followed by evidence of the facts; and a speech in mitigation of damages by Mr. Dallas: when the jury found a verdict for the plaintiff—Damages, *Twenty thousand pounds!*

The elopement of lady Charlotte Wellesley with lord Paget, which gave occasion to the above action, took place in the afternoon of Monday, the 6th of March. Mr. Henry Wellesley, who was secretary of the treasury, had spoken, it seems, more pointedly than ever to lady Charlotte, on the very marked and constant attentions of lord Paget, which (though, from the long and confidential friendship which had subsisted between the families, he did not apprehend to be dishonourable) might affect her reputation in the world. Lady Charlotte was *indignant at the idea of reproach*, and hurried out with her servant to take the air in the Green Park. She desired him to remain at the gate, as she should walk for a short time; and it appears that her ladyship took a hackney coach, and sent a note to lord P. at Uxbridge-house. They met; and, in this state of irritated feelings, and probably on the consciousness of guilt, they set off together. As she did not return to dinner, inquiries were made. The servant had continued at the gate of the Green Park till a late hour; and, on his return home, being questioned, he gave the above account. The melancholy truth was confirmed by a letter, which lord P. wrote to his father, in which he acknowledged his trespass—and that he had in vain, in the heat of battle, sought a refuge from the agonies of a distracted mind. It is certain that on every occasion in Spain, he exposed himself in a way which got him the reputation of a rash and adventurous gallantry; as it could not be imagined that a nobleman apparently gifted with all the means and objects of happiness could be in reality unhappy. The two sisters, lady Charlotte and lady Emily Cadogan, married two brothers, Henry and William Wellesley. Lord Paget was married to one of the beautiful daughters of lady Jersey, by whom he has a numerous family. This lady, the very next year, sued out a divorce from his lordship, on the score of adultery; and she then (November 29, 1810.) married the duke of Argyll.—Thus we hope we have made out lord Eldon's position, as to the virtue and morality of the higher orders. If not, we shall be obliged, in our account of a leading transaction in the year 1809, to go still higher, from the officer to the commander-in-chief.

In the quarter which ended on the 10th of October, the produce of the consolidated fund fully justified the expectations upon which the estimates of the last session were founded, the surplus was the largest that had been known in any preceding quarter: it amounted to 2,714,117l. In the quarter ending the 10th of October, 1807, it was 2,310,000l. Such was the condition of the permanent revenue. With respect to the war-taxes, accounts were not less favourable; their whole amount, in the quarter ending the 10th of October, was 6,403,705l. In the quarter ended 10th October, 1807, it was 6,179,073l. The property-tax alone produced, in the year ending October 1808, 11,851,000l.

1809. The principal features of this year, and the two most important objects which fixed the attention abroad and at home, were, on one side, the expedition of sir John Moore, and its unexpected failure; and, on the other, the attack upon the duke of York, and its result.



After the most important events in the peninsula during the summer of 1808, namely, the surrender of Dupont, the flight of Joseph Bonaparte from Madrid, and the convention of Cintra, the French army retired from Madrid, and repassed the Ebro, expecting reinforcements, and surveying at their ease the unconnected movements of the Spaniards. At the same time it was reported here and in Spain, that the insurrection there was universal; and this belief was so prevalent, that, in a memorial transmitted for the information of sir John Moore by the British secretary of state, it was stated, that the French armies could not enter the defiles of Asturias without exposing themselves to be destroyed even by the armed peasants. In the month of September it was considered as most probable, that the Spaniards alone would soon drive the French out of the peninsula. Lord William Bentinck was directed to make enquiries respecting the intentions of the Spanish government, on the expulsion of the French; and directions were given, under particular circumstances, to urge the invasion, with a combined British army, of the south of France. Such was the flattering picture presented to the view of sir John Moore, before he commenced his march, and was enabled to judge for himself.

The glorious events which have since taken place, prove, that this sanguine expectation, if premature, was not ungrounded; and, if not founded upon immediate probability, was however supported by the idea of eventual possibility. However, to execute the plans of the ministers, sir David Baird arrived at Corunna on the 13th of October, but was not permitted to land till the 31st, by which time advices had been sent, and orders received, from the junta at Madrid. This intelligence, which was communicated to sir John Moore previously to his leaving Lisbon, gave him some idea of the fort of co-operation and assistance he had to expect from the Spanish government.

The British army, in its march through Portugal, had experienced sometimes the cool civility to allies whose assistance was acceptable, but oftener a constrained hospitality towards guests whom it would be dangerous to refuse. The people, entirely destitute of public spirit, took no part whatever in public affairs. They were, besides, slothful, and altogether uninformed of what was passing in the world, and even of the political and physical circumstances of their own country. Of their ignorance, sir J. Moore had a striking proof in the accounts they had given him of their own roads, which he found, on his arrival at Atalaia, to be practicable for artillery; a discovery which, if it had been sooner made, would have been of the utmost importance, in sparing general Hope's circuitous course by the Escorial, and thus enabling the various columns more speedily to effect their junction. These circumstances were not calculated to give the English any favourable prepossession of the people they were sent to defend. Better things, however, were to be expected from the Spaniards; and, with this impression, the army looked towards the elevated site of Ciudad Rodrigo, where it was received with shouts of *Viva los Ingleses*, and a greater degree of enthusiasm than had yet been witnessed. But, according to stated fact, we have to deplore the oblique conduct and tardy co-operation of the unsettled junta, which governed the Spaniards at this time; and, whatever energies might exist among the people, sir John Moore had reason to complain, that no measures were taken by the government to call them forth into action.

When the three armies destined to cover the junction of the British forces had been defeated, one after the other, as related in p. 183, the question with the British army was no longer how it might serve the Spaniards, but how provide for its own safety. It was, whether 29,000 British troops should be opposed to the undivided attack of 200,000 French; or whether, by retiring upon their resources at Lisbon, they should preserve themselves for more fortunate times. Sir John Moore was not a moment undecided. He wrote immediately to sir David Baird to retire upon Corunna, and from thence to join him by sea

at Lisbon. General Hope, who had advanced to the neighbourhood of Madrid, received orders, according to circumstances, either to rejoin the main body or retire upon Guadarama. Sir John Moore, then, assembling his general officers, and communicating both the intelligence he had received and the plan he had in consequence adopted, told them, "that he had not called them together to request their counsel, or to commit themselves by giving any opinion on the subject: he took the responsibility entirely upon himself; and he only required that they should immediately prepare for carrying it into effect." This plan of retreating was, however, afterwards abandoned by sir John Moore, on account of his receiving intelligence that the remains of Castaños's army were coming up to join him; and that general St. Juan, with 20,000 men, had twice defeated the enemy; and, lastly, that Bonaparte was at Burgos. But this intention did not last long; for contrary reports soon forced sir John Moore to revert to his first resolution.

It is almost impossible to conceive what hardships of all descriptions, and from all quarters, the prudent and brave sir John Moore had to endure. Our soldiers detested and despised the Spaniards for refusing to open their doors to the allies and defenders of their beloved Ferdinand. They were disappointed and soured at retreating from the approach of the enemy; and this they attributed to the cowardly conduct of the Spaniards, by whom they considered themselves to have been betrayed. The Spanish peasantry and villagers, again, poor and destitute of every thing beyond mere necessaries, were but ill disposed to share their pittance with men whom they hated and even abhorred as heretics, whom they dreaded as guests, and whom they now conceived to be abandoning them to all the fury of an enraged enemy. Such wants and sentiments on either side engendered all the bitterness which marked the intercourse of the two nations during the remainder of the campaign.

Aided by lord Paget and general Crauford, general Moore prevented the duke of Dalmatia, who had crossed the Eslar at Mansilla, from occupying Astorga before the arrival of the British army. Soon after this, the British commander, uniting his army with the division of sir David Baird from Valencia, proceeded, on the 30th of December, on Villa Franca and Lugo. At Astorga all the superfluous camp-equipage was destroyed, and all the sumpter mules, hories, &c. that could not keep up with the columns, abandoned. On the march from hence the military chest was sacrificed: barrels full of dollars were staved, and precipitated over rocks, into ravines, dens, and rivers. From Astorga to Lugo the road lay for the most part through bleak mountains covered with snow, affording so scanty a supply of provisions, that the troops were sometimes two days without taking any food. During this march, the extremes of vice and misery seemed to meet. In some of the villages the unburied dead bodies of the inhabitants lay outstretched before the doors of their own houses, from which they had been driven by the unrelenting soldier, urged by his own necessities, to perish with cold and hunger. In others no traces of inhabitants were to be found. Stragglers from different corps plundered the different magazines, commissariat-stores, and cellars, and afterwards lay intoxicated by the way-side, mixed with the sick and those overcome with fatigue, to be trampled under foot or mangled by the sabres of the enemy's cavalry. Besides the terrible example noticed in a letter from sir John Moore to the marquis of Romana, of a soldier shot at Villa Franca, other warnings were held up by the general, not less impressive: several stragglers, who had been hacked and hewed by the French troopers, were led through their respective corps as examples of the consequences of drunkenness and disobedience to orders.

Bonaparte, having been joined by the duke of Dalmatia at Astorga, after reviewing his troops to the amount of 70,000 men, had dispatched three divisions, under three marshals,



marshals, in pursuit of the English army. The tardiness of the junta expressed by Mr. Frere in his letter to sir John Moore, the indecisive fluctuations of the government as to the means of defending the country, and several other imperious motives, suggested to the British commander the necessity of abandoning a country and a people who seemed to think so little of themselves, that they could hardly be persuaded to do any thing for their own security.—A retreat, therefore, was determined upon.

On the 11th of January, 1809, the British army marched from Betanzos to Corunna; having now traversed two hundred and fifty miles of mountainous and difficult country, in the face of an enemy immensely superior in numbers; very often without food or shelter, drenched with rain, and worn out with cold and fatigue; yet still unbroken, presenting every where an undaunted front to the enemy, who had not to boast of having won a single trophy. As yet, however, they were not in safety; very few transports having arrived from Vigo, owing to contrary winds. The position of Corunna was bad; and the enemy were assembling on the heights which surround it. There were not wanting generals who advised sir John Moore to offer terms to the duke of Dalmatia, for the purpose of being allowed to embark in safety. But the British general was determined not to accept of any terms, which (to use his own expression) would be in the least dishonourable to the army or to the country.

The peninsula of Betanzos, sir John Moore had reason to hope would afford a position for defending the embarkation; and was also so much nearer, that, had not contrary winds detained the transports two days longer at Vigo, the army would have embarked unmolested. As this was not the case, the general prepared for action, by occupying a small chain of hills, a short distance from Corunna. The enemy occupied a more extended chain in his front; and a valley, with the village of Elvina, separated the two armies. From the 13th to the 15th, the embarkation of the sick, the artillery, horses, &c. was going on; the enemy, in the mean time, gradually drawing round, and skirmishing with our out-posts.

On the 16th of January, when orders had been issued for the embarkation of the whole army, general Hope reported from his post, that the enemy's line were getting under arms. Sir John flew to the field, where the pickets were engaged, and beheld the French descending from the hills in four columns, two of which threatened the right of the British line, composed of sir David Baird's division; upon whose right the rifle-corps formed a chain across the valley, which united it with general Frazer's division; the whole stretching in an oblique direction towards Corunna. Sir John Moore, perceiving that the great effort of the enemy would be directed against lord W. Bentinck's brigade, and general Manningham's, which composed sir David Baird's right wing, had ordered general Frazer to move up, and general Paget to support lord W. Bentinck with the reserve. The 50th and 42d, which composed the remainder of lord W. Bentinck's brigade, charged gallantly, and drove the enemy from the village of Elvina with great slaughter. Sir John Moore was in the act of ordering up the guards to support the brave Highlanders, when he received his death-wound by a cannon-ball on the shoulder, and was conveyed from the field, in a blanket, by six soldiers of the 42d. Sir David Baird had already left the scene of action from a severe wound in his arm. The soldiers, however, undismayed by the loss of their leaders, maintained the advantages they had gained on the right, and continued to repel the repeated attacks of the enemy on their centre and left, until night left them masters of the field. Not more than 15,000 British were engaged, of whom about 7 or 800 were killed or wounded. The French engaged in this battle were estimated at 20,000; and consisted, in part, of the regiments sent back from Portugal to the ports of France nearest to Spain, by the convention of Cintra; their loss was reckoned at about 2000. General Hope, on whom the chief command de-

veloped, took advantage of the success which had been obtained to embark the army, before it should be overwhelmed with the increasing numbers of the enemy. The boats were all in readiness, and the previous measures were so well concerted, that nearly the whole army were embarked during the night.

While general Moore was conveyed in the manner above-mentioned from the field, captain Harding, observing that his sword incommode him, attempted to unbuckle it: "It is as well as it is," said he, calmly; "I had rather it should go out of the field with me." He was so sensible of his approaching dissolution, that he said to the surgeons who offered their assistance, "You can be of no service to me: go to the soldiers, to whom you may be useful.—You know," said he to his friend colonel Anderson, "that I have always wished to die this way. I hope the people of England will be satisfied: I hope my country will do me justice." The remainder of his moments were consecrated to tender remembrances, and enquiries about the fate of his friends.—He was buried in his uniform upon the ramparts of Corunna; where a monument to his memory has been since raised by the marquis Romana. A monument also, in consequence of an address to his majesty by the house of commons, was ordered to be erected to his memory in the cathedral church of St. Paul, London.

The consequence of these defeats in Spain was, that Joseph Bonaparte was again conducted safe to Madrid, where he was crowned towards the end of January 1809; after he had been previously acknowledged and proclaimed in the principal towns throughout the country, with the exception of those of Arragon, Murcia, Grenada, and Andalusia. The ceremony was performed with the utmost pomp, and attended by persons who assumed the character of deputies from the different kingdoms of Spain. Bonaparte himself returned to Paris on the 22d of January, 1809.

After the reduction of Madrid, a large force was sent by Bonaparte to Talavera del Reyna, with the view of reducing Cordova, Seville, Cadiz, and Lisbon. Marshal Soul took possession of Oporto, though occupied by a garrison three times his number, without any resistance. Ney, strongly reinforced by Kellerman, with Mortier and Bonnet at Lugo, made progress in Galicia, Asturias, and Biscay. Ferrol, as well as Corunna, Bilboa, and St. Andero, and all places of most importance on the northern coast of Spain, fell into the hands of the French. On the whole, it was evidently the design of Bonaparte, after having obtained possession of Madrid and the fortresses on the frontier, to subdue the whole peninsula by sending corps or columns, according to the nature and strength of the different territories, against the most important towns, and into all the valleys, great and small, of the country. But it appears from the whole tenor of his conduct, both military and political, that it was amongst his leading maxims, never to carry on more than one arduous design at the same time; but to bear with his main force and undivided attention on one object. Wherever the main strength of his enemy lay, thither he bent his most strenuous efforts. If that were once broken, secondary objects would fall into his hands of course: if that were suffered to remain entire, no conquest could be other than precarious and transient. When, therefore, it became evident to Bonaparte, that a war with Austria was altogether unavoidable, the war in Spain assumed a new form. Instead of pushing forward detachments into unsubdued provinces or districts, the first care of the French, for the present, was to provide for their own security by concentration. The march on Cadiz and Lisbon was suspended: the French were every-where seen drawing nearer and nearer up the Tagus towards Madrid; or creeping near the frontier fortresses of Catalonia and Navarre; or concentrating their force in the northern provinces of Galicia, Asturias, and Biscay. To retain a sure footing in Spain by keeping open the communication between Bayonne and Madrid; retaining



retaining possession of the capital and other towns in the interior of Spain; the northern provinces, together with Navarre and Catalonia; and to complete the conquest of all that lay on the east side of the Ebro, by reducing the fortified cities of Saragossa and Gerona; were the objects that seemed to bound the views of the French in Spain during the first part of the year 1809.

But, while hostilities were carried on with alternate success in Asturias and Biscay, and several important places were taken and retaken by the joint exertions of the Spanish patriots, supported by English ships of war, a line of which extended from Cape Finisterre to the Garonne, the French were, at the close of June, obliged to evacuate both Ferrol and Corunna. St. Jago de Compostella, the capital of Galicia, fell into the hands of the patriots. Vigo too, garrisoned by 1400 French, surrendered to the Galicians, supported by two English frigates. The French were afterwards driven from the towns of Tuy and Viana.

Three armies were formed for acting, it would seem, in concert (rather in conjunction) with each other, against the French, and even advancing on Madrid. One of these armies was commanded by general Cuesta, another by general Venegas, and the third, which was the auxiliary British army, by sir Arthur Wellesley. Cuesta had under his immediate orders about 38,000 men, of which 22,000 were cavalry; the right wing, commanded by Venegas, was 26,000 strong; and the left, under sir Arthur Wellesley, 30,000.

On the side of Portugal, general Beresford, with the rank and title of field-marshal, was appointed generalissimo, and was employed with great activity and success in organizing and disciplining a Portuguese army. Chaves, a frontier town of Portugal, in the province of Tral-os-montes, a most important military station, and garrisoned, it was said, by upwards of 10,000 French, was besieged by a numerous force of Spanish patriots, under the command of general Silveira: the citadel of Chaves surrendered by capitulation on the 25th of March.

On the other hand, a complete victory was gained, on the 28th of March, by marshal Victor over general Cuesta. Victor, with about 20,000 infantry and 3000 cavalry, was drawn up in front of Medellin, a town on the Guadiana, in the province of Estremadura. The flanks of his infantry were covered by the cavalry; and in their front were raised six batteries. Cuesta advanced with great steadiness and gallantry, notwithstanding the tremendous fire from the batteries in front of the enemy. The left wing of the Spanish infantry advanced within pistol-shot of the French. The first battery was already taken. The French cavalry made a charge, in order to regain possession of it. Two regiments of Spanish cavalry and two squadrons of chasseurs were ordered to oppose them; but, instead of executing this order, the whole, both cavalry and chasseurs, immediately wheeled round, fled before the enemy, and threw the left wing of the Spanish army into confusion. General Cuesta did every thing in his power for the restoration of order in his left wing, and to check and repel the attack on his centre and right. His efforts were in vain: he was obliged to retreat. The French, under Victor, immediately entered Merida, where, and between which place and Badajoz, they remained for a considerable time stationary; after which they marched from the Guadiana to the Tagus; and, having forced the bridge of Alcantara, proceeded down the river with their face towards Abrantes and Lisbon.

Sir Arthur Wellesley, who had arrived at Lisbon on the 22d of April, proceeded on the 28th to join and take the command of the army, whose head-quarters were at Coimbra, and advanced against Oporto. At the same time, marshal Beresford, at the head of a body of Portuguese, marched to the Upper Douro. Soult, who commanded there, knowing how unequal he was to its defence against an English army of superior force, the forces under general Beresford, and the spirit of the country, determined

to evacuate Oporto, and proceed through Leon to join the other French corps in Galicia, according to the general system of concentration adopted after the certain and immediate prospect of an Austrian war, as already stated. The marshal, that he might effect his retreat with the least danger of being overtaken by the English, adopted a curious stratagem, which was found not to be altogether unsuccessful. While he talked loudly of defending Oporto to the last extremity, he sent out one detachment of his army after another, on pretence of exercising. The commanding officers of these alone were entrusted with the secret orders, to send back a few companies, by way of a blind, but to march the main body, with all possible expedition, in an opposite direction. Thus the marshal stole away from Oporto. On the night of May 11th, his rear guard crossed the Douro, destroyed the bridge, and were closely pursued by our army, which also crossed the Douro, notwithstanding all the endeavours of the French to oppose it, at the ferry of Oventas. About four or five miles above the towns of Oporto and Villa Nova, our troops, after sustaining repeated attacks, made their appearance on both the left and right flanks of the French, who then retired, as the dispatch to our government states, in the utmost confusion towards Amaranthe, leaving behind them five pieces of cannon, eight tumbrils of ammunition, and many prisoners. They were pursued by the British to a short distance, and some skirmishing took place between our advanced guard and the rear of the enemy, in which it was stated we had uniformly the advantage; Soult, however, made good his retreat, it would appear, with very little molestation, though it was said, that, in order to render his flight more rapid and successful, he was under the necessity of abandoning the greater part of his artillery and baggage. He was pursued by general Beresford as far as Orense. When sir Arthur Wellesley's letter to lord Castlereagh, giving an account of these and other particulars respecting the evacuation of Oporto, and what had been done by our army, arrived, his lordship ordered the Park and Tower guns to be fired.

Sir A. Wellesley, after he gave up the pursuit of Soult, immediately commenced his march to the south of Portugal, where his presence had become necessary to watch the motions of Victor.

Marshal Ney, having evacuated Corunna, at first took the road towards Vigo. Thither also a body of Spaniards, under the conde de Norona, were on their way, with the twofold view of obtaining supplies, of which they stood greatly in need, and occupying an advantageous defensive position. On the 7th of June the opposite armies met at the bridge of St. Payo, on the small river of Soto-major, within three leagues of Vigo. The Spaniards were 9000 in number, whereof 6000 only were armed; and they had some small field-artillery, with two 18-pounders. The number of the French was 8000, of which 2500 was cavalry; for artillery, they had only five 12-pounders. After repeated attacks on the Spaniards, on both the 7th and the 8th, the French retreated to St. Payo, from whence also they were driven back farther, throwing their dead bodies in great heaps into pits and wells.—The Spaniards, in these actions with the French, were very materially assisted by four gun-boats, sent up the river by the British commodore at Vigo. The loss of the Spaniards, in the encounters at the bridge of St. Payo, did not exceed 110 in killed and wounded.

In the north-east of Spain, after the fall of Saragossa, a Spanish army under the command of general Reding, employed chiefly in attempts to raise the siege or else to throw succours into Gerona, was exposed to the whole force of the enemy. Two conflicts were sustained by the Spaniards with great valour. The strength and the resolution of the opposite armies seemed to be nearly balanced; but the French received a reinforcement of 8000 men, which turned the scale in their favour. Thus encouraged, they made a third attack, when the patriots were completely routed; and general Reding, who had received



five severe wounds, was conveyed from the field of action to Tarragona. The general, in his dispatches to the junta, gave a faithful account of what had passed, without saying a word of what he had personally suffered. He was afterwards joined by the army under general Blake, and both were employed in opposing the progress of the French in Catalonia.

On the 19th of May, the joint army of Valencia and Arragon, under the command of general Blake, proceeded against Alcaniz, a town of Arragon, near the frontiers of Catalonia, which was occupied by the French; drove them in great disorder from that important post, and afterwards routed and forced smaller parties of French from other places. On the 15th of June, general Blake made an attack on Saragossa, but was repulsed with great loss. For two successive days he was attacked by Suchet, in the neighbourhood of Belhite, when the enemy was repulsed. On the third day the battle was renewed in the valley of Almonazir, when the whole of the Spanish army, without firing a shot, though opposed by only one-third of their numbers, suddenly took flight, and left their general attended by only six or seven officers. This army not only abandoned their baggage, but threw down their arms. Nine pieces of cannon, immense quantities of provisions, stores, and ammunition, fell into the hands of the French, together with 3000 prisoners.

The corps or armies of the French generals Victor and Sebastiani, after long retrograde marches, the former on the shores of the Tagus, the other through the deserts of Castille, had united their forces at a short distance from Toledo. Their united force, with the reinforcement brought by king Joseph from Madrid, has been computed variously, from 34 or 40 to 50,000. It was stationed in the neighbourhood of Talavera del Reyna, and along the banks of the river Alberche.

In the mean time sir Arthur Wellefley, after his return from the pursuit of Soult, had remained long inactive in the vicinity of Lisbon; not by any means from his own disposition, which was full of activity and ardour in the cause, and forward and adventurous in quest of personal reputation; but because it was necessary that some plan of co-operation should be concerted between him and the Spanish generals, particularly general Cuesta. When this was effected, the British and Spanish generals began their march towards Madrid. A complete junction of their armies was effected on the 20th of July, and immediate measures were taken for carrying into effect the plan of operations agreed on. Sir Robert Wilson, who commanded a corps of Portuguese to the number of three or four thousand men, which he had brought into a state of excellent discipline, was ordered to proceed to Escalona, on the river Alberche, and the corps under Venegas advanced to Argonda. The main strength of the allied army marched on towards Ollala, where the enemy was posted.

On the 26th of July, Cuesta's advanced guard was attacked near Torrijos, and obliged to fall back to the left bank of the Alberche. The French army remained still at Ollala, thereby indicating an intention to try the result of a general action. For this, the best position appeared to sir Arthur Wellefley to be in the neighbourhood of Talavera del Reyna, a town half-way between Placentia and Madrid, and about sixty or seventy miles distant from both; and, Cuesta having consented to take up this position, on the morning of the 27th the British general Sherbrooke was ordered to retire with his corps to its station in the line, leaving general Mackenzie, with a division of infantry and a brigade of cavalry, as an advanced post in the wood on the right of the Alberche, which covered the left flank of the allies.

The position taken up by the troops at Talavera extended rather more than two miles. The ground was open upon the left, where the British army was stationed, and it was commanded by a height, on which there was drawn up in echelon, and in second line, a division of in-

fantry under major-general Hill. Between this height and a range of mountains still farther to the left, there was a valley which was not occupied, as it was commanded by the height just mentioned; and the range of mountains appeared too distant to have any influence on the expected action. The right wing of the allied army, consisting of Spanish troops, extended immediately in front of the town of Talavera down to the Tagus. This part of the ground was covered by olive-trees, and much intersected by banks and ditches. The high road leading from the bridge over the Alberche, was defended by a heavy battery in front of a church, which was occupied by Spanish infantry. All the avenues to the town were defended in a similar manner, and the town itself was occupied.

At about two o'clock on the 27th, an attack was made on the division under general Mackenzie, who gradually fell back in good order, though not without some loss, on the left of the position of the combined armies. Towards the evening the French made an attempt to overthrow the Spanish infantry which formed the right wing of the army, but without success. In the dusk of the evening the enemy commenced a general attack on the allies, by a cannonade on the left of their position, and by an attempt with his cavalry to overthrow the Spanish infantry; which attempt entirely failed. A division was then pushed along the valley on the left of the height occupied by major-general Hill, of which the French gained a momentary possession; but major-general Hill instantly regained it by an attack with the bayonet. This attack was repeated in the night, and again at daylight in the morning of the 28th, by two divisions of infantry, but was repulsed by our division under major-general Hill. Nor was the enemy more successful in their attack on general Campbell. They were completely repulsed by that officer, supported by a regiment of Spanish cavalry and two battalions of Spanish infantry, and lost their cannon. General Sherbrooke's division, which formed the left and centre of the first line of the army, was next attacked. They immediately charged with bayonets, and drove back the enemy with great slaughter. The brigade of guards, which formed part of this division, in their eagerness to pursue the enemy, advanced too far, and were thrown into a temporary confusion, having exposed their left flank to the fire of a battery. A part of general Cotton's brigade of cavalry, on observing this, pushed forward, and covered their retreat towards their original position. The enemy, being thus foiled in all his attempts against the allied army, and having lost twenty pieces of cannon and a few prisoners, retreated in complete order across the Alberche. Their loss in killed and wounded was never calculated with any degree of exactness. Sir A. Wellefley was inclined to estimate it at 10,000. The French said that our loss was greater than theirs, owing to the greater number of cannon they had brought to play against us. The loss of the British, in killed, wounded, and missing, amounted to nearly 6000.

As the Spanish troops were only partially engaged, their loss was comparatively small, not exceeding 1000 in killed, wounded, and missing. The Spaniards, we are told, formed the right wing of the allied army; and that an attempt was made to overthrow the Spanish infantry, which entirely failed. And in another part of his dispatch, sir Arthur says, "the Spanish commander-in-chief, his officers and troops, manifested every disposition to render us assistance; and those of them who were engaged *did their duty*." But in a letter to his brother the marquis, dated at Merida, August 2, 1809, he wrote as follows: "In the battle of Talavera, in which almost the whole of the Spanish army was engaged, whole corps threw down their arms in my presence, and saved themselves by flight, although they were neither attacked nor menaced with an attack, but merely frightened, I believe, at their own fire. Those base soldiers in their flight from Talavera pillaged every thing that came in their way, even the baggage of the English army, which was at that very time fighting



in their cause." We must leave our readers to reconcile these two accounts as well as they can.

The joy of victory was of short duration. The victorious quickly found itself in the situation of a vanquished army. On the 2d of August intelligence was received, that Soult, Ney, and Mortier, having formed a junction, had advanced through Elframadura to fall on the rear of the British; and that the French, in two columns, had already entered Placentia. As Victor, though repulsed at Talavera, would again advance against the allies as soon as he should hear of the junction and march just mentioned, there was no time for doubt or delay. The allied army was now to be saved, in the words of sir Arthur Wellesley, only "by great celerity of movement." On the 3d of August, therefore, the British army marched to Oropesa. In the evening of that day advice was received, that the French, slated to be 30,000 strong, having advanced from Placentia, had got between the British and the bridge of Almaraz; and, nearly at the same time, that general Cuesta was on the point of leaving Talavera, letting most of the wounded and sick fall into the hands of the French, from the want of means of conveyance. On the other side, there was reason to expect, as soon as general Cuesta's march should be known, the advance of Victor's corps, 25,000 strong, (after leaving 10,000 to watch Venegas,) to Talavera. Our army, if unsuccessful in a contest with either Victor, or Soult and Ney, would have been without retreat; and if Soult and Ney, avoiding an action, had retired before it, and waited the arrival of Victor, it would have been exposed to a general action with at least 50,000 men, and equally without a retreat. Sir A. Wellesley, in these circumstances, judged it advisable to retire to the bridge of Arzo Bispo, where he crossed the Tagus on the 4th of August; from whence he continued his route to Deleytosa, and from thence to Badajoz. General Cuesta too retreated by the bridge of Arzo Bispo, where he crossed the river on the night of the 5th. About half the number of the sick and wounded were brought away from Talavera; the other half remained there, and were treated by the French with great humanity.

A great majority of the supreme and central junta was composed of weak and feeble characters, chosen, not on account of their personal merit, but by the preponderating influence of great families; and were very ill qualified to call forth, combine, and direct, the energies of the country. The English ministry were not insensible how necessary it was both to arouse the exertions of the Spaniards, and to give and urge, as far as could be done without offence, advice for their proper direction; and for this purpose they made choice of marquis Wellesley, than whom a fitter person indeed could not have been chosen. But this was not done in time. The appointment of the marquis as ambassador extraordinary to Spain did not appear in the London Gazette until the 1st of May, nor did he arrive at Cadiz till the 31st of July; two months after the British general had taken the field, and exactly at the moment when that general, for whom the British ambassador had come to concert a plan of operations, victorious in battle, but defeated in the war, began his retreat on Portugal. This long delay between the appointment of the marquis and his arrival in Spain, did not arise from any inclemency of weather, or any other accident by land or sea; for he arrived at Cadiz on the seventh day from his embarkation at Portsmouth. It was occasioned by the private contentions of ministers about the great offices of state, to one of the most important of which the marquis had an eye, and which he afterwards obtained. But, though marquis Wellesley did not arrive in Spain in time for influencing the issue of the campaign of 1809, which was in fact decided by the retreat of the British army, he gave the most important and excellent advice to the junta, which this council appeared to be disposed to follow; of which they gave earnest in the recal of that refractory and capricious man, Cuesta, from the command of the army, and by greater exertions to furnish both to

the British and their own armies provisions, stores, and the means of transport. It appears from some of sir Arthur Wellesley's letters in August and September, 1809, that, while Cuesta was in the habit of intercepting occasionally convoys of provisions designed for the English army, and applying them to the use of his own, he on several occasions refused to the entreaties of the British general the means of conveyance or transport, mules, carts, and cattle for drawing them.

Sir Arthur Wellesley was created Baron Duero and Viscount Wellington of Talavera; which title, on account of the hasty retreat that followed the battle, did not pass without notice in the *Moniteur*. It was, however, very easy to justify his retreat from the interior of Spain; not so easy to vindicate the propriety of his advancing thither, without having any idea of the force opposed to him, and at the risk of being starved out of it. The corps of Soult, Ney, and Mortier, which lord Wellington estimated, at first, at 10 or 12,000 men; and afterwards, when he determined to cross the Tagus at the bridge of Arzo Bispo, at 30,000 men; were found afterwards to have amounted to not less than 70,000.

In the beginning of August, while so great a part of the French forces in Spain was drawn down the valley of the Tagus in pursuit of the allied army, general Venegas, with not fewer, it was said by the French gazettes, than 30,000 men, descending from the Sierra Morena, took up, on the 10th of August, a strong position on certain heights amidst broken ground near Almanacid, a town in Old Castile, three leagues south-east from Toledo, where he was attacked on the 21st by a corps of French under Sebastiani. Being driven from post to post, he drew up his troops on a plain, extending his line on either hand, with a view of turning the flanks of the enemy, to as great a length as possible. This line was penetrated in different places by some squadrons of French cavalry. The Spaniards, throwing down their arms, and abandoning their artillery, ammunition, and baggage, fled, every one by himself or in small parties, becoming still smaller and smaller as they proceeded in their flight, in a variety of directions towards the mountains. They were pursued by the French for about two leagues; but so completely were they dispersed, that the French cavalry, not being able to set their eyes on any other than handfuls of men in one place not worth pursuing, gave over the pursuit.

In the command of the army of La Mancha, general Venegas was superseded by the marquis of Ariezaga. It was strongly reinforced, and abundantly provided with artillery, stores, provisions, and the means of carriage. In numbers it amounted to 50,000 men, infantry, and cavalry. Ariezaga conceived the bold design of quitting his strong ground in the Sierra Morena, marching on Madrid, and bringing on a general engagement with the French, the issue of which might reduce them to the necessity of quitting that city. The French army, consisting of three corps headed by king Joseph, waited for the Spaniards in a strong position near Toledo. The Spaniards, on finding this, prudently repassed the Tagus: the French followed them. The Spaniards concentrated their force near Ocana, a city of La Mancha, situated on an eminence at the entrance of the vast plain of Mesada Ocana. About nine o'clock in the morning of the 19th of November, the advanced parties of the French came in sight of the Spanish army. At eleven o'clock the action commenced, and in two hours it was decided in favour of the French. The loss of the Spaniards was terribly great, and the victory complete. The French newspapers allowed that the Spaniards, encouraged by the superiority of their numbers, made a vigorous resistance. The Spanish newspapers stated, that for a considerable time victory was expected by the patriots, and that acclamations of triumph were heard from the ranks, when one disgraceful incident turned the tide of fortune in favour of the enemy. A single regiment of cavalry, which in an advantageous position



situation covered a large body of Spanish infantry, shamefully took to flight at a critical moment, and spread disorder and consternation among the Spaniards. The confusion and alarm became instantly general; and the superior tactics of the French enabled them to take advantage of such a situation.

The battle of Ocana was quickly followed by the reduction of Cordova and Seville; and a road was opened to Cadiz.

While these and other subordinate operations were going on, sieges were carried on by the French against Saragossa and Gerona. The siege of Saragossa commenced early in the month of January; and, on the 21st of February, in the midst of ruins and dead bodies, it was compelled, by all that could assail and overcome human nature, to capitulate. When Augereau summoned the town, declaring that, if it did not surrender on that day, he would storm it and put all the inhabitants to the sword, Palafox assembled his troops and the armed inhabitants of the city in the churches, where they solemnly swore to defend the place to the last; and, rather than surrender, to be buried in its ruins. An unsuccessful sortie was afterwards made; the Spaniards were defeated with great loss; and the French entered the town along with those who escaped slaughter. A sanguinary contest then took place in the streets, in which the French had again the advantage. Some of the inhabitants in despair sprung a mine, the explosion of which destroyed a considerable part of the city, and produced a dreadful carnage. The number who perished, French and Spaniards, was estimated at several thousands. The remainder of the Spaniards defended themselves for some time in works erected in another part of the town; but at last surrendered at discretion, the French commander having refused a capitulation. But, immediately on obtaining possession of the posts, he issued a proclamation containing a general pardon, in the name of king Joseph; and a stop was put to all hostile acts on the part of the French troops. The personal heroism that was displayed by the Spaniards in the siege of Saragossa, and that of Gerona, equalled, if they did not exceed, that of the 15th and 16th centuries.

Gerona capitulated on the 10th of December, and the French on the 11th entered the city, where they found eight standards and 200 pieces of cannon. By the capitulation, the garrison was to evacuate the city with all the honours of war, and be conducted prisoners of war to France. The inhabitants were to be respected; that is, both their persons and property were to be safe; and the catholic religion was to be continued and protected.

Thus at the close of 1809, all the fortresses of Spain had fallen into the hands of the enemy, and all her principal armies been defeated and dispersed; and, by dispersion, for a time annihilated. The grand cause was undoubtedly the senselessness, the ignorance, the contracted views, and the paltry intrigues, among the supreme junta, who were more attentive to the preservation of their own power than to the defence of the country. They neither knew how to infuse energy where it was wanting, nor to direct it where it existed.

Towards the end of the year, Bonaparte poured fresh troops into the peninsula; and resumed the design, which the war with Austria had suspended, of reducing Cadiz, the most important point in Spain, and planting his eagles on the towers of Lisbon.

The aspect of affairs became now more alarming than ever; and the junta, whether from a consciousness of their own imbecility and want of authority, or an apprehension that the public dissatisfaction with their management, for it can scarcely be called government, might burst into some fatal explosion, issued a proclamation for the meeting of the Cortes. The first of January, 1810, was fixed for the assembling of the Cortes, and the first of March following for entering on their functions.

We now turn from the peninsula to the continent.— At the same time that the correspondence between court

Metternich and Champigny betrayed the utmost jealousy and mistrust on the part of both France and Austria, Bonaparte proclaimed daily in his newspapers in France, Italy, and Spain, that the most perfect harmony and cordiality prevailed between the courts of the Tuilleries and Vienna. And in his German and Polish newspapers again, he represented the cause of the Spanish insurgents, as he called the patriots, as quite desperate; their tumultuous parties as broken and dispersed. He stated that Saragossa was reduced some weeks before it actually surrendered; and that Lisbon, in the beginning of 1809, was in the hands of the French. He wished to discourage the Austrians by his account of the state of affairs in Spain; and to dishearten the Spaniards by precluding all hopes of co-operation from the Austrians.

War was declared by Austria against France in the form of a proclamation of the archduke Charles, glowing with sentiments the most fitted to rouse indignation against the French, and awaken all their love for their own country, dated at Vienna, April 6, 1809. Proclamations in the same strain were also issued; one by the emperor Francis to the Austrian nation, April 8; and another of the same date by the archduke Charles to the German nations. These proclamations were followed by a manifesto, detailing the various causes of just offence, provocation, and alarm, which Austria had received from France.

The state and distribution of the Austrian forces, in the beginning of April 1809, was as follows: The whole of the army was divided into nine corps, each corps consisting of 30 or 40,000 men. The first six of these corps were under the immediate orders of the archduke Charles, as commander-in-chief. Under the archduke, the count de Bellegarde was at the head of the first corps; count Kollowrath of the second; the prince of Hohenzollern of the third; the baron of Rosenbergh of the fourth; the archduke Louis of the fifth; and general Hiller of the sixth. The seventh corps was sent under the archduke Ferdinand into Poland; and the eighth and ninth to Italy, under the archduke John. The lieutenant-general of the eighth corps was the marquis of Chastellar; of the ninth corps, general Guilay. Besides these corps, there were two of reserve; one of 25,000 men, commanded by prince John of Lichtenstein; the other of 10,000 under the orders of general Kinmayer; and troops to the number of 25,000 in the Tyrol, Croatia, and in small parties acting as partisans on the confines of Bohemia. In addition to all these, there was a kind of militia in the interior of the Austrian kingdoms and provinces, called the *land-wehr*. So that it was computed, that, when the archduke Charles entered on the campaign, he had at his disposal not much fewer than 400,000 men.

The main Austrian army passed the Inn on the 9th of April; and, on the 10th, the Isar at Munich, driving the French and Bavarians before them to and from Landshut. Corps arriving by the way of Pilsen from Bohemia drove the French garrison left by Davout from Ratisbon, and secured to the Austrians that important passage of the Danube, which it was necessary to preserve until the arrival of the army under Bellegarde, which covered the frontier of Bohemia towards Saxony and Franconia. For this purpose it was necessary to cover the post at Ratisbon from the armies of France that had begun to advance rapidly along the course of the Danube; and at the same time not to advance a step farther than was absolutely necessary for securing that object. It was with a view to this that the archduke extended his front from Landshut on the Isar as far as the town of Abensberg, near which his right wing rested on the Danube. This right wing was advanced about fifteen English miles beyond, that is, farther up, the Danube than Ratisbon, on which it had a safe retreat, being flanked all along by the Danube. The extent of the whole Austrian line, from the Isar at Landshut to the Danube at Newstadt, was about twenty-eight English miles.



Bonaparte, having learned by the telegraph, late in the evening of the 12th of April, that the Austrians had passed the Inn, set out early in the morning of the 13th from Paris. At Dillingen, on the 16th, he had an interview with the old elector of Bavaria; when he promised in the space of a fortnight to restore him to his capital, to revenge the affront that had been given to his family, and to make him a greater sovereign prince than any of his ancestors had been. On the 17th he arrived at Donauwerth, where he established his head-quarters. On the 19th the different corps of the French began to unite; and general Oudinot, having advanced from Augsburg, arrived at day-break at Pfaffenhoffen, attacked and drove from thence 3 or 4000 Austrians, and took some hundred prisoners. At Pfaffenhoffen too Massena arrived with his corps the day after: on which day, the 20th, marshal Davoust with his corps quitted Ratisbon to march to Newstadt, and draw near to Ingolstadt. Then it was that the plan of Bonaparte was unfolded; which was to manœuvre on the enemy, whose line was extended, as just noticed, from the near vicinity of Newstadt to Landshut; and to attack him at the moment when, supposing himself to be the assailant, he was on his march to Ratisbon; to break the line of the grand Austrian army, according to his usual mode of warfare; and to come between the archduke Charles and the corps commanded by his brothers. Such was the strength, and such the designs and views, with which the campaign on the Danube, of 1809, was opened, by the archduke Charles on the one part, and Bonaparte on the other; the two first generals of their age, and at the head of greater numbers of disciplined troops than had ever met in Europe! We shall just notice the principal circumstances and events on which the fate of the campaign turned.

A great battle was fought at Abensberg, April 20, in which Bonaparte appeared in person at the head of his Bavarians and Wirtembergers, against the two Austrian corps commanded by the archduke Louis and general Hiller; and another, with four Austrian corps under the archduke Charles, on the 22d, at Eckmühl; in which two battles, according to the French accounts, 40,000 Austrians were taken prisoners, and 100 pieces of cannon. The archduke was forced to cross the Danube at Ratisbon, in order to form a junction with general Bellegarde, who did not arrive at that river before the 24th or 25th of April. Some scattered divisions of the Austrians endeavoured to make a stand at Ratisbon, which the archduke had ordered to be covered with cavalry. But, after three successive charges, they gave way, and were all either cut to pieces or obliged to flee across the Danube. Ratisbon was taken; the Austrian garrison was either cut to pieces, or taken prisoners, or saved themselves by flight. The archduke, when he found the current of war running strongly against the Austrians on the right bank of the Danube, and was under the necessity of passing over to the left, sent a strong corps under general Hiller to the Inn, to join the other troops to be assembled for the protection of Vienna; it was expected by the archduke to rejoin the corps under Hiller at Linz. The French, however, by the rapidity of their movements, got there before them.

Bonaparte, following the course of the Danube, advanced rapidly towards Vienna; before which he appeared on the 10th of May. For upwards of a century the fortifications of this city had been neglected. In the city, properly so called, there were not more than 80,000 people; but in the suburbs, which were composed of eight divisions, the number of inhabitants was computed to be 220,000. The city was defended by about 3 or 4000 regular troops, as many armed citizens, and a few battalions of the land-wehr, the whole under the command of the archduke Maximilian. There was for about twenty-four hours some show of resistance. When, however, the French had dislodged the Austrians from the islands adjacent, and threatened to cut off all communication with

the left bank, it was thought prudent to surrender the city; but not, however, till the regular troops had effected their retreat by the bridge of Tabor, to which, when they had passed it, they set fire. The emperor of Austria, after the misfortunes that had befallen the army of the archduke Charles, and the rapid advance of the French, left his capital, and retired to Znaim in Moravia.

In the mean time the archduke Charles, who had by incredible activity re-inforced his army to the number of 75,000 effective men, having learned the fall of Vienna, moved down on the left bank of the Danube, for the purpose of watching the movements of the enemy, and checking any attempt that might be made to cross the river. He fixed his head-quarters, on the 16th of May, at Ebersdorf. The chain of his out-works extended, on the right, as far as Krems, while lower down the river some battalions occupied Presburg. The advanced guard was pushed forward near to the Danube; and the cavalry was posted along the banks of a small rivulet, on ground covered and partly concealed by bushes. Bonaparte, having resolved to attack the archduke in his position, marched his army along the south bank of the Danube, till it had reached the distance of about six miles from Vienna. Here the breadth and rapidity of the Danube are broken by two islands. From the south bank to the smaller island on that side the distance is about 1000 fathoms; from this smaller island to the larger island, called the isle of Lobau, the distance is 120 fathoms; from the isle of Lobau to the north or left bank of the Danube, the distance is only about 70 fathoms. At this favourable point Bonaparte determined to cross the Danube. As soon as the engineers had established two bridges across from the south side to the smaller island, and from the smaller island to the larger, Bonaparte fixed his head-quarters in the latter, and in less than three hours threw a bridge of pontoons from it to the north bank. As the French advanced, the archduke retreated, and permitted them to extend themselves along the north bank of the river. Bonaparte, left at liberty to fix on the field of battle, posted the right wing of his army on the village of Eßling, and the left on the village of Aspern. The archduke, who in his retreat had halted when he came to a favourable position, on the 21st of May at day-break called his troops to arms, drew them up in the order of battle, and communicated his plan of attack to his generals.

For a particular account of the two dreadful battles that ensued on the 21st and 22d of May, we must refer our readers to the Supplement to the London Gazette of the 11th of July. They were both of them most sanguinary and destructive, and harder fought, even by considerable odds, than that of Prussian Eylau in 1807. The battle of the 21st was terminated only by the darkness of the night. The French had by this time been driven from Aspern: they still retained possession of Eßling; but the general position of their army was nearer the Danube than it was at the beginning of the engagement. The morning of the 22d saw Aspern again in possession of the French; but by repeated attacks, after repeated repulses, the French were driven from both Aspern and Eßling. In the night between the 22d and 23d they effected their retreat from the left bank of the Danube, and took up a position in the island of Lobau. In these two battles, obstinate and bloody, hitherto perhaps beyond example in military annals, the intrepidity and perseverance of the soldiers, as well as the cool courage and presence of mind of the generals and other officers, on both sides, were astonishing. Both the archduke and Bonaparte exposed their persons wherever circumstances called for their presence. The archduke, being entreated not to endanger himself by exposing so very much his own person, replied, "I am resolved to terminate this contest, or to die in the streets of Vienna." The hostile parties combated each other with bayonets and sabres, in every street of Aspern, in every barn and every house, and even amidst the flames of Eßling. The loss on both sides was very great; but few prisoners



prisoners were taken by either party, both being determined to conquer or die. The loss of the French was immense: it amounted in killed, wounded, and prisoners, according to a computation founded on the most probable data, to not less than 30,000 men: five of their generals were killed, eight wounded, and two taken. The loss of the Austrians was also very great: eighty-seven officers of rank, and above 4000 subalterns and privates, killed; and from 2 to 3000 officers and privates wounded.

There was a general expectation that this repulse of Bonaparte would be quickly followed by more disasters, and that the glorious achievements of the Austrians would immediately be followed up by farther successes. But day elapsed after day, and week after week. No intelligence of any farther operation on one side or other: an unequivocal sign that both parties were excessively weakened and exhausted. While the archduke Charles contented himself with recruiting his army by new levies, as well as some garrisons in Moravia and Bohemia, and strengthening his position on the left bank of the Danube by new works and entrenchments, Bonaparte was allowed, for the space of six weeks, to restore the spirits, and to reinforce his army by troops called from different quarters, and to make every other preparation for crossing the Danube; and with a greater force, and greater wisdom or skill too, derived from the experience of the two former battles, to attack the Austrians.

After the disastrous battles of Eckmühl and Ratisbon, the archduke John was recalled with his army from Italy, where he had at first met with rapid success, to form a junction or to co-operate with the main Austrian army under the command of the archduke Charles on the Danube. He had taken Padua and Vicenza, crossed the Adige, and threatened Venice; but he was stopped in his career by Eugene Beauharnois, viceroy of Italy, who, reinforced by 10,000 men from Tuscany, retook Padua and Vicenza, and pursued them in their retreat across the Tagliamento. Two engagements took place, and several skirmishes; and, on the 14th of June, the anniversary of the battle of Marengo, the two armies came to a third, and that a very severe and important, engagement near Raab. The numbers of Beauharnois' army, according to the French bulletins, was 35,000, and that of the archduke John 50,000. According to the Austrian accounts, the combined Austrian army was not more than 36,000 strong, while that of the French was 50,000. The battle began about two o'clock in the afternoon: victory was long doubtful; but in the space of four hours it was decided. That part of the archduke's army which consisted of the undisciplined troops of the Hungarian insurrection, and formed the greater part of the right wing, gave way before the impetuous attack of the French soldiers and the dreadful fire of the French artillery. The loss of the Austrians, according to the French, was 3000 killed and 3000 prisoners, while their own did not exceed 900 in killed and wounded. The Austrians stated that the loss of the French was 2000 killed or wounded, and 400 taken prisoners; their own loss they admitted, in killed or wounded, was 1300 men. But it is of no importance to calculate the exact numbers either of those engaged or those lost in this action on either side: the French were decidedly victorious; the Austrians were forced to save themselves by flight. On the 26th of May, the most advanced parties of the French army of Italy came up with the most advanced posts of the grand French army, and early in June their junction was completed. The French army occupied a long line from Lintz to Raab.

On the 4th of July the different divisions were called in, and the whole of the French army concentrated in and about the island of Lobau. Never did the strength and resources of Bonaparte's mind, whether in planning campaigns, or giving orders for battle, or improving to his own advantage every occurrence or accident in the heat of action, appear in so striking a light as during the so-

lemn pause that intervened between the battles of Aspern and Esling, and the great and decisive engagement that took place there six weeks after. The first step towards an ascendancy over other men, is to acquire the perfect command of one's self. Bonaparte commanded his own passions, restrained the natural fire and impetuosity of his temper, assumed not only a calm but cheerful aspect, and set himself to recover and raise the spirits of his discomfited army by a series of bulletins, in which he made no scruple to vilify the Austrians, whose successes he affected to ascribe to the great swelling of the river, which he styled *General Danube*. He exaggerated the losses which the Austrians had sustained from the opening of the campaign to the battle of Raab; congratulated them on the junction that had been formed with the army of Italy; and confidently predicted complete success in his intended attack, as general Bertrand (he said) would soon triumph over the only general at all formidable to the French, namely General Danube. In an incredibly-short time, general count Bertrand raised three bridges between the island he occupied and the left bank of the river. In order to protect them against fire-ships, stockadoes, raised on piles, were placed 250 fathoms higher up the river. Besides these bridges formed on piles, a bridge of boats was constructed. Each of the bridges was covered and protected by a *tête-de-pont* [a bridge-head] 160 fathoms long, formed of redoubts, and surrounded by palisadoes, chevaux de frise, and ditches filled with water. Magazines of provisions, 100 pieces of cannon, and 20 mortars, were stationed in the island of Inder-Lobau. In the mean time the Austrian army was strongly entrenched on the left bank of the Danube.

Besides the bridges just mentioned, another was thrown over to the left of the Danube, from a small island on the side of the river opposite to Esling, not with a view of facilitating the passage of the French, but of diverting the attention of the Austrians from that quarter where it was really intended. The manœuvre succeeded. On the night of the 4th of July, when the Austrians were expecting an attack on their right, a heavy fire was opened upon the village of Enzersdorf, which supported the left wing of their army. In the short space of two hours the French army crossed the river, and appeared in the morning of the 5th drawn up in order of battle, on the Austrian left flank. In consequence of this masterly disposition, the archduke was obliged to change his front, and quit his entrenched camp, or to march forth and give battle to the enemy on ground which the enemy had chosen. Bonaparte, instead of being confined as before within the limits of a number of small villages, where he had to fight corps to corps, division to division, column to column, and even man to man, (a species of warfare in which the Austrians were fully a match for the French,) had now the vast plain of Enzersdorf on which to manœuvre; and, what was of all the most important consideration, he had rendered it impossible for the archduke, in case of a defeat, to fall back upon Hungary, and to effect a junction with the army under the command of his brother the archduke John.

The forenoon of the 5th was passed principally in manœuvring, the result of which was, that the archduke was compelled to give up his entrenchments, and the whole of the old field of battle from Enzersdorf to Aspern, and to abandon the country between Enzersdorf and Wagram. On the morning of July 6th the battle was renewed, each of the two armies acting upon their respective and opposite systems. Bonaparte had passed the night in accumulating his force towards the centre. The archduke, on the contrary, weakened his centre, in order to secure and augment the strength of his two extremities, where was planted a great proportion of his artillery. This disposition of the Austrian army appeared so strange (according to the French bulletin) to Bonaparte, that he suspected at first some stratagem; but he soon perceived that it was a blunder, and immediately took advantage of it. The battle had become general in every part of the line.



line. In every attack, whether made by the French or the Austrians, with the arms or the bayonet, the latter had rather the advantage. But Bonaparte, concentrating almost the whole of his artillery, battered one single point of the Austrian line towards the centre, as if it had been a fortress. To this tremendous thunder there was nothing of the same kind to oppose. The Austrian artillery, as just observed, was placed at the two extremities of the line. The centre of the Austrians was driven back two or three miles out of the line: the right wing, alarmed at the danger in which it was now placed, gave way, but fought while it retreated. So also did the left, which was attacked in flank by marshal Davoust. The Austrians, thus routed in all quarters, retreated towards Moravia.

It was observed in the French bulletins, that, in the decisive and ever-memorable *battle of Wagram*, from 3 to 400,000 men, with from 12 to 1500 pieces of cannon, contended for grand interests, on a field of battle chosen on the most mature deliberation, and fortified more and more by the Austrians for several months. In this battle the French took 20,000 prisoners, among whom were nearly 400 officers. The field of battle was covered with dead bodies. On the whole, the official accounts of the French calculated that the battle of Wagram had reduced the Austrian army to 60,000 men.

After the battle of Wagram, all serious thoughts of resistance to Bonaparte were given up. Proposals for an armistice were carried from the emperor Francis to Bonaparte, by prince John of Lichtenstein, on the 12th of July, which was agreed to, and signed immediately. All the strong places and positions which might be advantageous to the French, in case of the war being renewed, were delivered up to them; and by one article it was expressly stipulated that the Austrians were not to afford any succour or assistance to the inhabitants of the Tyrol and Vorarlberg, who were to remain under the government of Bavaria.

The armistice between Austria and France was followed by a definitive treaty of peace, three months afterwards. By this treaty, which was dated at Vienna, October 14, 1809, Austria ceded all her sea-coast to France; and the kingdoms of Bavaria and Saxony were so much farther enlarged as to become efficient checks on the future growth of the power of Austria, and thereby to confine her within the limits which Bonaparte had assigned her. Russia obtained so much of the territory of Galicia as should contain four hundred thousand souls. The emperor Francis agreed to acknowledge Joseph Bonaparte as king of Spain.

In the beginning of June, sir John Stewart, who commanded the British army in Sicily, embarked with 15,000 British troops for the south of Italy and the capture of the city of Naples; and he was soon afterwards joined by a body of Sicilian troops, under the command of one of the royal princes. A brigade was dispatched by the British general to reduce Lower Calabria, and afterwards to join him over land. This brigade took possession of the line of posts which the French had formed directly opposite Messina, and of which therefore it was of considerable importance to deprive them. But the first point to be attacked by the main army was the island of Ichia. The batteries, by which the shores of this island were fortified wherever accessible, were turned by the British troops, and successively deserted by the enemy, who retired into the castle: on the 6th day after which, the French garrisons of both Ichia and Procida surrendered to the British. The reduction of Procida led to the destruction or capture of forty heavy gun-boats in their attempt to pass in their voyage from Gaeta to Naples. By the capture of the two garrisons and part of the flotilla, 1500 regular troops were made prisoners, and 100 pieces of ordnance were taken.

The Neapolitans were led, by the proclamations of sir J. Stewart, to believe, that the principal object of the expedition was to re-establish Ferdinand IV. on the throne

of Naples: but sir John, in his official dispatches, discovered that his leading and paramount object was a diversion in favour of our Austrian allies. This object was accomplished in some small degree, and for a short time; for, on the first appearance of the English on the coast of Naples, a considerable body of men, who had been sent to reinforce the army under the command of the viceroy in Upper Italy, were recalled, as well as the whole of the troops, who, after the dethronement of the pope, had taken possession of the papal territories. But it was soon found that the projected attempt on the territory and city of Naples must be abandoned; for king Joachim had formed and embodied a large corps of national guards, besides the great regular force which he had assembled for the protection of his dominions and capital. After a good deal of fighting for the possession of the castle of Scylla, which was taken and retaken several times, the British were forced to abandon the slight footing they had obtained on the continent, as well as the two islands.

Another expedition, and one of a more formidable nature, was prepared by the British government to invade the dominions of France in Holland, partly with a view to the attainment of British objects, but collaterally for the purpose of operating, as well as that from Sicily, as a diversion in favour of the Austrians. Preparations began to be made early in May. Towards the end of July, troops were collected to upwards of 40,000 men, supported by the powerful aid of 39 sail of the line, besides 36 frigates, and a great number of gun-boats, bombs, and small craft. The present age had not witnessed so numerous a body of British soldiers, marines, and sailors, assembled for the purpose of invading the continent. The number of the whole amounted to about 100,000 men. The expectations of the nation were raised to the highest pitch. The fleet, while it lay in, or was leaving, the Downs, was a spectacle grateful to the pride, and flattering to the hopes, of Britain. Dover, Deal, Ramsgate, and Margate, were full of visitors, of persons of the most respectable classes of both sexes, come to see the sailing of this great armament. Among these was lord Castlereagh, accompanied by his lady and a number of his particular friends, contemplating with delight a work of his own creation, from the success of which much glory was anticipated. There was another visitor also, who attracted much notice by the pomp of his appearance, or what may be called his equipage: this was sir William Curtis, bart. an alderman of London, who was wafted to the Downs in a yacht, either of his own, or hired for the purpose, or borrowed, beautifully painted, adorned with a streamer bearing devices prognosticating victory and glory, and carrying delicate refreshments of all kinds to the principal officers, military and naval.

The object of the expedition was "the occupation of Flushing, and the destruction of the French ships of war, arsenals, and dock-yards, in the Scheldt." This, it was thought, might be accomplished, by so overwhelming a force, with so little difficulty, that the command of the army was entrusted to the earl of Chatham, a man reputed to possess an excellent understanding, but whose very name was almost proverbial for enervation and indolence. The naval part of the expedition was placed under the orders of sir Richard Strachan.

On the 28th and 29th of July, the armament failed in two divisions. On the arrival of the army in the islands of Walcheren and South Beveland, it was found that the enemy was not disposed to make any resistance except at Flushing, which was invested on the 1st of August. On the 13th, the batteries were completed; and, the frigates and smaller vessels having taken their respective stations, the bombardment immediately commenced. The town suffered dreadfully, especially from Congreve's rockets. On the 14th of August, the line-of-battle ships cannonaded the town for some hours. The enemy's fire ceased. On the 15th, general Monnet, who commanded the garrison of Flushing, demanded a suspension of arms, which



was succeeded by the surrender of the town. The garrison, amounting to about 6000 men, were made prisoners of war.

Though the attack on Flushing was thus ultimately successful, it had been impeded in its progress by the want of skill and vigour on the part of those who conducted it. The batteries and trenches were constructed one after another without method or arrangement; all was anarchy and confusion; neither officers nor soldiers in the engineer department knew their situations. In consequence of this want of arrangement in the distribution of the working-parties, the works proceeded with extreme slowness. Our troops were posted within range of the enemy's guns before any of the stores necessary for the attack were even landed, and without the advantage of confining him to his fortifications. The soldiers at work on the trenches were generally without any sort of covering-party in their front, while the enemy's advanced parties were frequently on their flank. The French piquets indeed were suffered to remain in many places within two musket-shots of our men during the whole of our operations; so that a wooded and enclosed country, which is generally thought advantageous to the besiegers, proved a benefit to the French, and a loss to the British. The island of Cadzand, the only place from whence the enemy could receive supplies or reinforcements, was left unoccupied; and, as the smaller armed vessels had not yet intercepted the communication, advantage was soon taken of the neglect; and on the 4th, 5th, and 6th, of August, three thousand of the enemy passed over from Cadzand to Flushing. The dykes had been cut, and the inundation had begun seriously to impede the operations in the low ground; but the attack was carried forward on to the flanks of Flushing along the dykes.

In the mean time a very numerous French army, composed of the national guards of the Belgic provinces and the nearest provinces of France, was assembled in the neighbourhood of Antwerp; the forts on the Scheldt were well manned, and every other preparation made for opposing the passage of both our army and navy. An immense quantity of naval stores, deposited in the arsenal of Antwerp, was either removed or got ready for speedy removal; and preparations were made for conveying the ships so high up the river as to be out of our power, either naval or military, in case of a successful attempt to force a passage. All ideas of pushing up the Scheldt for the reduction of the fleet, and destroying the arsenal and dock-yards of France at Antwerp and Terneuse, were presently abandoned; and lord Chatham, with the greater number of the troops under his command, returned on the 14th of September, to England. It was deemed necessary with the remainder to keep possession of the Isle of Walcheren, for the purpose of blockading the Scheldt, and enabling our merchants to introduce British manufactures and the produce of our colonies into Holland. But it appeared, that in this marsh British troops would have been exposed, not only to the fire and sword of the enemy, (against which, in such an insular position, they might have been enabled to defend themselves,) but to the rage of pestilence. Towards the middle of September, when the distemper was at its height, the average number of deaths in our army in Walcheren was from 200 to 300 a-week.

The opinion of the British government about the expediency of retaining or abandoning this dreadful island, was in a state of fluctuation. No serious exertions were made for renewing the defences or improving the fortifications of Flushing till the middle of September, when a requisition was made for 500 of the peasantry of the island to be employed in thickening the parapets, and otherwise strengthening the ramparts of Flushing. For the same end, and also the repair of the barracks, 100 artificers arrived from England with large supplies of brick and lime at the end of October. Towards the middle of November they began to demolish the works and naval basin of Flushing, as far as might be done without destroying the lives and property of the inhabitants. This was done;

and on the 23d of December the island of Walcheren was completely evacuated by the British army, nearly one half of which, according to a return made to the house of commons, was either lost or sick.

Our operations were, as usual, more prosperous at sea and in islands than on the continent of Europe. A French fleet, consisting of nine or ten sail of the line and some frigates, lay in the roads of Aix under the protection of the forts of that island. In the evening of the 11th of April, lord Cochrane, who was under the orders of admiral lord Gambier, proceeded to attack this fleet thus stationed, with a number of fire-ships, frigates, and other vessels, under a favourable strong wind from the northward, and the advantage of flood-tide. On the approach of our squadron to the ships of the enemy, it was discovered that a boom was placed in front of their line for a defence. This, however, the weight of the Mediator fire-ship soon broke; and the usual intrepidity of British seamen, led by such a commander as lord Cochrane, advancing under the fire of both the forts and the ships, overcame all difficulties. The greater part of the French ships cut or split their cables, and, the anchorage being confined, avoided explosion by running on-shore. These, however, were afterwards either destroyed or rendered unfit for service, while four ships of the line were taken and blown up at their anchorage. At daylight, lord Cochrane communicated to admiral lord Gambier by telegraph, that seven of the enemy's ships were on-shore, and might be destroyed. The admiral immediately made the signal for the fleet to unmoor and weigh, intending to proceed with it to effect their destruction. The wind, however, fresh from the northward, and the flood-tide, rendered it, in the judgment of the admiral, too hazardous to run into the shallow waters of Aix Roads; he therefore cast anchor again at the distance of about three miles from the forts of the island. This was afterwards made a subject of accusation by lord Cochrane against admiral Gambier.

In the Mediterranean, towards the end of October, a French squadron, consisting of three sail of the line and four frigates, with twenty large transports, from Toulon for the relief of Barcelona, was destroyed by a division of the fleet under lord Collingwood. The transports, separating from the ships of war, ran for shelter to the bay of Rosas; where they, too, though under the protection of some armed ships and gun-boats, were attacked and destroyed.

Nearly about the same time, a small squadron detached from lord Collingwood's fleet, with 1600 troops sent from Sicily, under the command of brigadier-general Oswald, took the islands of Zante, Cephalonia, Ithaca, and Cerigo. The French garrisons in those islands surrendered to the British arms after a very faint resistance. The government of the Seven Islands was declared to be restored.—In the Indian ocean, the Isle of Bourbon surrendered to a British force on the 21st of September.

In the West Indies, the island of Martinico and the city of St. Domingo were added to our numerous possessions in that part of the world. The city of St. Domingo surrendered without resistance. The dispatch from major-general Carmichael to lord Castlereagh, announcing this conquest, is a striking burlesque on that intolerable minuteness which has long, and that religious cant which has lately, become fashionable in the dispatches of both our generals and admirals: "With humble submission to the Almighty Disposer of events, full of confidence in a just cause, and British hearts to maintain it, I wrote a letter," and proceeded to make dispositions for the reduction of the city of St. Domingo. The zeal, abilities, courage, and indefatigable exertions, of the officers under his command, are extolled at great length—yet there was no fighting. The enemy did not make any resistance. "A continual fire of musketry from the walls was indeed heard for a short time, even when the white flag was up; and the general moved forward with a party of dragoons to demand the cause. The French general assured his



aid-de-camp that the inhabitants were firing at immense numbers of wild pigeons that were flying over the walls, but that they should instantly be stopped!"

In North America, the embargo-act was repealed by one prohibiting all intercourse either with France or Great Britain; but, in case either France or England should so revoke or modify her edicts, as that they should cease to violate the neutral commerce of the United States, the trade suspended might be renewed with the nation so doing. A treaty for restoring amity and commerce between Great Britain and America, after a good deal of negotiation, was signed by Mr. David Erskine, envoy and minister plenipotentiary from London; and American vessels in great numbers poured into the ports of England. But the proceedings of Mr. Erskine were disfavoured, as altogether exceeding his powers, by the British government. No loss, however, was suffered to accrue to the American merchants or captains of ships who had proceeded to England under the idea that Mr. Erskine had clearly understood the object of his mission, and the terms on which he was authorized to conclude a treaty of amity and commerce.

During the last three months of 1809, the affairs of Europe were not regarded by the people of England with much interest or concern, at least not with any emotions that might render them objects of pleasing and voluntary attention. Austria was completely subdued. The British army had been in part withdrawn, or in part lay languishing in the pestilential marshes of Holland. Battles had been gained in Spain, but the objects of the campaign had been lost. In a word, the war on the continent had ceased either to feed our hopes or amuse our leisure. In these circumstances, the legislative assembly of France was convened on the 3d of December; when Bonaparte stated, with his usual brevity, the conquests he had made since their last adjournment, and what had been done, and was further intended, for the good of the empire. Among other particulars he observed, that three months had seen the origin and the result of this fourth puny war. That the genius of France had conducted the army of England, which had terminated its projects in the marshes of Walcheren. The conquest of the Illyrian provinces had extended the limits of his great empire as far as the river Save; by which means he was enabled to watch over his commercial interests in the Mediterranean, the Adriatic, and the Levant; and to protect or to punish the Ottoman Porte according to the relations it should maintain with England. Intimation was given of an intended change in Holland, by which it would become a part of the French empire, "to which indeed it naturally belonged, as it was nothing else than an alluvion of the Rhine, the Meuse, and the Scheldt, the great arteries of the empire."

Towards the close of the year, a grand meeting of Bonaparte's brothers, and other relatives, princes and princesses, and vassal kings, began to discover a secret article in the treaty of Vienna. To this meeting Bonaparte represented the necessity of providing an heir to that throne on which Providence had placed him. For this purpose his present marriage must be dissolved; and that which had been for fifteen years a source of happiness to him, he must sacrifice to the welfare of France. Still his present comfort should hold the rank of an empress, and be treated by him as his best and dearest friend. Josephine returned her thanks to him for his generous goodness in exalting her to a throne, expressed her consent to a measure necessary for the country, and declared that she should always look to him as her great benefactor and best friend, and exult in the sacrifice thus made of their mutual affections. A note was taken of the whole transaction, signed by Napoleon, Josephine, and all the kings, queens, princes, and princesses, present; and on the 16th of December it was laid before the senate, which agreed that the marriage should be dissolved, the title of empress-queen be retained, an annual revenue of two millions of francs accompanying it.

The loss of Pomerania and Finland, the severe distress in which the Swedish nation was involved by the war with

the overwhelming power of Russia, aggravated by the ravages of a contagious distemper, and the knowledge of the army that it was the fixed purpose of the king, notwithstanding the armistice of November 1808, to renew a war, altogether hopeless and desperate, with Russia, backed by France; (see p. 184.)—these circumstances naturally and almost necessarily led to the deposition of the king, which took place on the 13th of March. This is one of the least, if not the very least, violent of political revolutions that we meet with in history: it was effected without the loss of a single life. The duke of Sudermania, the king's uncle, assumed the government under the title of regent, and was afterwards chosen by the states king, in the room of his nephew. This unfortunate monarch is now an exile with his family, for even his son is declared unfit to reign. However we may lament that he should engage in a contest to which he was by no means equal, we must in justice observe, that, from the very beginning of Bonaparte's career, Gustavus was ever his most resolute opponent; and, had the other continental powers acted with the same undeviating firmness, and stood by each other, (of which they have just now found out the necessity,) the disgrace of the emperor Napoleon would not have been deferred till the year 1813; nor would a French adventurer have been declared heir to the Swedish crown.—Though Gustavus had been dethroned for persisting in an unequal contest against Russia and France, still the new king declared his determination not to consent to any peace with Russia that should be disgraceful to Sweden, or oblige her to take up arms against her faithful ally Great Britain. The war between Russia and Sweden was accordingly renewed. The courage and gallantry of the brave Swedes were opposed in vain to the courage and the numbers of the Russians. Peace between Sweden and Russia, purchased by great sacrifices of territory on the part of the former, was concluded on the 17th of September. Peace was also concluded between Sweden and France, but not till the 6th January 1810. By this, Swedish Pomerania, with the principality of Rügen, and their dependencies, were restored to Sweden. The former commercial relations between the two countries were restored. France was to have the right of establishing an emporium at Gothenburg. The king of Sweden promised to adopt the continental system, and to exclude from his ports the English commerce. The treaty was declared to be common to their majesties, the kings of Spain and the Indies, of the two Sicilies, and of Holland, and to the Confederation of the Rhine.

About this time was published a list containing the titles bestowed upon the family of Bonaparte, and upon his principal generals, favourites, and courtiers. This will be found extremely useful for the ready understanding of the London newspapers in their accounts relating to France, since the proper names have yielded to the dignified denominations. It is remarkable that most of the dukedoms are situated in Italy, where the titled marshals have little chance ever to settle their ennobled families; and that no part of the French territory has ever been assigned as an *apanage* to any of Napoleon's friends and co-operators; as if he could call every part of Europe his own, except the very kingdom which he is in possession of.

Napoleon	- - -	Emperor of France, King of Italy, &c.
Joseph Bonaparte	-	King of Spain.
Louis Bonaparte	-	King of Holland.
Jerome Bonaparte	-	King of Westphalia.
Paulina Bonaparte	-	Princess Borghese.
Eliza Bonaparte	-	Grand Duchess of Florence.
Eugene Beauharnois,	}	Viceroy of Italy.
step-son to Napoleon		
Infant daughter of do.	}	Princess of Bologna.
Joachim Murat, brother-in-law to Napoleon		
Cardinal Fesch, uncle to Napoleon	}	Archbp. of Lyons, and Primate of the Confederation of the Rhine.
Charles Theodore		
	-	King of Bavaria.



Frederic Charles Wm.	King of Wurtemberg.
Frederic Augustus	King of Saxony.
C. M. Talleyrand	{ Prince of Benevento, in the king- dom of Naples; Vice-Chancellor.
Marshal Bernadotte	{ Prince of Ponte Corvo, (now Crown Prince of Sweden.)
—— Berthier	- - Prince of Neuchatel, (Switzerland.)
—— Marmont	- - Duke of Ragusa, (Dalmatia.)
—— Junot	- - Duke of Abrantes, (Portugal.)
—— Savary	- - { Duke of Rovigo, (Italy, near Ven- ice.) Minister of Police.
—— Davoust	- - Prince of Eckmuhl, D. of Auerstadt.
—— Angereau	- - Duke of Castiglione, (in Italy.)
—— Bessieres	- - Duke of Istria.
—— Kellerman	- - Duke of Valmy.
—— Arrighi	- - Duke of Padua, (near Venice.)
—— Caulincourt	- - Duke of Vicenza, (near Venice.)
—— Duroc	- - Duke of Friuli, (north of Venice.)
—— Victor	- - Duke of Belluno, (near Venice.)
—— Soult	- - Duke of Dalmatia.
—— Lefebre	- - Duke of Dantzic.
—— Moncey	- - Duke of Corneigliano, (in Italy.)
—— Mortier	- - Duke of Treviso, (near Venice.)
—— Mafena	- - Duke of Rivoli, Prince of Essling.
—— Ney	- - { Duke of Elchingen, (Germany, circle of Swabia.) Pr. of Moskwa.
—— Lasnes	- - Duke of Montebello, (Italy) killed.
—— Suchet	- - Duke of Albufera.
—— Oudinot	- - Duke of Reggio.
Monf. Cambaceres	{ Duke of Parma, and Arch-Chan- cellor.
—— Lebrun	- - { Duke of Placenza, and Arch- Treasurer.
—— Lacul	- - Count Seffac.
—— Clark	- - Duke of Feltre, Count Huenberg.
—— Fouche	- - Duke of Otranto, Gov. of Rome.
—— Champagny	{ Duke of Cadore, and Minister for Foreign Affairs.
—— Maret	- - Duke of Bassano, Sec. of State.

We must now return to the beginning of the year, to notice some important proceedings in the British parliament, which was opened by commission on the 13th of January. The speech contained several points which naturally led to serious debates: the renewal of his majesty's engagements with the Spanish nation, in the form of a treaty of alliance; his disappointment caused by the convention of Cintra; and the augmentation of the regular army. The address was moved by the earl of Bridgewater, and seconded by lord Sheffield. Earl St. Vincent opposed it most strenuously. He observed, that the manner in which the opposition to the enemy had been conducted in the peninsula, excited both sorrow and indignation: he would assert it in the face of the country, and in the face of the world, that it was the greatest disgrace that had befallen Great Britain since the days of the revolution; and this he openly declared, whether he took into consideration the manner in which the war was carried on in Portugal, or the way in which our troops had been sent there. Transports were hired, and great merit was to be attributed, forsooth, to ministers in providing these transports. But he wished to notice the important services to which these transports were eventually applied; "why truly," said his lordship, "they were at last employed to convey the rascally ruffians whom Junot commanded, to that part of France which was nearest the boundaries of Spain, that they might, as speedily as possible, be again brought into action, with more effect, against our soldiers. So that those devils," added his lordship, "are at this moment harassing the rear of our retreating army." He reproved with great acrimony the convention of Cintra; and said, that, if the house did its duty, they would immediately proceed to the foot of the throne, and there tell the sovereign the bold truth, that, if he did not remove the present ministers, he would lose the country. These were the sentiments of his heart: he spoke them as a solemn duty,

which he found himself bound to express. It was probably the last time he should trouble their lordships; "and with that," said the noble admiral, "I wish your lordships a good night." (At these words, the noble earl walked out of the house.)

Earl Grosvenor approved the intention and determination of assisting the Spaniards powerfully; but could not help expressing his disapprobation of the convention of Cintra; and would have had troops sent to the foot of the Pyrenees rather than to the heart of Spain, avoiding by this means the disgrace of a retreat.—Lord Grenville also disapproved of the sending troops to the interior of Spain of an inadequate strength to meet the enemy; and reprobed, with great warmth and at a great length, the conduct of the ministers, in which he found neither wisdom nor vigour.

The earl of Liverpool defended the address in all its points.—Earl Moira disapproved of many paragraphs in the address, but would still refrain from moving any amendment.—The address was agreed to.

On the same day the address was moved in the house of commons, after a number of prefatory observations on the different subjects touched on or alluded to in the speech, by the hon. Frederic Robinson; and seconded by Mr. S. B. Lushington.—Mr. Ponsonby, in a long and elaborate speech, touched upon all the principal objects: and, as to the convention of Cintra, expressed himself in the following words: "The convention of Portugal having taken place, his majesty's ministers thought proper to cause the Tower-guns to be discharged, in token of the satisfaction they felt, until they found that all the rest of his majesty's subjects entertained a contrary feeling upon the transaction. The public displeasure was loud and general; every patriotic heart felt the stain cast upon his country's honour; every tongue uttered the complaint. It did so turn out, too, that the first city in the empire, the city of London, sympathising with the national feeling, approached the throne with their sentiments; and a most vigorous reception they did meet with indeed. The corporation tell his majesty, that they think the convention disgraceful, dishonourable to the British arms, and injurious to his majesty's interests: they call for investigation, and the punishment of the guilty. In answer to this application, his majesty's ministers advise his majesty to tell the citizens of London, that *their interposition was unnecessary*, and that it was inconsistent with British justice to pronounce judgment before investigation. Really, though the gentlemen opposite may think their responses not only wise but oracular, I am at a loss to know what the difference is between British justice, and that justice which, in every variation of time or place, is immutable. Feeling the profoundest respect in every case in which his majesty appears to act, I still must say, that his advisers put into his mouth upon that occasion, an answer as little congenial to the spirit of the British constitution as it was ill suited to the dignity of the throne. Ministers may talk with flippancy themselves, they may pun and epigrammatise; but, when unfortunately the king of this country feels it his duty to hint his displeasure to his people, or convey to them a rebuke for their conduct, there ought to be a dignity and decorum observed in the language of reproof from the throne, which would make displeasure more severely felt by those for whom it was intended. But I can easily conceive that ministers might have been a little irascible on receiving that remonstrance, because, notwithstanding the usual complacency of the city of London to their measures, it had within the last year on two important occasions opposed them; first on the reversion-bill, and lastly on this disgraceful convention."

Lord Castlereagh vindicated the conduct of government; after which various strictures were made on the address, which, however, was not on the whole opposed, by Mr. Whitbread. A long reply was made by Mr. Canning: Mr. Tierney, Mr. G. H. Rose, and Mr. A. Ba-



ring, entered at very considerable length into our commercial disputes with America; and Mr. Alderman Combe animadverted in severe terms on the answer returned by his majesty's ministers to the address of the city of London on the convention of Portugal: a topic which had been also touched on, though more briefly, by all the speakers opposite to the treasury-bench. The question was then put, and agreed to *nem. con.* when a committee was appointed to prepare and draw up the address.

On the 23d of January, the earl of Liverpool moved the thanks of the house to lieutenant-general sir A. Wellesley, K. B. for the skill, valour, and ability, displayed by him on the 17th and 21st of August of the preceding year, and particularly in the battle of Vimeira. After encountering potent resistance from several lords, the motion was agreed to. The same subject, having been brought into the house of commons by lord Castlereagh, was also agreed upon; as well as a vote of thanks to the officers, and the approbation of the conduct of the non-commissioned officers and privates; so that all the brave co-operators in this victory partook of the gratitude of their country, of which both houses were the natural and impartial organs.

Yet, after these debates, the minds of the anti-ministerial party were not satisfied as to the policy and necessity of the convention of Cintra. Lord Henry Petty inveighed most strongly against the conduct of the ministers, and moved the following resolutions: 1. That the convention concluded at Cintra, on the 30th of August, 1808, and the maritime convention concluded off the Tagus on the 3d of September, 1808, appear to this house to have disappointed the hopes and expectations of the country. 2. That the causes and circumstances which immediately led to the conclusion of those conventions, appear to this house, in a great measure, to have arisen from the misconduct and neglect of his majesty's ministers.

Lord Castlereagh, after vindicating the conduct of government, moved the previous question on the first resolution, declaring that he would take the sense of the house on the second.—General Tarleton thought that there was something rash in the action of the 17th of August, and something wrong in that of the 21st.

Sir A. Wellesley explained his views and motives of action throughout the expedition. He had given it as his opinion, and it was still his opinion, that the operations in favour of Spain could not be carried on with any chance of success, otherwise than in conjunction with the people and public authorities of that country; and therefore it was necessary, before the commencement of the campaign, to come to a right understanding with the juntas. When he communicated on the subject with the juntas of Galicia and Asturias, it was conceived, that the best service that could be done to the cause of Spain, by the British troops, would be the expulsion of the French from Portugal. The British army, in possession of Portugal, might be a link between the northern and southern armies of Spain, which had then no point of union. When he landed in Portugal, he had the choice of two lines of march; and, for obvious reasons, had chosen that along the coast. Besides the troops which he had under his command at the time, he had reason to expect re-inforcements under general Ackland, sir H. Burrard, and sir J. Moore. But he was so well satisfied of the efficiency of his own force to execute his object, that he did not intend to have employed the corps under general Ackland in the field at all, but in the siege of Peniche. And, as to sir J. Moore, it was his plan to have sent him forward to Santarem, with a view to intercept the enemy, who, in sir Arthur's opinion, would endeavour to cross the Tagus. That plan was feasible, not only in his opinion, but in that of all the general officers who had given evidence at the court of inquiry, and even of the court itself. He farther observed, that there were two parts of the action of the 17th; the one in the mountains, and the other in the plains. In that part of the action which took place in the plain, the enemy had retreated in good order. Af-

ter the battle of the 21st, they had retreated in great disorder. And the good order of the retreat in one instance made all the difference. If the enemy had been vigorously followed up on the 21st, he was satisfied in his own mind, that there would have been no reason for concluding the convention which had given so much offence. He added, that he had done every thing in his power to forward the objects of his superior officers, though he differed from them in opinion. This was what he considered to be the greatest distinction between military and civil inferior situations. If, in a civil office, the inferior differed materially from the superior, he ought to resign; but, in military appointments, it was the duty of the inferior officer to assist the commander in the mode in which that commander might deem his services most advantageous.

The gallant general, who defended himself so clearly in the house, having since, by a long series of victories, expelled the French from the peninsula, we have thought it most interesting to state his own words, in order to show what were his ideas and conception of the matter, even at a time when the complete liberation of Spain existed more in our wishes than in our hopes.—Mr. Windham, however, contended that the statement, though satisfactory for the justification of sir A. Wellesley, was no justification of his majesty's ministers.—After several speakers had given their opinions at length, the house divided: for the previous question, 203; for lord H. Petty's resolution, 153.

We have already hinted, that the investigation into the conduct of the duke of York and Mrs. Clarke would form a prominent article in the parliamentary transactions of the year 1809.

When the woman caught in adultery was brought before Christ by the scribes and pharisees, the Saviour was probably far from being inclined to forgive the guilty; but, considering the zealous ardour with which young and old sinners were stimulated to accuse others, marking their eager desire to punish, and scrutinizing their secret views against his own person, he made the well-known address to them: "*He that is without sin among you, let him first cast a stone at her.*" An act of mercy towards the woman, yet also an act of justice towards her accusers; but, above all, the finest and most impressive lesson that ever was given to mankind, and a just and appropriate application of one of the first and most equitable laws of nature; "Do not to others that which you would not wish to be done to you." Had the prosecutors of H. R. H. the duke of York considered this maturely and seriously before they went to work, more recent events prove that they might have hesitated at the very threshold. Those who sat in judgment upon the accused did not fail to enter into the respective characters of the accusers: some thought that reform of abuses was the pretext, but not the main spring; whilst ministers were fully aware that this engine was set to play to tempt them that they might have to accuse them. Yet for all this the investigation went on; so that, not only this nation but the world at large ought to be impressed with admiration and respect for the impartiality of our constitutional laws, and be convinced that wherever corruption dares to show her hideous head, whether from the stall of the cobbler or from under the footstool of majesty, a thousand voices are ready to hoot her, a thousand hands ready to punish her, without the least regard either to rank, wealth, or power.

We should be sorry to give the reader to understand, by these preliminaries, that the investigation ought not to have taken place. We are of a very different opinion: for we hold as perfect truth, that, if the spring is contaminated at its head, all the ramifications will be stained with impurity, and the whole will be corrupted.—The higher the station, perhaps, the less mercy ought to be shown; the scandal of the example enhancing the heinousness of the crime. *Corruptio optimi pessima.*

In the house of commons, on the 27th of January, Gwyllim Lloyd Wardle (colonel of militia) stated, that, "unless



"unless the system of corruption that had so long prevailed in the military department should be done away, this country might fall an easy prey to the enemy." The first point in the case he had to state related to the half-pay fund, which was an establishment under the direction of the present commander-in-chief. This fund arose out of the sale of commissions vacant by death—by the promotion of officers not allowed to sell—or by dismissals from the service. The power of the commander-in-chief over this fund was constituted and intended for the reward of merit, either by the appointment of meritorious officers to the commissions which so became vacant, or by selling them, and applying the produce of such sales to the redemption of half-pay commissions, or to the compassionate fund. Here the power of the commander-in-chief over such produce ceased. If the commissions he had described were otherwise disposed of, the authority vested in the commander-in-chief was abused, and the objects of the half-pay fund abandoned. Now, if he could show that those commissions were appropriated to very different purposes, it would, of course, appear, that such abuse and abandonment did take place—that merit was not rewarded—that the half-pay list was not reduced—that the compassionate fund was not assisted. For the purpose of showing this, it was necessary to call the attention of the house to another establishment of the commander-in-chiefs, which was quite of a different complexion from that which he had just mentioned. This establishment, which consisted of a splendid house in Gloucester-place, a variety of carriages, and a long retinue of servants, commenced in the year 1803; and at the head of it was placed a lady of the name of *Clarke*. As this lady formed a principal party in several of the facts which he had to cite, he was under the necessity, however reluctantly, to mention her name, as well as that of others, in order to make out a fair parliamentary basis for his motion, and to satisfy the house, that he had not brought it forward upon light grounds.

The first case to which colonel Wardle called the attention of the house, was that of captain Tonym, of the 48th regiment of foot, who had been promoted to a majority in the 31st regiment; for which promotion he was indebted to the influence of Mrs. Clarke. The terms of agreement were, that Mrs. Clarke should be paid 500l. upon captain Tonym's being gazetted. Major Tonym was gazetted on the 2d of August, 1804; and the 500l. was paid to Mrs. Clarke. The positions that colonel Wardle held to be clearly deducible from this case were, First, that Mrs. Clarke possessed the power of military promotion. Secondly, that she received pecuniary consideration. And, thirdly, that the commander-in-chief was a partaker in the benefit arising from such pecuniary consideration. The truth of this case would be established by witnesses, whose names he mentioned.

The second case colonel Wardle had to adduce related to exchanges. On the 25th of July, 1805, an exchange was concluded between lieutenant-colonel Brooke, of the 56th regiment of infantry, and lieutenant-colonel Knight, of the 5th dragoon guards, through the influence of Mrs. Clarke. Mrs. Clarke wanted some money to defray the expenses of an excursion in the country. She therefore urged the commander-in-chief to expedite the exchange, as she was to receive 200l. for it. This urgent request was made on a Thursday, and its influence was such, that the exchange was actually gazetted on the Saturday following. Mrs. Clarke, in consequence, received from the agent negotiating the transaction, 200l. The witnesses to this case he named.

Another case colonel Wardle had to adduce referred to major John Shaw, of colonel Champagne's Ceylon regiment. Major Shaw was appointed deputy barrack-master of the Cape of Good Hope, on the 3d of April, 1806. It was known that this officer by no means enjoyed the favour of the duke of York: that, in fact, his royal highness entertained some prejudice against him. But these obstacles Mrs. Clarke readily undertook, on conditions, to

overcome; and it was agreed to pay her 1000l. for the major's appointment. The appointment was therefore made; and the major himself paid Mrs. Clarke 300l. Soon after 200l. more was sent to Mrs. Clarke by major Shaw's uncle. The remaining 500l. however, was not paid; and, when it was found not to be forthcoming, Mrs. Clarke was enraged, and threatened revenge. She actually complained to the commander-in-chief of Mr. Shaw's breach of contract; and the consequence was, that the major was soon after put upon half-pay. This case of major Shaw was the only instance colonel Wardle could find of such an officer being reduced to half-pay. The case of this officer then demonstrated, First, that Mrs. Clarke's influence extended to appointments on the staff, as well as to promotions and exchanges in the army itself. Secondly, that the commander-in-chief punished an individual by reducing him from full to half pay for non-performance of a nefarious contract with his mistress. Thirdly, that the commander-in-chief was a direct party to the whole of this nefarious transaction. Witnesses named.

Mr. Wardle now came to, what he called, the very novel case of colonel French and his levy. This officer was, through the influence of Mrs. Clarke, appointed by the commander-in-chief to conduct a levy in the years 1804-5. The colonel was introduced to Mrs. Clarke by captain Huxley Sandon; and the condition upon which he obtained his appointment was, that Mrs. Clarke should have one guinea out of the bounty of each man raised, together with the sale or patronage of a certain number of the commissions. The agreement being concluded, it was communicated to, and approved by, the commander-in-chief. Colonel French was accordingly sent, by Mrs. Clarke, to the Horse Guards; and, after many interviews, the levy was set on foot. As the levy proceeded, Mrs. Clarke received several sums of money from colonel French, captain Huxley Sandon, and a Mr. Corri. She also received 500l. from a Mr. Cockayne, a known solicitor in Lyon's Inn, and a friend of captain Huxley Sandon's.—Mr. J. Donovan, a surgeon, of Charles-square, (who had also borne a hand in the promotion of major Tonym,) was acquainted with an old officer, a captain Tuck, whom he very strongly recommended to seek promotion; and, in order to encourage him by a display of the facility with which it might be attained, he sent him a written scale of Mrs. Clarke's prices for different commissions, which, in stating them, he begged leave to contrast with the regulated prices of the army:

	<i>Mrs. Clarke's Prices.</i>	<i>Regulated Prices.</i>
A majority	£900	£2600
A company	700	1500
A lieutenantcy	400	550
An ensigncy	200	400

From this scale, colonel Wardle said, it appeared, that the funds he had before alluded to, lost, in an enormous ratio, to the gain of Mrs. Clarke, or any other individual acting upon the same system.

Here, said colonel Wardle, the scene closed upon Mrs. Clarke's military negotiations; and in what followed the commander-in-chief stood alone. It appeared, that his royal highness required a loan of 3000l. from colonel French; and that Mr. Grant, of Bernard's Inn, promised to comply with the request in procuring the money, provided the commander-in-chief would use his influence and obtain payment to colonel French of a balance due to him by government on account of the levy. This was promised; but, the commander-in-chief failing to fulfil his part of the condition, the loan he required was not advanced, and 3000l. still remained due from government to colonel French. The case of this levy showed, First, that Mrs. Clarke, in addition to promotions in the army, to exchanges, and appointments on the staff, possessed the power of augmenting the military force of the country. Secondly, that in this case, as in all others, she was allowed to receive pecuniary considerations for the exercise of her influence. Thirdly, that the commander-in-chief endeavoured



endeavoured to derive a pecuniary accommodation to himself, independent of Mrs. Clarke's advantages.

The last case with which colonel Wardle would at present trouble the house, was that of captain Maling. This gentleman was appointed to an ensigncy in the 87th regiment on the 28th of November, 1805; to a lieutenantcy in the same regiment on the 26th of November, 1806; and to a captaincy in the royal African corps, under the command of the duke of York's own secretary, colonel Gordon, on the 15th of September, 1808. This gentleman's promotion was effected through the influence of the favourite agent, Mr. Greenwood, in whose office Mr. Maling was a clerk, remaining at his desk while advanced in the army by such an extravagant course. Mr. Maling had also, while so promoted, some appointment of a pay-master in Ireland; a course which interfered with the interests, which superseded the rights, of many meritorious officers who had long served in the army, who had fought and bled for their country. Was it tolerable, that such an accumulation of favours should be conferred on any individual, without any claim of professional merit, and merely through the operation of undue influence, while so many hundreds of truly-deserving men were overlooked and slighted? Was it possible that our arms could prosper—that its spirit could succeed, or its character be advanced, while such injustice was tolerated?

There were a few other points, though of very trifling importance, that were brought forward in accusation of the duke of York, not on the present occasion, but afterwards; and this, for the sake of order, that the alleged amount of the duke's offending may be seen at once, seems the proper place for stating them.—Mrs. Clarke had stated, that Samuel Carter was her footboy, and went behind her carriage. He went into the army direct from her service. In this statement she was corroborated by several witnesses. Another additional case: Mr. Dowler had stated, that Mrs. Clarke had first suggested to him, that she could procure him a situation in the commissary-department. Mr. Dowler, who obtained the appointment, had never taken any step to expedite the business, nor applied to any other channel than that of Mrs. Clarke, to whom he had paid 1000*l.* for her influence, and she told him the duke knew of his doing so. Colonel Wardle then mentioned the existence of a public office in the city for the sale of commissions; and concluded with moving for the appointment of a committee “to investigate the conduct of his royal highness the duke of York, commander-in-chief, with regard to promotions, exchanges, and appointments to commissions in the army, and in raising levies for the army.”—Sir Francis Burdett seconded the motion.

The Secretary at War rose, but not, he said, to oppose the motion. He felt, as he said, great satisfaction that an opportunity was afforded of instituting an effectual inquiry into the grounds of the various calumnies and misrepresentations, which had of late been so industriously circulated against that *illustrious personage*. The facts which the honourable gentleman had brought forward were of a very serious nature, and well deserved the attention of the house. Charges clearly and distinctly stated, his royal highness was ready and even desirous to meet. With regard to the private transactions stated by colonel Wardle, he would say nothing, having never heard of them before. But he could contradict those that were stated to have occurred at the Horse Guards. It had been universally allowed, that, to make courage available in the day of battle, discipline was necessary; and it was well known how much the commander-in-chief had attended to that object. Extreme order and regularity had also been introduced into the office of the commander-in-chief, which the inquiry would prove.

Sir Arthur Wellesley spoke nearly to the same purpose, and ended by an encomium upon the discipline and example afforded by the illustrious person at the head of the army.

Mr. Yorke said, that he had never listened to a charge

more serious; and that he had heard it with the greatest possible concern, both on account of the commander-in-chief, and the honourable gentleman who had brought it forward, thus taking upon himself so heavy a responsibility. But he was glad that the house could at last reach, *in a tangible shape*, some of those libels against the duke of York, which had for some time past been more assiduously and pertinaciously circulated than ever libels had been at any former period in this country, so prolific in libels. He hoped the house would do its duty to itself, to the country, and to the royal house of Brunswick; and that, if there was no ground for these accusations, justice might be done to the commander-in-chief. Mr. Yorke, for his own part, believed, that a conspiracy of the most atrocious and diabolical kind existed against his royal highness, founded on the jacobinical spirit which appeared at the commencement of the French revolution, though it did not show itself now in exactly the same form. It appeared to be the design of the conspirators, by means of the press, the liberty of which was so valuable, and the licentiousness so pernicious, to write down the military system through the commander-in-chief; the army through its generals; and other establishments through the persons most conspicuous in each. Let blame fall where it ought. But the house ought to consider the illustrious person against whom the charge was directed: they ought to consider his high station, and the eminent service he had rendered to the country, in the state to which he had brought the army. What was the state of the army when he became commander-in-chief? it scarcely deserved the name of an army; and it was now found by experience to be, in proportion to its numbers, the best army in the world. He had said, that he believed a conspiracy to exist. If the house could go along with him, and suppose that this was actually the case, he threw out for their consideration, whether a parliamentary commission, with power to examine on oath, was not preferable to a committee.

Sir F. Burdett, in a moderate address to the house, sincerely hoped that the facts alleged originated in error; but, as the charge was public, his firm opinion was, that the inquiry should be public, and that the investigation could no-where be conducted more properly, more effectually, and more constitutionally, than in a committee of the whole house.—Mr. Wilberforce thought that an investigation at the bar could not be conducted with impartiality, in consequence of the interference of party-spirit; and conceived that justice could be most satisfactorily obtained by an inquiry, private in its progress, but public in its result.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer coincided with the unanimous sentiment of the house, that, to the most solemn and serious accusation brought forward that night, the most solemn and serious inquiry ought to be accorded. He could state, on the authority of the duke of York himself, given him at the only opportunity he had of consulting with him on the subject, that the most ready course of prosecuting the inquiry would be the most agreeable to him, and that he deprecated nothing so much as a course that would impede the final result. That illustrious personage wished, like any other subject, to be put publicly on his trial, and to stand acquitted or convicted upon the case that might be made out; at the same time that he had a thorough conviction that he should exculpate himself from all charge. He would stake his reputation upon it, that it was impossible that, after the result of the inquiry, any suspicion could be entertained of his royal highness. Mr. Wardle had stated a circumstance, which particularly involved the character of his majesty's government; that two members of the cabinet were concerned in an agency for the disposal of government-patronage. This was a topic on which he must require the fullest information. It was for the option of Mr. W. to determine whether he would afford it in that house, or by a private communication to some of the responsible servants of the crown.

But



But he was convinced, that, as there was nothing so discreditable to government, so there was nothing more false, than the idea that money was paid to persons high in office for such transactions. For the distinct manner in which the honourable gentleman had submitted the question to the house, he conceived him entitled to its thanks.

Mr. Wardle stated, that the office where the agency was transacted, was in a court in Threadneedle street. The names of the agents in that office were, Heylop and Pullen. They had stated various situations purchased in the island of Jamaica; and that the two members of the present cabinet, for whom they acted in such situations, and to whom he alluded in his speech, were, the lord-chancellor, and the duke of Portland.

Mr. Canning observed, that, in whatever view the house should consider the transactions stated by Mr. W. whether they were substantiated or refuted, "*infamy must attach somewhere; either upon the accused or the accuser.*" Of this unguarded and strong expression, Mr. Canning was afterwards often reminded, and sorely badgered about it on every occasion. Certainly, where there are probable grounds of suspicion in a case of great public importance, accusation is excusable, and even laudable, though it should not be substantiated.

After a few observations by Mr. Wardle, it was resolved that the inquiry should be made in a committee of the whole house, and that they should enter upon it on the 1st of February following.

The whole attention of the metropolis was awakened by this most important case, wherein the second son of our sovereign, a married prince, a man having attained the meridian of life, and whose conduct as commander-in-chief was praised even by his enemies, was accused, not only of conniving at the most nefarious practices behind the scandalous curtain of adultery, but also of sharing, either directly or indirectly, the profits arising from them. Indeed, the whole country felt a deep concern in the transaction; and, although accounts of the trial were published at the time in a great variety of forms, we find ourselves called upon to give a sufficient sketch of it, in order that those of our present or future subscribers, who may not have had an opportunity of reading it anywhere else, may not feel disappointed at the chasm which the absence of it would necessarily leave in our annals.

The inquiry lasted from the 27th of January to the 20th of March; and the whole may be divided into two heads: 1st, The connection of Mrs. Clarke with the persons who paid or promised to pay her sums of money for promotions or other appointments. 2dly, The acquaintance of the commander-in-chief with the secret transactions of Mrs. Clarke with those persons, and his participation with her in the gain arising from that financial system.

The first of these points was proved beyond a possibility of doubt, by an immense mass of evidence.—As to the duke's knowledge of Mrs. Clarke's manoeuvres, and his sharing in the returns, this is a fact; the proof of which depended solely on the evidence of Mrs. Clarke; for this kind of commerce must, from its nature, have been confined to the two parties concerned; no third person could interfere in it. The testimony of Mrs. Clarke, abandoned to licentiousness from her youth, and become almost a prostitute by profession, is scarcely to be accounted of any weight at all, especially as she acted under the influence of revenge against his royal highness, and a strong desire to please Mr. Wardle, who, as afterwards appeared, had promised to compensate in a very liberal way any service she might be of to him in substantiating his charges against the duke. But there was throughout the whole of her close and long examination at the bar, an air of unconstraint and ease, and a readiness of reply, that seemed to bespeak a disposition to answer the questions that were put to her truly. For every why, she had a wherefore. She was caught in falsity; but not often, nor in very important cases; nor could she by any means be charged,

on the whole, with prevarication. At the same time it is to be observed, that she was under no temptation to prevaricate: the great mass and weight of her evidence was intended, not to conceal, but clearly to expose, her bargaining with place and promotion hunters. And, as for what was alleged to have passed privately on that subject, it could only be known to the duke and herself. No one could prove a negative.

There were, however, two circumstances that wore on their face a direct inculpation of the commander-in-chief.

First, captain Sandon said, that, when major Tonyn became impatient for his promotion, he (Sandon) went to state the circumstances to Mrs. Clarke, who sent him back to inform him, that she had received a note from the duke of York respecting his case; which note was shown by captain Sandon to major Tonyn. The note was; "I received your note, and Tonyn's case shall remain as it is. God bless you." This note was intended to show, that the person to whom it was written had influence; and, in consequence, major Tonyn consented to let his security remain. The existence of this note was regarded as the more-weighty evidence, since it had been extorted, without Mrs. Clarke's knowledge or interference at all in the matter, from captain Sandon, who at first pretended that he had destroyed it, and who was therefore sent to Newgate for prevarication. When major Tonyn was gazetted, captain Sandon was directed to show him another note, purporting to have been written by the duke of York, and saying, "Tonyn will be this night gazetted." This note was not afterwards given back. When the first note was shown to his royal highness, he utterly denied all knowledge of the matter, and declared the note to be a forgery. As to the note relating to the appearance of major Tonyn's name in the gazette, his royal highness could not be positive: he could not state that he might not have written such a note, in answer to a note which might have been addressed to him; he could not call the circumstance to mind. The other note, however, his royal highness most positively denied having written. When Mrs. Clarke (who was ignorant of what was passing in the house) was called in, and shown the note, which was addressed to George Farquhar, esq. she said, "I suppose I must have seen it before, for it is his royal highness's writing. I do not know how it could have got into that man's possession, unless I gave it to him. It was a direction I used very often to get from his royal highness." This evidence being rebutted by the duke of York's positive denial of the fact, several witnesses were called from the bank and post-office to give their opinion upon it. And they all, with only a single exception, general Brownrigg, decided, that the note was in the same hand-writing as other letters acknowledged to be his. It is also to be observed, that the circumstance of the note was not brought forward by the chancellor of the exchequer till it was believed that the note itself was destroyed. Thus the affair of the note had an effect quite opposite to what was intended. To justify his royal highness, general Clavering made a voluntary attempt; the consequence of which was, that he himself was committed, as well as captain Sandon, to Newgate, for prevarication. But after all, this circumstance of the note, supposing its authenticity, only showed, that his royal highness suffered Mrs. Clarke to talk, and write, and put questions, respecting military appointments, which the duke does not seem to have affected to deny or conceal. For it has just been seen, that when the note, "Tonyn will be this night gazetted," was shown to him, he admitted that he might possibly have written such a note, though he did not recollect the matter.

The other circumstance, wearing on its face a direct inculpation of the commander-in-chief, was the following.—Miss Mary-Anne Taylor, who was in the habit of visiting Mrs. Clarke, when she was under the duke's protection, very frequently, stated, that she heard the duke of York speak to Mrs. Clarke about colonel French's levy; and that what passed, as nearly as she could recollect, was



as follows: "I am continually worried by colonel French. He worries me continually about the levy-business, and is always wanting something more in his own favour." Turning then to Mrs. Clarke, (Miss T. thinks,) he said, "How does he behave to you, darling?" or some such kind words as he was wont to use. Mrs. Clarke replied, "Middling, not very well." On which the duke said, "Master French must mind what he is about, or I shall cut up him and his levy too."

After the examination of witnesses was closed, on the 23d of February, the Speaker rose, and stated, that since he had come to the house he had received a letter, the contents of which related to the inquiry now pending before the house respecting the conduct of his royal highness the duke of York, and he wished to know whether it was the pleasure of the house that he should read it. [*A general exclamation of Read! read! read!*] The right honourable gentleman then announced that the letter came from his royal highness the duke of York, was signed "Frederic," addressed to the Speaker, and dated "Horse Guards, February 23, 1809." The contents were as follow:

"Sir, I have waited with the greatest anxiety, until the committee, appointed by the house of commons to inquire into my conduct, as commander-in-chief of his majesty's army, had closed its examinations; and I now hope, that it will not be deemed improper to address this letter through you to the house of commons. I observe with the deepest concern, that, in the course of this inquiry, my name has been coupled with transactions the most criminal and disgraceful; and I must ever regret and lament, that a connection should have existed, which has thus exposed my character to animadversion. With respect to any alleged offences connected with the discharge of my official duties, I do in the most solemn manner, *upon my honour as a prince*, distinctly assert my innocence; not only by denying all corrupt participation in any of the infamous transactions which have appeared in evidence at the bar of the house of commons, or any connivance at their existence, but also the *slightest knowledge or suspicion that they existed at all*. My consciousness of innocence leads me confidently to hope, that the house of commons will not, upon such evidence as they have heard, adopt any proceedings prejudicial to my honour and character; but if, upon such testimony as has been adduced against me, the house of commons can think my innocence questionable, I claim of their justice, that I shall not be condemned without trial, nor be deprived of the benefit and protection which is afforded to every British subject by those sanctions under which alone evidence is received in the ordinary administration of the law. I am, sir, yours,  
FREDERIC."

On the 8th of March, Mr. Wardle, after an elaborate examination of the evidence, moved a resolution to the following effect: "That an humble address be presented to his majesty, stating, that information had been communicated to them, and that evidence had been examined to prove, that various corrupt practices and abuses had for a long time existed in the different departments of the military administration; and that the evidence which had been given had been entered on the records of parliament; that his majesty's faithful commons had most carefully examined the evidence, not only of the witnesses produced at their bar, but also of the written and official documents; and that it was with the utmost concern and astonishment that they felt themselves obliged to state, that the result of their diligent and laborious inquiry was such, as to satisfy them, that the existence of those corrupt practices to a very great extent was fully established. That it was the opinion of his majesty's faithful commons, that such abuses could not have continued to such an extent, for so long a time, without the knowledge of the commander-in-chief; but if, contrary to all probability, it should be presumed, that the commander-in-chief was ignorant of these transactions, that presumption would not warrant

the conclusion, that it was consistent with prudence that the command of the army should remain any longer in his hands. His majesty's faithful commons, therefore, humbly begged leave to submit to his majesty, *that the duke of York ought to be deprived of the command of the army.*"

Lord Folkestone seconded the motion; immediately after which, Mr. Burton rose to speak, and drew the most respectful attention of the whole house, which was continued from the beginning of his speech, which was long and elaborate, to the end. He was above eighty years of age, and had become blind. In Wales he held the office of judge in a court of law. Having both attended the whole of the examinations, and had the evidence read over to him two or three times, he took a critical review of all the cases in the order in which they were exhibited in the inquiry, without omitting any circumstance of importance. He began as follows: "Mr. Speaker, I should not thus early obtrude myself on the attention of the house, if it were not through the fear of being too much exhausted to deliver my sentiments at a late hour. The habits of my life, during the last thirty years, having engaged me pretty much in the investigation of criminal causes, I have thought it my duty to bestow my best attention upon the present important case. I have done so the rather, that few persons are so unconnected as myself with the commander-in-chief, now under accusation. I never had the honour of exchanging a word with him; and it so happens, that I have not in the army any relation, any friend, or even any intimate acquaintance, nor any one for whom I have ever received, or can expect to receive, a single favour. With his accuser I have had the honour of some acquaintance about twenty years, and had frequent occasion to admire the military talents and valour he displayed under the intrepid commander of a regiment that distinguished itself not a little during the unhappy rebellion in Ireland. I had also listened, perhaps too much, to the current reports concerning the object of this inquiry. I certainly, therefore, sat down to the consideration of it without any bias upon my mind in favour of the accused; but, divesting myself of every prejudice, I determined to pursue the strict line of duty, by considering the case of the duke of York as calmly and temperately as I would that of one of the meanest subjects in the court where I have the honour to hold a seat."—After this interesting exordium, Mr. Burton entered on a consideration of the case, having first stripped it of all matters extraneous or foreign to the point or points in question. He displayed, throughout the whole of his comprehensive speech, all the perspicuity, precision, and minute attention to every circumstance, which men of good natural parts derive from long experience in the profession of the law; a profession which is more calculated to rouse and to whet the intellectual faculties, perhaps, than any other. On the subject of French's levy, and Miss Taylor's evidence, Mr. Burton said, Surely, the evidence of Mrs. Clarke's constant companion ought to be received with great caution. The duke of York, speaking to Mrs. Clarke of colonel French, complained that French was continually worrying him about the levy. This troublesome importunity had made a strong impression on the duke's mind; for he mentions this *teazing, or worrying*, twice—"I am continually worried by colonel French. He worries me continually about the levy-business." Then, turning to Mrs. Clarke—Miss Taylor *thinks*, (only *thinks*, he said,) "How does he behave to you, darling?" To my understanding, said Mr. Burton, the question obviously means, Does he worry you as he does me?—On the case of major Tonyn, Mr. Burton observed, that, though 200l. was paid to Mrs. Clarke, that transaction was unconnected with the commander-in-chief. As to the note from his royal highness, conceding it to be genuine, why was it necessary or probable that this should refer to any corrupt agreement? Mrs. Clarke, with all her desire to impute guilt to his royal highness, had no remembrance of this note; which circumstance alone might be considered as  
powerful



powerful evidence that it had no reference to any such agreement. As an irrefragable proof that, in fact, it had no reference, Mr. Burton observed, that, according to captain Sandon's account, the note was produced in an envelope, bearing the Dover post-mark; and that he received it from the hands of Mrs. Clarke herself, for the purpose of satisfying captain Tonyn that it was of the duke's hand-writing. From the date of this envelope (for the note itself was without date), compared with the date of the Gazette, it appeared that the note could not have been delivered till five days after his actual appointment to the majority, and consequently far too late to answer its intended purpose, namely, to excite captain Tonyn's apprehensions that his appointment would be either frustrated or retarded. "Thus then," said Mr. Burton, "out of the mouth of one of these associates against the commander-in-chief, have you a plain refutation of one of their own charges; nor is there any other evidence to support it."—On the subject of the appointment of Samuel Carter to an ensigncy, and the charge for this generous act against the commander-in-chief, Mr. Burton expatiated more, in exculpation of the duke, than was at all necessary. This, in fact, did honour both to the duke and Mrs. Clarke. This young man, Carter, was a son, though illegitimate, of a very worthy captain of the army. It did not appear that his mounting behind the carriage of Mrs. Clarke was known to the duke; and, certainly, though he waited at table, he never wore Mrs. Clarke's livery. A good deal of pains had been taken on his education, which was far from being lost on the young man; as appeared from several letters of his, produced in the course of evidence. We shall only extract the first and the last sentences of Mr. Burton's speech on the charge of Samuel Carter's appointment: "I confess it to have been my hope, that the honourable member (colonel Wardle) would have yielded, on this point, to the entreaties of even Mrs. Clarke."—"God forbid that this house should so far forget its duty, as to censure the appointment of such a person to a commission in the army; or that it should carry an address to the throne against the duke of York, for an act proceeding from the purest motives—the dictates of humanity."

Mr. Burton, having gone through the separate charges, made a few observations on the probabilities or improbabilities of the case or charge in general. It had been presumed, that the duke of York knew and connived at the corrupt proceedings of Mrs. Clarke, because by such alone Mrs. Clarke could have been enabled to carry on her extensive establishment. But persons of high birth, and not in the habits of comparing income with expenditure, found it most difficult to render the one conformable to the other, or indeed to form any judgment upon these matters. He remembered to have been told, near forty years ago, by one of the preceptors of the duke of York and his royal brother, that, though they were quick at learning, he could never teach them the value of money; so impossible it was to inculcate this knowledge without the daily and ordinary means of practical experience. The existence of the conspiracy, and that the duke was a party to it, being once supposed, how was it probable that there should have been any distress for money, when there was a mill for making it continually at work? There were then in the army as many as 10 or 11,000 officers; numerous changes were going on every day in the year; and such was always the eagerness for promotion, that there never could exist a deficiency of persons ready to give ample premiums above the regulated price. Where then would have been the difficulty, through the management of such a woman as Mrs. Clarke, with her subordinate agents, to relieve her from the pressure of her pecuniary difficulties, and to gratify her vanity and extravagance to the utmost? This argument of Mr. Burton seems to us to amount almost to a demonstration that, however much the duke of York might be to blame for suffering Mrs. Clarke to interfere at all in mat-

ters of military promotions or appointments, it never was any plan, on the part of his royal highness, to provide for the maintenance of his mistress by a deliberate system of bribery and corruption.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer, after speaking for many hours in defence of the duke of York, proposed a resolution, expressive of *the conviction of the house of his royal highness's innocence*; and that, after the insertion of this resolution in an address to his majesty, the address should proceed as follows: "And his majesty's faithful commons think it their duty farther to state to his majesty, that, whilst this house has seen with satisfaction, in the course of this inquiry, the unexampled regularity and method with which the business of the commander-in-chief has been conducted under the direction of his royal highness; and also the many salutary and efficient regulations which have been introduced into the army, during his command of it; some of which regulations have been specially directed to prevent those very abuses which, in the course of this inquiry, have been brought under the notice of the house of commons;—they could not but feel the most serious regret and concern, that a connection should ever have existed, under the cover of which, transactions of a highly criminal and disgraceful nature have been carried on, and that an opportunity has been afforded of falsely and injuriously coupling with such transactions the name of his royal highness, whereby the integrity of his conduct in the discharge of the duties of his high office has been brought into question. That it is, however, a great consolation to this house to observe the deep regret and concern which his royal highness has himself expressed on the subject of that connection; as, from the expression of that regret on the part of his royal highness, this house derives the confident assurance that his royal highness will henceforth invariably keep in view that bright example of virtuous conduct which the uniform tenor of his majesty's life, during the course of his whole reign, has uniformly afforded to his subjects, and which has so much endeared his majesty to the affections of every rank and description of his people." Such was the course which the chancellor of the exchequer recommended to the house, instead of the address proposed by colonel Wardle, for removing his royal highness from his office; and, having thus put the house in possession of what he intended to submit to it, he yielded to its impatience, and moved an adjournment of the debate till the next day, which was agreed to.

The chancellor of the exchequer then (March 9.) resumed his speech, which lasted for several hours; and was followed by Mr. Bathurst, Mr. Whitbread, the attorney-general (sir Vicary Gibbs), and Mr. Bankes.—Mr. Bathurst, having urged his objections to both the addresses, proposed respectively by Col. Wardle and Mr. Perceval, thought it his duty to propose other terms of an address for the house, more consistent with the circumstances of the case, and more congenial with the feelings of the illustrious personage under whom the army had flourished for many years. Without, however, intruding his proposition at present, he should only suggest what he thought would be most proper upon such an occasion; namely, "That, while this house acknowledges the beneficial effects of the regulations adopted and acted upon by his royal highness, in the general discharge of his duties as commander-in-chief, it has observed, with the deepest regret, that, in consequence of a connection the most immoral and unbecoming, a communication on official subjects, and an interference in the distribution of military appointments and promotions, has been allowed to exist, which could not but lead to discredit the official administration of his royal highness, and to give colour and effect, as they have actually done, to transactions the most criminal and disgraceful." The house sat till half-past four in the morning.

Next day, March 10, Mr. Bankes proposed an amendment on the amendment of Mr. Bathurst, and several



speakers manifested their opposite sentiments on the subject: but, on the 13th of the same month, the Secretary at War, the Master of the Rolls, and the Solicitor-general, opposed the address as proposed by Mr. Bankes; which was defended by sir F. Burdett, sir Samuel Romilly, and Mr. H. Smith. On the 14th, the question being loudly called for, the house divided: for Mr. Bankes's amendment, 199; against it, 294. A second division afterwards took place on the Chancellor of the Exchequer's amendment on Mr. Wardle's address: for the amendment, 364; against it, 123. And, on the 17th, after several observations, the Chancellor of the Exchequer announced his intention to withdraw his own resolution, and to alter it to the following effect; "That this house, having appointed a committee to investigate the conduct of his royal highness the duke of York, as commander-in-chief, and having carefully considered the evidence which came before the said committee, and finding that personal corruption and connivance at corruption have been imputed to his said royal highness, find it expedient to pronounce a distinct opinion upon the said imputation; and are accordingly of opinion, *that it is wholly without foundation*.—A long debate ensued; after which the house divided: for this amended amendment, 278; against it, 196.

Three days after this decision, (March 20.) the Chancellor of the Exchequer stated a fact which, he hoped, might induce Mr. Bathurst to forego the motion which he had promised to bring forward that evening. His royal highness the duke of York, on Saturday morning, of his own accord, had waited on his majesty, and tendered to him his resignation of the chief command of the army, which his majesty had been graciously pleased to accept. The communication made by his royal highness to his majesty upon tendering his resignation, was read to the house by Mr. Perceval at full: of this communication it is sufficient for our purpose to extract the first sentence. "The house of commons having, after a long and full investigation of the merits of certain allegations against him, passed a resolution of his innocence, he might now approach his majesty, and venture to tender to him his resignation of the chief command of his majesty's army, as he could no longer be suspected of acting from any apprehension of the result, nor be accused of having shrunk from the extent of an inquiry which, painful as it had been, he trusted he should appear, even to those who had been disposed to condemn his conduct, to have met with the patience and firmness which could arise only from a conscious feeling of innocence."

After a few words from Mr. Bathurst, lord Althorpe moved the following resolution: "That his royal highness the duke of York, having resigned the command of the army, this house does not *now* think it necessary to proceed any farther in the consideration of the evidence before the committee appointed to inquire into the conduct of his royal highness, as far as relates to his royal highness." The insertion of the word *now* was intended to express the opinion of the house, that the duke of York should not, at any time hereafter, be restored to his late situation, as commander-in-chief; and consequently, that, if he should, the house would resume their proceedings on the charges against him. On a motion by the chancellor of the exchequer, that the word "*now*" should be left out of lord Althorpe's amendment, the house divided: Ayes, 235; noes, 112.

Though the inquiry into the conduct of the duke of York was confined to his official acts, respecting commissions, exchanges, and promotions in the army, and did not extend to mere recommendations to offices or emoluments *not in the army*, otherwise than as they might throw light on the question before the house; it may be proper to take notice of a few of those curious facts, which were disclosed in the course of the examination, and which, though not of a nature to fix the imputation of any corrupt practices on the duke of York, serve to show the extent to which corrupt practices did prevail; and the still

wider extent of the opinion, that there was nothing so important in the state, or sacred in the church, that was not to be procured by bribery. The inquiry exhibits a thousand circumstances tending to illustrate, in an accurate and impressive manner, a view of the ways of the world in London, and of the state of public morals and religion in England, at the commencement of the nineteenth century. It will be recollected that Mr. Wardle had stated, that the two members of the cabinet to whom he alluded, as concerned in a corrupt traffic in patronage, were the lord-chancellor and the duke of Portland. Some of our readers, no doubt, may have entertained a greater curiosity to know on what this charge could be founded, and how it would terminate, than any of the other allegations in the whole course of the examination. Mrs. Clarke, on her examination February 10, being asked through what person she held herself out as having influence enough to procure a certain situation, said, "I do not think any one was held out. I fancy they guessed the duke of York, but no one was held out; and I think it is very likely that Mr. Donovan supposed the duke of Portland. But I mean here to say, that the duke is not at all connected with the office for disposing of government-patronage. Of the office that Mr. Wardle mentioned in the city, I know nothing. I was very sorry that Mr. Wardle had mentioned such a thing; because every one who knows the lord-chancellor, must know that, besides being one of the highest, he is one of the most honourable, men in England; and, if there are any insinuations about the duke of Portland, Mr. Maltby is the duke of Portland. He is my duke of Portland. I mean entirely to clear myself of holding out any insinuation against the duke's character."

Mr. Wardle was not the only person who believed, at one time, that Mrs. Clarke had influence with the duke of Portland. The marquis of Tichfield, (the duke of Portland's son,) a member of the house of commons, being called upon to state every thing he was acquainted with, as to an application from the reverend Mr. Bafely to the duke of Portland, stated, that Mr. Bafely called upon the duke on the 3d of January, and, not being able to see him, left the following letter for him. "My lord duke; I wished particularly to see your grace on the most private business. I cannot be fully open by letter. The object is, to solicit your grace's recommendation to the deanery of Salisbury or some other deanery, for the most ample pecuniary remuneration for which I will instantly give a draft to your grace. For Salisbury three thousand pounds. I hope your grace will pardon this, and instantly commit these lines to the flames. I am now writing, for the benefit of administration, a most interesting pamphlet. Excuse this openness; and I remain, your grace's most obedient and obliged servant,  
J. BASELY."

This note the duke of Portland transmitted to the bishop of London, in whose diocese he understood that Mr. Bafely possessed one or two chapels. (He was, in fact, one of the bishop's chaplains.) The bishop, in a letter in answer to the duke, dated Fulham-house, January 5, 1809, said; "It is too true that this wretched creature, Bafely, has one if not two chapels in my diocese. I have long known him to be a very weak man; but, till this insufferable insult upon your grace, I did not know he was so completely wicked, and so totally void of all principle; and, as your grace is in possession of the most incontestable proofs of his guilt, you will, I trust, inflict upon him the disgrace and punishment he so richly deserves."

Mrs. Clarke, in her evidence of the 9th of February, stated that a Dr. O'Meara applied to her in 1805 to get him made a bishop. He made an offer of pecuniary remuneration; and he brought a testimonial in his favour, under the hand of the archbishop of Tuam, stating that the writer had received the most satisfactory assurances that the doctor was "a gentleman of most unexceptionable character in every respect, of a good family and independent



pendent fortune." This letter was produced to the house of commons. Mrs. Clarke gave Dr. O'Meara a letter of introduction to the duke of York. On the 13th of February, she brought to the bar a letter of his royal highness, written to her from Weymouth, telling her, that Dr. O'Meara had applied to him in order to be allowed to *preach before royalty*, and that he would put him in the way of it, if he could. Dr. O'Meara did preach before royalty; and an article appeared in the Morning Post, under the date of Weymouth, October 3, 1809, stating, that "the Rev. Dr. O'Meara preached on Sunday an excellent sermon, from Rom. chap. xii. ver. 5. on universal benevolence. He expatiated with great eloquence on the relation which the public and private affections bear to each other, and their use in the moral system. He inveighed with peculiar energy against the savage philosophy of the French deists. We with our young ecclesiastics would arouse themselves, and shake off that mental languor which oppresses them in the pulpit, and show themselves in earnest. Sacred eloquence is, in this country, certainly feeble and unimpressive. No other excellence can supply the want of animation. That sweet charm, that celestial unction, which Christian oratory demands, this gentleman certainly possesses in an eminent degree: *his lips are touched with the live coal from the altar*. The king was very attentive, and stood during nearly the whole of the sermon, which we never before observed; and expressed his high approbation to the earl of Uxbridge and others; whilst the queen and princesses, and the whole audience, were melted into tears." The public was at no loss to conjecture who was the author of this newspaper-puff. But, after all this alleged attention and approbation of his majesty, Mrs. Clarke declared in her evidence, that, after communicating the doctor's offer, with all his documents, to the duke of York, the issue of the business, as reported to her by his royal highness, was, that the king did not like the great O in his name. The Rev. Dr. O'Meara became as general a subject of ridicule as the Rev. Mr. Bowles.

During this inquiry, which was continued without intermission for seven weeks, Mrs. Clarke, the principal evidence, and as it were the heroine of the accusing party, was examined at the bar again and again; and, by the readiness and smartness of her answers to an infinity of questions, sometimes gave a degree of relief to the long and wearisome sittings of a protracted examination. She seemed to be very much at home, and to reckon with confidence on the complacent regards of a great part, at least, of the members of the house of commons, and to be well pleased in the possession of so splendid a theatre for displaying the attractions of both her mind and person. She carried, however, her ease, gaiety, and pleasantry, to a degree of pertness, in a few instances, which was very reprehensible, and contrary indeed to that sense of propriety and decorum, of which we cannot but suppose, from the quickness of her understanding, she was in reality possessed. Having said that she stated or showed something to Mr. Adam, the question was put to her, what Mr. Adam thought of it, under the impression no doubt that Mr. Adam would naturally say something about it. Mrs. Clarke answered, "I do not know what Mr. Adam thought." The question being put to her by Mr. Croker, if ever she had written an anonymous letter to his royal highness, the prince of Wales, she answered that she had, and that colonel MacMahon had called on her in consequence. Did you sign, said Mr. Croker, any name to this anonymous letter? Mrs. Clarke, looking to the chairman, burst into a fit of loud laughter, in which, indeed, she was joined by the house. The question being put, What situations did you endeavour to procure through Mr. Maltby, and for whom? she answered, I forget. Being closely interrogated and pressed on this point; she named a Mr. Lawson, but said she did not recollect any other. Do you shake the veracity of your testimony on that last answer, that you recollect but one of those persons? "I think that I ought to appeal to the chairman now, whe-

ther I am obliged to answer that question." The chairman directed the witness to state the objection she had, observing, that the committee would decide upon it. "He is a very respectable man, and he has been already very ill used; and I am afraid of committing him and his family." The chairman directed the witness to name the man to whom she had alluded as a respectable person. "That," said Mrs. Clarke, "would be giving his name at once. Really I cannot pronounce his name rightly, though I know how to spell it; and I must be excused." The chairman observed to her, that her present conduct was very disrespectful to the committee. "I mean (she replied) to behave very respectfully to the committee. I am very sorry if I do not. But I do not know but the gentleman may lose the money he has already lodged, if I mention his name." This objection was over-ruled; and Mrs. Clarke said, that the respectable person to whom she had alluded was Mr. Lodowick, or Ludowick.—It is amusing to reflect on the change of manners in the course of a few generations. How differently would the gaiety and levity, and in some instances the trifling conduct, of Mrs. Clarke towards the house of commons, have been treated by the long parliament! She could not possibly have escaped a severe rebuke for even the elegance of her apparel; or being told, that it would have better become her to appear in *sackcloth and ashes*.

After the examination of witnesses was over, the manly and disinterested conduct of colonel Wardle, and that of those too who had been his principal supporters, was publicly acknowledged in the warmest terms of gratitude, esteem, and admiration, by the cities of Glasgow and Canterbury; and, after the inquiry was brought to an issue by the decision of the house of commons and the resignation of the commander-in-chief, by the cities of London and Westminster, the county of Middlesex, and a great proportion of the other counties, cities, and boroughs, throughout the kingdom.

The inquiry into the conduct of the duke of York by the house of commons, gave rise to many other inquiries. On the 27th of March, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, pursuant to notice, rose to move for leave to bring in a bill to prevent the sale and brokerage of offices. The practices, he observed, lately disclosed, consisted not in the sale of offices by those who had the power to give them away, but in the arts of those who pretended to have influence over such persons, and issued public advertisements, giving occasion to the notion that these abuses prevailed to a much greater extent than they actually did. Some persons in a certain office, Kylock and Co. who had carried on this trade, were under prosecution. As there were several persons in that concern, they were prosecuted for a conspiracy. But, if there had been only one individual, he did not see how the law, as it at present stood, could have reached him, though perhaps he might have been indicted for obtaining money under false pretences. The material point then would be, to make it highly penal to solicit money for procuring offices, or to circulate any advertisement with that view.—After a few words from the Attorney General, leave was given, the bill was brought in, and passed through the usual stages into a law.

In the course of the investigation of the conduct of the duke of York, it was ascertained beyond all doubt, that there was a regular, systematic, and almost an avowed, traffic in East-India appointments, as well as in subordinate places under government; wherefore a select committee was appointed by the house of commons, to "inquire into the existence of any corrupt practices, in regard to the appointment and nomination of writers or cadets in the service of the East-India Company; or any agreement, negotiation, or bargain, direct or indirect, for the sale thereof; and to report the same as it should appear to them, to the house, together with their observations thereon; and who were empowered to report the minutes of evidence taken before them, and their proceedings from time to time to the house." From the report of the committee



mittee it appeared, that a very great number of cadetships and writerhips had been disposed of in an illegal manner; and, though nothing had come out that could form any reasonable ground for suspicion that such bargains had been made or carried into execution with the consent or knowledge of the proprietors, yet not only particular facts, but the general tenor of the whole investigation, clearly proved, that, if all the directors had exercised, in the disposal of their patronage, the same vigilance and caution as are usually applied in the management of individual concerns, such a regular and continued traffic could not have been carried on for such a length of time.

The committee, having stated a great number of cases in which a traffic in the patronage of the East-India Company had been most glaring, proposed a check against those who were inclined to purchase appointments in the service of the company; and gave it as their opinion, that the immediate consequence of the information contained in this report must be, that a certain number of persons in the service of the company will be instantly deprived of their employments, and recalled from India. The committee concluded their report with the following paragraph: "The practices which are developed in the present report, and other transactions which this house has recently had under its cognizance, sufficiently demonstrate that the patronage of various descriptions has, in several instances, become an article of traffic; that an opinion of the generality of such practices has been prevalent to a still greater extent, and that fraudulent agents have availed themselves of this belief to the injury of the credulous and unwary, and the discredit of those in whose hands the disposition of offices is lodged. It will depend on the steps which may be taken in consequence of these inquiries, whether such abuses shall receive a permanent check, or a virtual encouragement."

The whole of the writerhips in the disposal of which abuses were detected, were found to have been given by one man, Mr. Thelluson. And so strong and general was the persuasion that he was culpable, at least in not inquiring how the person, at whose disposal he placed the nomination of the offices to which he was entitled to nominate, had bestowed them, on what account, and for what purpose of personal interest he was so anxious to procure them; that, on offering himself to be re-chosen a director, he was rejected by a great majority. It was determined by the court of directors, after long debates, that those young men who had been named by the committee of the house of commons as having obtained their appointments by means of corrupt practices, should be recalled. The hardship of this measure towards the young men who were the objects of it, was felt and acknowledged: but it seemed indispensably necessary; unless the court of directors had been willing, by their own act, to render a solemn law of the East-India Company a dead letter.

In the course of the examination of witnesses by the committee appointed to inquire into the abuse of India patronage, it was discovered, that lord Castlereagh had endeavoured to procure a seat in parliament for his friend lord Clancarty, in exchange for a writerhip, which had been given to him, when president of the board of controul, by some of the directors. Of the board of controul lord Clancarty also was a member. This negotiation, doubly illegal, as it had for its object both the disposal of East-India patronage and the purchase of a seat in the house of commons, was brought under the cognizance of that house on the 25th of April, by lord Archibald Hamilton. His lordship, after reminding the house, that he had ever been in the habit of standing as forward as any other member in pursuing practices of corruption, observed, that not long since they had sent two individuals to prison. If they wished this judgment to have the influence of example, they must take care of their individual and collective respectability. And what, he asked, could be more conducive to this end, than the enforcement of those

laws and regulations which they had so repeatedly enacted for guarding against any improper interference in the election of their members? Against the noble lord, to whom his motion referred, he did not mean to assert one word beyond what the evidence before the committee contained, or to make any charge against him that he had not made against himself. It was in evidence that, in 1805, lord Castlereagh received a letter from a Mr. Reding, (*an advertising place-broker*,) who was a perfect stranger to him, stating, that he thought he had the means of assisting him in coming into parliament; in consequence of which, he had a meeting with him; at which meeting the proposition respecting a seat in parliament was renewed. Lord Castlereagh, as appeared from his evidence on the table of the house, told Mr. Reding, that he did not want a seat himself, but that a friend of his did; and that he sent Mr. Reding's letter to lord Clancarty, the friend he had alluded to. And he admitted that he had been induced to place a writerhip at lord Clancarty's disposal, in order that his coming into parliament might thereby be facilitated. It appears that different meetings took place between lord Castlereagh and Mr. Reding. At one of these, lord Castlereagh asked Mr. Reding the name of the gentleman who proposed to vacate. But this he declined till the terms should be settled; and the negotiation was broken off. But, said lord A. Hamilton, the noble lord has stated in his evidence, "that the writerhip was to be disposed of subject to certain qualifications; that the case before them had no reference to any pecuniary transaction; and, finally, that the nomination to the writerhip did not take place." This plea, said lord A. Hamilton, cannot avail him upon this occasion; for his *intention is obvious*, and of that intention we are to judge.

Lord A. Hamilton having reviewed the whole case, moved, that the minutes of the evidence he had referred to be read. Upon this, lord Castlereagh rose to defend himself, which he did in a modest and somewhat humble manner. The appointment of a writerhip, he said, was not within his official province as president of the board of controul. He had no doubt a degree of influence, but not of an official nature. Having tried, as he said in conclusion, to strip the charge against him of all the aggravations, he left it for the house to consider whether, without any motive, he could be wilfully corrupt, or so senseless as to commit a crime, which, from the very circumstances that attended it, he knew must be public. He had now only to regret, that the motives of private friendship or of public zeal (alluding to the benefit he had said the introduction of lord Clancarty into the house of commons would be to the public) could have induced him to do any thing requiring the cognizance of that house. He certainly had not erred intentionally, and would submit with patience to any censure which he might be thought to have incurred.—Making an obeisance to the Speaker, he then withdrew.

The evidence of the minutes being entered as read, lord A. Hamilton proposed the following resolutions. 1st. That it appears to this house, from the evidence on the table, that lord viscount Castlereagh, in the year 1805, he having just quitted the office of president of the board of controul, and being then a privy counsellor and secretary of state, did place at the disposal of lord Clancarty a writerhip in the East-India Company's service, to facilitate his obtaining a seat in this honourable house. 2d. That lord viscount Castlereagh has been, by the said conduct, guilty of a violation of his duty, of an abuse of his influence and authority as president of the board of controul, and also of an attack upon the purity and constitution of this house.

The debate that ensued was long, but not very keen or animated. There was a wonderful air of candour and moderation. Lord Binning said, that, though it was impossible to defend lord Castlereagh upon principle, the resolution proposed by the noble lord involved a greater punishment than the offence deserved. There were degrees



of offences. A man was not to be punished for a bare *intention* with the same severity as for an actual commission. What was necessary to constitute an offence was here wanting: there was no *malus animus*; no corrupt design appeared in the whole transaction. The noble lord acted not in his official capacity, but as an individual wishing to oblige his friend. Officially he had committed no offence, and the degree of punishment ought to be proportioned to the degree of guilt. On these grounds lord Binning moved, that the other orders of the day be now read. On much the same grounds as those stated by lord Binning, lord Castlereagh was defended by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. Manners Sutton, and Mr. Canning. Mr. Wynn, Mr. Grattan, Mr. Ponsonby, Mr. Whitbread, and Mr. Windham, supported the motion of censure.

Mr. Canning said, he perceived, that every gentleman who had spoken entertained a due sense of the manner in which his noble friend had conducted his defence, and did not wish to press any severe sentence upon him. To this consideration was to be added another, namely, that the intention of the noble lord was never carried into execution. The voting for passing to the other orders of the day was, according to parliamentary usage, a way of showing that the house had taken a case into consideration, the result of which had been, that they did not think it necessary to come to any criminating resolution. In order, however, to express this opinion more clearly in the present case, he would rather wish that, instead of a vote for passing to the other orders of the day, a resolution should be substituted, declaring that the house saw no reason for a criminating resolution. When therefore the question before them should be disposed of, he would submit to the house the following resolution: "That it is the duty of this house to maintain a jealous guard over the purity and independence of parliament; but that this house, duly weighing the evidence before it, and all the circumstances of the case, and considering that the intention referred to in that evidence was never carried into effect, does not think it necessary to come to a criminating resolution on the same." On a division of the house there appeared, for the original motion, 167; against it, 116. After this, Mr. Canning's resolution was carried.

The preceding inquiries into the abuse of patronage are sufficient to show, that a community of so immense a population as the English metropolis cannot but be much interested in every object which relates to the national army.—A discussion took place in this session, in the house of commons, relative to the measures adopted or advisable for the augmentation of the regular army, the necessity of which was intimated in his majesty's speech at the opening of the session. So early, therefore, as the 2d of February, lord Castlereagh rose in the house of commons to move the second reading of the militia-inlistment-bill.—Mr. Elliot wished to know the rate of bounties proposed by his noble friend. Lord Castlereagh answered, from six to eleven guineas. Mr. Elliot said, that this bill afforded a striking lesson to the house and the country, of the evil consequences of adopting a bad precedent. Heretofore, previously to the introduction of a similar bill, there was much of detail and preparatory communication with colonels of regiments; but, the former measure of his noble friend having been adopted, he relied that, in this too, he should be successful. But he did most decidedly condemn the principle of a bill, the operation of which would inevitably tend to the dissolution of all discipline, both in the regular army and militia, as well as to the injury of morality throughout the country; for such would be the effect of high bounties given to the recruits from the militia to the line, and to the substitutes who were to fill their places in the militia, as had been fully evinced by experience. By the present bill, the militia-officers were required to recruit at a bounty of ten guineas, for which, it was obvious, that, under the present system of bounties, men could not be had; but then there was the expedient of a little ballot, in case the bounty

should fail, to be inflicted on the county where the quota of men could not be induced to list within a given period. And then, as a remedy, to the balloted men who could not find a substitute at half-price, ten guineas were to be given in aid. But this ballot, coming on the heels of that for the local militia, could not fail to create general discontent, inasmuch as it was not a regular tax, but must weigh oppressively on individuals. Mr. Elliot compared the effects of lord Castlereagh's plan with that of Mr. Windham, which proposed to recruit men for *limited service*, instead of service for life; a plan, the principle of which was founded on the feelings of human nature. He was ready to admit, that, for the first four or five months it was in operation, the preference for unlimited service preponderated. But it was a fact, that, out of 27,000 men, raised in 1807 for general service, about 19,000 were for limited time; a clear proof that, had that principle been adhered to, the country would not only have avoided all the evils experienced under the balloting-system, but that the force of the line would have been increased to any extent necessary, with a saving of nearly one half the expense of bounties.

Mr. Calcraft also defended and praised the military system of Mr. Windham, which had produced, while in force, a supply of nearly 24,000 men annually; a supply as great as the circumstances of the population of this country would admit of. Mr. W's system had not had a fair trial. This was the fourth instance in which the militia had been drafted to supply the army; a practice which had driven qualified officers out of the militia. He did not think it possible to recruit the militia by the bounty proposed by lord Castlereagh.

Colonel Frankland said, that lord Castlereagh's plan of recruiting had a tendency to create disorganization and disgust in the home-service, and to keep up all this when created. He praised the admirable, deeply-founded, and permanent, system of Mr. Windham; and observed, that it was impossible to discuss such measures as that proposed without taking a view of that system. All circumstances that bore upon the question were to be considered; and upon the whole he thought that lord C's system of expedients was the most inefficient and burthensome that could be resorted to.

Lord Castlereagh said, that ministers, in the measures which they proposed for augmenting the army, had always two objects in view. First, to increase the disposable force; secondly, to take care that the defensive force should be so strong, as that the country should not be exposed to peril from the exertions which his majesty's government might think it their duty to recommend for the assistance of other nations. There were in the army, organized as it is at present, 126 battalions of infantry whose numbers exceeded six hundred, and there were 56 that fell short of that number. It was well known, that battalions not amounting to six hundred were considered as inefficient, and not fit for service. If the measure proposed obtained twenty-seven thousand, it would complete all the battalions of our infantry up to nine hundred men.—Lord Castlereagh then entered into a comparative view of his own plan for recruiting our military force, and that of Mr. Windham: a topic become trite, though still worthy of serious consideration, by the prolonged and protracted debates on that subject in the two preceding sessions of parliament. Lord C. thought that men generally preferred the unlimited to limited service. He did not, however, by any means wish to exclude men from limited service. The fact was, that, whatever was the system of recruiting, the country regularly produced about 1200 men in a month. How the number came to be so exact, he could not say. But, even in the halcyon days of high bounty and no ballot, it was not found that the number of recruits exceeded the regular number by a hundred, nor under any other system of recruiting did they fall short to that amount.

Earl Temple said, that, when lord Castlereagh laid his



cold fingers on Mr. Windham's plan, it was producing at the rate of 24,000 men a-year, instead of the 13,000 since produced by lord Castlereagh's.—The bill was then read a second time, and afterwards finally passed.

On the 1st of May, Mr. Ord rose, in the house of commons, to call the attention of the house to the fourth report of the committee of public expenditure; and stated, that commissioners had been appointed in 1795 to manage and dispose of the cargoes of Dutch ships detained or brought in, in order to prevent those cargoes from being greatly injured, or totally destroyed. They had general instructions as to the conduct of their transactions from the lords of the privy-council, requiring them to make minutes of all their proceedings, and to keep their accounts in such form as the lords of the treasury should direct and approve; and, in case of points of any difficulty occurring, they were to refer to the committee of the privy-council for instructions. These commissioners were five in number—James Crawford, John Breckwood, Allen Chatfield, Alexander Baxter, and JOHN BOWLES! a member of the society for the suppression of vice, or rather, as appeared from the report, of pilfering from the public. Their sales ceased, and their transactions were brought nearly to a close, in 1799. As no fixed remuneration had been assigned to the commissioners, these gentlemen resolved to remunerate themselves, and charged a commission of 5 per cent. on the gross proceeds of their sales; which commission, in the four first years, amounted in all to 80,000l. No regular accounts were furnished to government; and, criminal as this was in the commissioners, Mr. Ord could not help saying, that the government was far more criminal in not calling for them. Only one account was rendered to the privy-council, and in this it was remarkable that no mention was made of commission, which omission, the committee observed, might lead the privy-council to imagine that no commission was charged, although, at that time, 25,000l. had actually been divided. This was a most extraordinary thing, Mr. Ord observed, considering the noise which Mr. John Bowles had made about false returns to the property-tax. It would be curious to know what returns John himself had made to the property-tax at the time he was receiving this large profit from his labour. The act authorizing the appointment of these commissioners required, that the proceeds of the sales should be paid into the bank of England: but, instead of this, the commissioners had opened accounts with private bankers; and, instead of applying the balances in their hands, during the years that preceded the completion of the sales, in a way that might render them productive to the public, had employed them in discounting private bills for their own emolument. If these balances had been vested in exchequer-bills, between 40 and 50,000l. would have been saved to the public. The next point in the misconduct of the commissioners to which Mr. Ord adverted was, that, by the commission at 5 per cent. on the gross proceeds, by brokerage and interest on the balances, it appeared, the commissioners had taken for their labours the enormous sum of 133,198l. being at the rate of 26,000l. for each commissioner. Mr. Ord farther pointed out a circumstance which seemed to have escaped the attention of the committee; namely, that the commissioners appeared to have charged the 5 per cent. commission on the property which had been managed and sold by the East-India company, in the management of which they had been at no trouble whatever; so that, in point of fact, a commission of 10 per cent. had been paid on much the largest proportion of this property, inasmuch as the East-India company had also a commission of 5 per cent. on their sales. Some of the commissioners were themselves merchants; and must have known that the highest commission among merchants, on the gross proceeds, is 2½ per cent. What are the real services of these commissioners? Their sales had been finished in four years and a half from the time of their appointment, and the important part of their labours had of course then closed. Though they

were retained *nominally*, as a law-suit had commenced in their names, in point of fact, during the ten years the commission lasted after the completion of the business, the gentlemen found time enough to do a great deal of other business. John Bowles had been active in several elections which had since taken place, and had time besides to write about thirty pamphlets about religion, morality, loyalty, and the duty of contributing faithfully and accurately to the property-tax. The employment of such men was a bounty on roguery, and an encouragement of abuses. Negligence in the selection of proper agents, and a profligate profusion in the public expenditure, had ever been the peculiar characteristic of the administration under which these commissioners had been appointed.

Mr. Ord concluded with moving the following resolutions: 1. That it appears to this house, that to commit pecuniary trusts to any persons whatever, without providing any check upon their proceedings, without calling for any regular or periodical accounts, and without settling, during a long course of years, the mode or amount of their remuneration, is a neglect which must inevitably lead to the most prejudicial consequences, and a violation of the most essential duty of government. 2. That such neglect and deviation have been proved to exist. 3. That the commissioners upon Dutch property have been guilty of gross misconduct in violating the act under which they were appointed, and appropriating to their own use, without authority, sums for which they ought to have accounted to the public. 4. That the accounts of the commissioners be referred to the auditors of public accounts, to be examined. 5. That all consideration of the remuneration to be allowed to the commissioners ought to be deferred till their accounts are finally settled.

This gave occasion to several speeches in which Mr. Bowles was often held up to ridicule, contempt, and detestation.—Mr. Huskisson endeavoured to defend the treasury; but neither Mr. Huskisson nor any one else attempted to defend the conduct of the Dutch commissioners.—Mr. Henry Thornton, in order to obviate some objections to the resolutions moved by Mr. Ord, proposed to consolidate them into one, and in such terms as should meet with general approbation. The resolution which he intended to substitute for the whole five was as follows: "That the commissioners appointed in the year 1795 for the disposal of captured Dutch property, taking advantage of the neglect of the government to enquire into their proceedings, have, without authority, appropriated to their own use large and unreasonable profits; that they have privately taken interest on large balances of money, which ought to have been lodged in the bank of England; that they have refrained from giving correct and explicit information respecting the interest so taken to the committee appointed for inquiring into the public expenditure; and that they had been guilty of a great violation of public duty."—This resolution was adopted, after substituting the word *omission* for neglect.

Many other abuses and frauds of a most extraordinary and shameful kind were detailed during this session, arising from the reports of the commissioners of naval revision and of military inquiry. But, as these arose chiefly, like those we have noticed already, from the neglect or omission of the ministry in examining accounts, (some of which appear to have been unaudited for seven-and-twenty years,) the motions for inquiry were either negatived, or got rid of by the previous question.

On the 12th of May, the house having resolved itself into a committee of ways and means, the subject of the lottery, as one item of those ways and means, was brought up, and amply discussed.—Mr. Whitbread thought it one of the worst modes that could be resorted to. How many were the evils which lotteries occasioned! what wretchedness, desperation, and suicide! He was astonished that the Chancellor of the Exchequer, a devout man, and of correct manners, should patronise such a measure.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer said, it would be for



the house to determine on some future occasion, after that night, if the lottery should ever again form part of the ways and means of the year. It should not, however, be taken for granted, because the guards against improper practices in the lottery had once failed, that they must always fail. He was satisfied, that it was not to the lotteries, but to the *insurance*, that the objection lay. He did not say, that for a revenue of 300,000*l.* a-year, the house ought to give their sanction to any thing immoral, or productive of evil; but, at the same time, he was not for abandoning a financial resource of this kind, without trying whether some measure might not be devised for remedying the evils resulting from it.

Mr. Wilberforce said, that *insurance* was not the only evil of lotteries. By dividing tickets into *small shares*, a spirit of gambling was disseminated, which was attended with the most serious evils to the lower classes. As to the productiveness of the lottery, it had dwindled from 600,000*l.* to 300,000*l.* and he thought that the sum which appeared to be sacrificed to morality would be far more than repaid otherwise. By suppressing lotteries, many would remain to enrich the country with their labours, whom the lottery would reduce into habits of idleness and extravagance.

Sir Samuel Romilly was extremely sorry to hear the Chancellor of the Exchequer treating the case of the lottery as a matter falling of course to form part of the service of the year. He (sir S. R.) had formerly attempted an improvement on the criminal law of the country. If the house could pass a law to do away temptations to commit crimes, that would be the most effectual mode of improving the criminal code. But what were they now about to do? To pass a law to allow and encourage crimes, by encouraging the temptation to commit them. The most active agents were employed to seduce persons to the commission of the crimes to which lotteries gave birth; and the most ingenious paragraphs in newspapers were invented for the furtherance of this purpose. He could point out paragraphs holding out lures to apprentice-boys to embark in this trade, and to begin with their Christmas-boxes, under the assurance, that by perseverance they would soon ride in their coaches. These practices were now spread from the capital to every village in the kingdom.

The resolutions were agreed to, and ordered to be reported. Of course, the question was again agitated, when Mr. Wharton brought up the report, on the 18th of May. It would be superfluous, even did our limits admit, to enter much farther into the arguments against lotteries, which are reducible to two; namely, that they tended to encourage vice, with its pernicious consequences both to the individual and the state; and that the profits arising from them to the public had dwindled to the small sum of 300,000*l.* We cannot refrain, however, from extracting a short paragraph from Mr. Whitbread's speech against lotteries, as it contains a very curious fact: "There is a society existing for the Suppression of Vice; one of the rules of which is, that no man shall be admitted *unless a member of the established church*. This regulation will certainly be highly relished by the no-popery gentlemen. But, if they set their faces against minor offences, and yet countenance the lottery, it will be like casting out seven devils from a man, when a legion of other devils were immediately to enter." He believed that there was not a sin pointed at in the decalogue, which was not encouraged by the lottery.

In defence of the lottery, it was observed by sir Thomas Turton, that the sum accruing to government from the annual lottery, was not, as had been stated, 300,000*l.* only, but, together with stamps, 700,000*l.*—The Chancellor of the Exchequer said, that it had been argued by Mr. Whitbread, that, if this species of gambling were put an end to, it would stop all kinds of vice. This was straining the argument too far. The circumstances of misery that had been alluded to, arose not out of lotteries, but

from *insurances*; and could never be the effect even of insurance, if the lottery was *drawn in one day*—a period to which he proposed to confine it in future.

On a division of the house, there appeared—for lotteries go, against them 36. After this, the resolution of the house in favour of a lottery was passed through the remaining stages into a law.—The limiting the drawing of each lottery to one or two days, which has been the practice since this time, has certainly lessened the evil of them; but still it will be urged, that the love of money, the hope of rising into a better situation by the benefit of chance, and the lures held out by those whose interest it is to sell the tickets, are incentives too powerful not to be dangerous in a large community. Gambling is a vice to which so many of all classes are blindly prone, that the entire extermination of that hydra would have been a day of triumph for many who mourn the folly of their relations and friends labouring under the disease, and even for those, who, although they are affected by the mania, yet, in their lucid moments, detest the very passion which drives them on to *try their fortune*, and deprecate the pangs of disappointment they feel after the irretrievable loss of their too-easily ventured property.

The principal subject of attention and debate that occupied the house of commons for the remainder of this session, was the great question of parliamentary reform. It is a curious fact, that, whenever a moment of rest seems to approach, after long and laborious discussions, *reform* is taken up as an everlasting order of the day; and appears as if brought on purpose to fill up a chasm in the records of the house, and to keep the ministers constantly on the alert.

A plan was first proposed by Mr. Madocks; but, although amended and re-amended, fell to the ground with its appendages, chiefly because it included a charge of parliamentary corruption against lord Castlereagh and Mr. Perceval.—Then a plan and a motion from Mr. Curwen, long debated upon, modified so as substantially to reverse its original tendency and object, in one word, neutralized, and passed at last.

The indefatigable champion, sir Francis Burdett, brought forward his plan for parliamentary reform; but even his modest and condescending motion, "that his plan should be taken into future consideration," was negatived. This plan, which coincided very nearly with that proposed thirty years ago in the house of lords by the late duke of Richmond, was briefly as follows: 1. That freeholders *and others*, subject to direct taxation in support of the poor, the church, and the state, be required to elect members to serve in parliament. 2. That each county be subdivided according to its taxed male population, and each subdivision required to elect one representative. 3. That the votes be taken in each parish by the parish-officers; *and that all the elections should be finished in one and the same day*. 4. That the parish-officers make the return to the sheriff's court, to be held for that purpose at stated periods. 5. That parliaments be brought back to a constitutional duration.

These few and simple regulations appear to us to form a very good ground-work for reform: its effect would be to unite property with political right, and abolish rotten boroughs.—Sir James Hall, however, thought that the plan amounted to *complete and radical revolution*. "It would be the ruin of a ship if you take away her ballast: the ballast of the British state-veffel might be sometimes too heavy; but on the whole she proceeded very well in her course; and even the *rotten boroughs might ultimately do a great deal of good*." The ministers and the holders of rotten boroughs of course agreed in this profound observation; and, on the division of the house, the numbers were, for sir Francis Burdett's motion 15, against it 74.

On the 8th of June, Mr. Whitbread, after a suitable preface, moved a resolution to the following effect: "That this house will, early in the next session of parliament, take into its most serious consideration, how far it may be expedient to provide some farther limitation to the num-



ber of persons holding seats in this house, together with pensions, sinecures, and places of emolument under the crown." This was negated by 113 against 54.

On the 19th of June, Mr. Wardle called the attention of the house to public economy, a most important subject, and from an orator who had lately so well proved the usefulness of it. All his motions, which were certainly intentionally good and conducive to good, were agreed to.

Some relief to the poor clergy was, upon the motion of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, unanimously adopted. And this last act of justice, as well as of benevolence, closed the session on the 21st of June.

On Thursday, the 1st of August, a court of common-council was held at Guildhall, at which the following resolutions were passed.

"That this court did, on the 6th of April last, express its thanks and gratitude to Gwyllym Lloyd Wardle, esq. for his conduct in bringing forward and substantiating serious charges against the late commander-in-chief, which, notwithstanding the majority in his favour in the house of commons, compelled his resignation. That no circumstance has since transpired, which can, in any manner, lessen the importance of that investigation, impeach his motives, or affect the merits of the case. On the contrary, his unwearied exertions, perseverance, and fortitude, under unexampled threats and difficulties, have developed a scene of scandalous abuse and corruption, not only in the army, but in various departments of the state.

"That it has been discovered by the said investigation, that these abuses have extended, not only to the disposal of church and East-India patronage, but also to the disposal of seats in the legislature; and charges have been brought forward, and proofs offered, implicating in such corrupt and illegal traffic, lord viscount Castlereagh, the honourable Spencer Perceval, and the honourable Henry Wellesley, all members of the house, and then and now holding ostensible situations in his majesty's government; a traffic, which, in the language of the Speaker of the house of commons, 'would bring a greater scandal upon the parliament and the nation than this country has ever known since parliament has had an existence.'

"That the said investigation has also led to the discovery, that the said lord Castlereagh, one of his majesty's secretaries of state, and late president of the board of control, did, in flagrant breach of his duty as a minister, abuse of his patronage, and gross violation of the constitution, place a writership in the hands of lord Clancarty, a member of the same board, for the purpose of obtaining for him a seat in parliament; which fact, the said lord Castlereagh has himself admitted; and, notwithstanding there appeared a smaller majority in his favour than appeared in favour of the duke of York, in manifest injustice to his royal highness, and gross insult to the nation, the said lord Castlereagh still retains his official situation.

"That these attacks upon the vital principles of the constitution have been made without punishment or censure; and motions for inquiry into such practices have been rejected, upon the alleged frequency and notoriety of them; and parliament has thereby, as well as by passing a bill to prevent the sale of seats in that house, recognized and acknowledged the corrupt influence under which it has been called together, and exercised its functions.

"That it was stated by Mr. Wardle, that there was an office publicly kept open for the sale of places under government; and, although such statement, when made, only excited the derision of ministers and the house, it has since appeared that the above statement was correct; and his majesty's ministers have indicted and convicted several persons concerned therein; and such practices were declared in the said indictment, to have a tendency to degrade, vilify, traduce, and bring into contempt, the administration of the country.

"That, by various statements which Mr. Wardle has lately submitted to parliament, it appears, that, by a correction of the frauds, abuses, corruption, and speculation, which have been found to exist in every branch of the

public expenditure to which inquiry has extended, and a wise and honest application of our resources, the people might be relieved from heavy and oppressive burthens, if not wholly from that inquisitorial and most grievous of imposts, the tax upon income. That his conduct on this occasion seems to have drawn upon him, in a high degree, the malice and rancour of those who are interested in the continuance of these abuses.

"That, in the opinion of this court, individuals who devote their exertions towards exposing and correcting public abuses, are at all times entitled to the support and protection of the country, particularly at the present moment, when there appears an unabating effort on the part of those notoriously under the influence of government, or who participate in the existing frauds, corruptions, and speculations, to cry down, vilify, and traduce, every man who has courage and integrity to expose such practices, in order to mislead the public, and divert their attention from these great evils."

On the 22d of September, the two secretaries of state, lord Castlereagh and Mr. Canning, met each other, pistol in hand, to settle a dispute; for a full and particular account of which we must refer our readers to the newspapers of the day. Mr. Canning supposed himself, and was supposed by many others, to possess greater talents than lord Castlereagh: lord C. again possessed very considerable influence by the number of votes he could command in the house of commons, as well as great dexterity in managing members, and an extraordinary share of activity in whatever business was committed to his charge. Mr. Canning intrigued for the removal of lord C. on the ground of his incapacity, from office, while at the same time his deportment towards his lordship, on all occasions, was such as if he had not harboured in the least any such lurking intention. This (though it does not seem to fall within the circle of points of honour), lord C. considered as a personal insult. On the second fire, Mr. Canning received his lordship's bullet in his left thigh, and the combat was terminated. They had both of them, previously to the duel, resigned their places. The duke of Portland died a few days afterwards. The remaining ministers now offered a coalition with the lords Grey and Grenville, which was rejected. The marquis of Wellesley was then called from Spain, to fill the place of secretary for foreign affairs, that had been held by Mr. Canning.

In the midst of these transactions his majesty entered on the fiftieth year of his reign. A reign of fifty years had happened but twice before in this kingdom; and it has been noticed, as worthy of remark, that the only three kings who have attained this jubilee were each of them the third of the name—Henry III. Edward III. and George III. It was therefore thought to be a proper time for paying a signal mark of respect to the king. The proposal for celebrating the day as a jubilee, was received with pleasure throughout the united kingdom; and the 25th of October, 1809, was accordingly distinguished by a singular display of loyalty. Yet, although affection and gratitude towards our aged monarch was so general, this joyful event was celebrated by the corporation of London with a magnificence and splendour highly becoming its wealth and distinguished rank among the nations of Europe. The day was ushered in by the ringing of bells in the different churches, among which we noticed particularly the fine peal of St. Michael's, Cornhill. At half past ten o'clock the lord-mayor proceeded from the mansion-house to Guildhall, in the state-coach drawn by his set of six beautiful grey horses, splendidly adorned with ribbands, and attended by the usual officers, preceded by the trumpets sounding, and the band of the West-London militia playing God save the king. At Guildhall his lordship was joined by the members of the corporation; and at half-past eleven o'clock the procession moved from thence. In the large space between the iron-gates and great west door of St. Paul's cathedral, the West-London militia received his lordship, and the rest of the procession with presented arms. On entering the great



great west door of the cathedral, his lordship was received by the dean and chapter. The centre aisle to the choir was lined on each side by the river-fencibles, in full uniform. A most excellent and appropriate sermon was preached by his lordship's chaplain, from 2 Kings viii. 66. *And they blessed the king, and went into their tents joyful and glad of heart, for all the goodness the Lord had done for David his servant, and for Israel his people.* The coronation-anthem was performed previous to the sermon, by the full choir, with great effect. The procession returned about three o'clock in the same order.

At five o'clock the corporation were introduced up the grand staircase, in front of the Mansion-house; the trumpets sounding during their entrance in the vestibule. The building had been previously decorated with a splendid illumination, consisting of elegant devices of the rose, thistle, and shamrock, in coloured lamps—in the centre, a radiant display of G. R. and the crown, with "Long may he reign." The pillars were tastefully ornamented with wreaths of lamps; and the whole was much admired for its general grandeur and effect. On entering the grand saloon, which was lined by the band of the West-London militia, playing God save the king, Rule Britannia, &c. the company were individually received by the lord-mayor in his robes of state, with all the affability, politeness, and attention, that distinguish this worthy chief magistrate. The saloon was brilliantly lighted with large Grecian lamps beautifully painted, and displaying a scene at once novel and elegant. At half past five o'clock, the doors of the magnificent Egyptian Hall were thrown open, illuminated by the blaze of innumerable lamps, tastefully arranged round the pillars and the elegant lustres and chandeliers suspended from the roof. The tables were laid out with the greatest taste, and covered with an elegant and hospitable dinner, the whole of which was served with plate. The band continued during the whole of dinner to play several delightful military and other airs. —After the cloth was removed, *Non nobis Domine* was sung. The lord-mayor then gave, "The King, God bless him, and long may he reign over a free and united people;" which was drunk with three times three, and with exulting enthusiasm, amid thunders of applause that continued unabated for a considerable length of time. After this effusion of loyal feeling had subsided, the grand national anthem of God save the king was performed by the professional gentlemen present, with appropriate additional verses for the occasion, the whole company standing and joining in the chorus with the most heartfelt zeal, accompanied by the animating sound of the military band. Many other loyal toasts were given; and the company retired, highly pleased with their own feelings and with the hospitality and urbanity of their chief magistrate.

The illuminations of the public buildings and offices were unusually tasteful and splendid.

On this happy occasion too, a proclamation was issued for pardoning all deserters from the fleet; and another, pardoning all deserters from the land-forces, provided they surrendered in two months. The lords of the admiralty ordered an extra allowance of 4lbs. of beef, 3lbs. of flour, and a pound of raisins, to every eight men in his majesty's ships in port, with a pint of wine, or half a pint of rum, each man. Eleven crown-debtors were this day discharged from prison, in addition to above 100 liberated by the Society for the Relief of Persons imprisoned for Small Debts. The donations to this society for the above charitable purpose were most liberal. The city of London set the example by subscribing 1000l.

The provincial newspapers of the following week were filled with accounts of the manner in which the jubilee was celebrated in every country town and almost every village; in some by illuminations and feasting, in others by setting unfortunate debtors at liberty. The Annual Register contains an account of a charming fête contrived for this day at Flogmore, near Windsor, by her majesty and the princess Elizabeth. Nor was this display confined

to the united kingdom. It was seen in the most distant parts of the empire; and it was in one of our foreign dependencies (Bombay) that the jubilee was celebrated with the greatest judgment, taste, splendour, and effect. See Ann. Reg. 1809. p. 395, 703.

We have now a few incidents to relate which more particularly concern the metropolis.

On the 22d of January, about half past two in the morning, a fire was discovered in St. James's Palace, near the king's back stairs. An alarm was instantly given, but it was several hours before water could be procured for the engines kept in the palace and those belonging to the various insurance-offices which had hastened to the spot. The flames during this interval had made considerable progress, and they were not subdued till they had consumed the whole of the private apartments of the queen, those of the duke of Cambridge, the king's court, and the apartments of several persons belonging to the royal household. The Dutch chapel nearly under the the armoury-room sustained considerable injury; but the most valuable part of the property, in such of the royal apartments as were destroyed, was preserved.

On Friday night the 24th of February, Drury-lane theatre was burnt to the ground. About five minutes past eleven o'clock, the flames burst out at the lobby-windows of the front in Brydges-street, while volumes of smoke were seen issuing from every part of the theatre. In less than a quarter of an hour it spread into one unbroken flame over the whole of the immense pile, extending from Brydges-street to Drury-lane; so that the pillar of fire was not less than 450 feet in breadth. It is impossible for the mind to conceive any thing more magnificent than the spectacle, if the idea of the horror and ruin which it brought on the sufferers could have been separated from the sublimity of the object. In about thirty minutes after its commencement, the Apollo on the top fell into the pit, and soon after the whole of the roof fell. The reservoir of water on the top, which formed with the iron curtain the topic of reliance for security in the prologue with which the theatre was opened, was like a mere bucket-full to the volume of fire on which it fell, and had no visible effect in damping it. Any attempt to go near the flames was totally impracticable; and all that was saved from ruin was done by the presence of mind and activity of Mr. Kent, a literary gentleman, who was the first to discover the flames. He hurried to the door, and gave the alarm. Mr. Powell the prompter, and Mr. Johnston the mechanist, with the two watchmen and Mr. Kent, were the only persons present; for, being a Friday in Lent, there had been no play nor rehearsal. They ascertained that the fire broke out in the hall, under the lobby at the Brydges-street entry, which had been shut up this season, and where some plumbers had been at work. It was, when Mr. Kent broke in, confined to that spot; and they made an effectual attempt to get out the theatre-engine, and play on it from their reservoir; but in ten or twelve minutes the fire ran up the front boxes, and spread like kindled wax. This may be accounted for from the body of air which so large a hollow afforded, and also to the circumstance of the whole being a wooden case: for our readers should be informed, that this immense pile was constructed of timber, and that the frame stood for many months, exhibiting a very fine carcase of carpenter's work, before the ribs were filled in with bricks. Timber was then under 3l. per load; and the architect thought that this wooden frame would contribute to the propagation of sound. It did not, perhaps, perfectly succeed in this respect; but it certainly contributed to the conflagration. Finding it impossible to prevent the destruction of the building, the gentlemen saved the books from the room called the Treasury; and they were carried safely to Mr. Kent's house, in Tavistock-street. The only other article saved was a bureau, in Mrs. Jordan's room: Mr. Kent broke the panels of the door, and brought out the bureau. All farther endeavours were rendered impossible, by the excess of heat.



About a quarter before twelve, a body of horse and foot guards and volunteers came to the place; and engines reached the spot from every quarter, but they could do nothing. Part of the wall next to Vinegar-yard fell down, and the house of Mrs. Mac Beath, the fruiterer, caught fire. The night was uncommonly fine; and the body of flame spread such a mass of light over the metropolis; that every surrounding object glittered with the brightness of gold. Mr. Sheridan was in the house of commons assisting in the discussion of Mr. Ponsonby's motion on the affairs of Spain. The house was illuminated by the blaze of light; and the interest universally taken in this circumstance interrupted the debate. A motion was made to adjourn; but Mr. Sheridan said, with great calmness, "that, whatever might be the extent of the private calamity, he hoped it would not interfere with the public business of the country." He then left the house, and the discussion proceeded. Many of his friends accompanied him to the scene, but it was too late for any effort to be made; and all that the engines could effect was to save the houses in Vinegar-yard and Russell-street, the roofs of which had caught fire, from being burnt down. About half past twelve, parts of the outward walls, both in Russell-street and Vinegar-yard, fell down, and completely blocked up the passage; but fortunately no lives were lost.

The proprietors held a meeting on the Monday following at the house of Mr. Graham, in order to hear the testimony of such persons as could give any information respecting the situation in which the fire broke out, and what was the probable cause of it. Several persons were examined; and, from their depositions, it was tolerably conclusive, that the flames originated in the coffee-room on the first tier, immediately over the grand coffee-room, and under the two-shilling gallery; but the cause of it has never been ascertained. It was reported, that an anonymous letter had been received by an illustrious personage, immediately after the fire in St. James's palace, intimating, "that his royal highness would shortly hear of the destruction of other public buildings in the same manner." Such a letter, it afterwards appeared, was *actually* received by the high personage to whom it was so strangely addressed. It did not at first engage any particular attention; but, on learning the calamitous event of that night, his royal highness sent for Mr. Sheridan, and, after expressing the kindest sympathy in his great and unexpected loss, communicated to that gentleman the contents of this letter, which had been received some weeks before. With respect to this mysterious letter, whether it was meant as an effusion of malice, gratified in some degree, but not yet satiated; or whether it was intended as a menace, calculated for the attainment of some object as yet unspecified, has never been discovered: and we should not have laid so much stress on an *anonymous scroll*, if it were not coupled with another singular and authenticated occurrence, which our readers will peruse with sensations of horror and indignation. It is positively stated that, about five weeks before, a train of gunpowder was discovered at the King's Theatre, disposed evidently for a mischievous purpose. This circumstance had been hitherto concealed through motives of prudence. We now give it publicity from motives equally justifiable.

A fierce and destructive fire broke out about ten o'clock on Sunday night, May the 14th, in a vessel adjoining Billingsgate Dock, at a very short distance from the water's edge. The flames extended almost instantaneously to the other shipping, and to the line of warehouses running from the dock along Dyce Key, &c. The range of warehouses, filled with sugar, tar, oil, hemp, turpentine, tallow, &c. were all successively consumed; and the volumes of fire were rendered more furious and horrible every ten or fifteen minutes by some new combustible matter which they caught. The fire communicated in a gradual but rapid manner to the vessels next the shore. The sight from London and Blackfriars bridges was awfully grand; and it was at one period apprehended that it would be

impossible to preserve any of the shipping in that part of the river from absolute ruin. Fortunately, the tide favouring about eleven o'clock, by the efforts which were made for the preservation of the vessels in the dock, several were towed out, although with extreme difficulty. Four were completely burnt, and about the same number damaged. A floating engine, which was worked with great skill, was of considerable service in preventing the extension of the flames along the river. The extensive warehouses of Ralph's Key, Smart's Key, Young's Key, and Dyce's Key, with their valuable contents, were entirely destroyed; Wiggons's Key was partly so. The fire is said to have been caused by a lamplighter imprudently striking his link, when burning, against a cask of spirits of turpentine, which immediately took fire. A watchman came to the lamplighter's assistance, and the cask was pushed forward with the view of rolling it into the Thames: it took a different direction, however, and fell into a ship lying alongside the wharf.

Between ten and eleven o'clock on the night of Friday the 26th of May, a fire was discovered on the premises of Mr. Seabourne, a block-maker, in Narrow-street, Lincolnhouse. From the combustible nature of the stock in this and the adjoining work-house, warehouses, &c. together with the narrowness of the street, the flames extended with the utmost rapidity on both sides of the way; and, notwithstanding the most prompt and vigorous exertions of the firemen, both by land and water, in about two hours time the following houses, together with an immense quantity of masts, yards, blocks, sail-cloth, pitch, tar, &c. were totally consumed. 1. Mr. Seabourne's dwelling-house, work-shop, &c. 2. The shop-loft and store-house of Mr. Wisborg, sail-maker and ship-chandler, adjoining the former on the western side. 3. The dwelling-house and work-place of Mr. Bell, boat-builder, in the same direction, up to the open landing-place of Ratcliff-cross. 4. The dwelling-house of captain Eitaby, of the ballast-office, on the eastern side of the first-mentioned house. 5. The Ship in Distress, a public-house, on the opposite side of the way. 6. A private house adjoining the latter, occupied by Mr. Jewley. The ballast-office, next door to Capt. Eitaby's, a lodging-house on the opposite side of the way belonging to a person of the name of Scale, and some others, were very much damaged.

On the following morning about two a fire broke out on the premises of Mr. Smeeton, printer, St. Martin's lane, which was subdued before four o'clock, though with the complete destruction of the house and every particle of property. Mr. and Mrs. Smeeton perished in the flames! One of the apprentices was alarmed, and, having awakened his two fellow-apprentices, went down stairs to give their master the alarm; but they were unable to force their way to his apartment, or to rouse him from his slumber; while the increasing smoke and flames compelled them to attend to their own safety. Having alarmed the maid-servant, they, with difficulty effected their escape over the leads of the roof of the adjoining public-house.

On Saturday night, the 6th of July, a dreadful fire broke out in the house of Miss Slarke, milliner and dress maker, N<sup>o</sup> 62, Conduit-street, Bond-street. The whole family had retired to rest; but, before Miss Slarke fell asleep, she smelt fire, and instantly rose to ascertain the fact, when, to her astonishment, she discovered that the flames had reached the staircase. She had presence of mind instantly to fly to the top of the house, where the young ladies her apprentices slept, and happily succeeded in getting them all down stairs and out of the house, where they remained a considerable time, during a heavy rain, without any other clothes on than their night-dresses. The fire by this time had got to such a height, that the whole house was in flames. Had the discovery been ten minutes later, every soul in it must have perished. It next communicated to the house of the Hon. Mr. North, who had lately sailed for Malta, the whole of which was entirely consumed. Great part of Mr. North's library, which was one of the best in London, and had been very lately re-

moved



moved to Conduit-street, was either burnt or damaged. The fire, on the other side of Miss Clarke's house, communicated to the house and shop of Mr. Hurley, a grocer, which, with the contents, were consumed. Miss Clarke lost every particle of her furniture and stock. She was just on the point of setting out for Brighton for the summer, with suitable articles, all of which were in the house. This fire is memorable as having been the remote cause of the death of the celebrated Mr. Windham. With all the zeal of the friend and the scholar, Mr. Windham exerted his utmost to save the valuable library and manuscripts of his absent friend Mr. North: in the course of his exertions he received a blow upon his thigh, for which an operation was subsequently deemed necessary, and which was soon followed by his death.

On the 10th of April, in the Court of King's Bench, came on a trial at bar, before Lord Ellenborough, Sir Nash Grose, Sir Simon Le Blanc, and Sir John Bailey, to ascertain the right of gauging wines, oils, and other gaugeable matters, in the London Docks. The city of London claimed that right exclusively to themselves, by virtue of a charter granted to them in the 10th year of the reign of Edward IV. which charter the London Dock Company insisted was confined to the city of London, and not co-extensive with the site on which the London Docks are built. The emoluments derived from the exercise of the right contended for now amount to 70,000*l.* annually: at the time of the grant, they did not exceed 7000*l.*

The Attorney-general, who conducted the suit for the city of London (assisted by Mr. Garrow, the Recorder, Common Serjeant, and Messrs. Dampier and Watson), addressed the jury at considerable length. He admitted the words of the charter were *intra civitatus*, and thereby granted the right of gauging all gaugeable matters "within the city;" but he would contend, that by those words the city and its liberties were comprehended, and that the right was not confined within the walls of the city. As a proof of that fact, the lord-mayor, who was the city gauger, was obliged to render an account upon oath into the exchequer of the moiety of all forfeitures accruing in the gauging of wine, oil, and all gaugeable matters, "within the city of London and the liberties thereof." The next question would be, whether the London Docks were situated within the liberties of the city of London; and that they were, he said, he should prove by innumerable witnesses. Indeed, the conservancy of the river Thames, the right of metage, and the boundaries of the port of London, were all liberties of the city, and extended over and much beyond the place in question. But he should also show that the right contended for had been uniformly exercised for upwards of 300 years on both sides the river, from Blackwall upwards, and that the law and the practice were in his favour. The documentary evidence was then read; and a host of witnesses called to prove that the city gauger had uniformly exercised his office on both sides the river Thames, as low as Blackwall, and near and about the spot in question, from time immemorial.

The defence was conducted by Mr. Serjeant Best, assisted by Messrs. Park, Holroyd, and Bosanquet. The learned serjeant, in his speech to the jury, said, the attorney-general had left him very little to contend against, as it was a mere question as to the construction of the charter. The words of that charter were, to exercise the right of gauging all wine, oil, &c. "within the city;" now if that was considered, even as applying and extending to the liberties of the city, it must mean to those defined liberties without the bars, and not be considered as wandering from one extremity of the river Thames to the other. The fact was, that that right was originally exercised only on the quays and wharfs within the city; but, the trade and commerce of the country increasing, and the population growing more numerous, other quays and wharfs were erected, and for convenience-sake the city gauger was employed by the merchant; and hence he wandered on

both sides the river Thames in all directions; but he did not do that of his own right, or by virtue of the charter in question. The learned serjeant concluded by observing, that the London Docks were not within the defined liberties of the city of London, and consequently that the company had a right to employ their own gauger.

Lord Ellenborough agreed with the learned serjeant, that it was a question of construction as to the words in the charter; and he was of opinion they did not bear the meaning put upon them by the attorney-general, or that the right was co-extensive with the London Docks. The jury found a verdict for the defendant; and the city of London lost the right contended for.

The following trial is also of much importance for a large and respectable class of gentlemen generally inhabiting the metropolis; we mean the riders or travellers belonging to, and acting for, the different mercantile houses in London and other places. It was a case which established the fact, of landlords and innkeepers being answerable for the property of their customers, while under their roof; being an action tried at the Hereford assizes, before Mr. Baron Wood, the facts of which were as follow:—The plaintiff had a rider in his employ, named Evan Jones, who left London in December, and in five days after arrived at an inn at Wrexham, in Denbighshire, kept by the defendant. The inn being full, the rider was obliged to sleep in a three-bedded room, two of which were occupied by the defendant's own family. The rider swore at the trial, that on the morning of his arrival at Wrexham he had a pocket-book containing 400*l.* in bank-notes; that, meeting with several of his Welsh friends, he drank freely, but was not intoxicated. On going to bed at night, he recollected placing his waistcoat in a chair by his bedside, and the pocket-book was safe. When he awoke the next morning, his clothes were there, but his pocket-book was gone; upon which he roused the whole family, declared his loss, and all joined in searching the bed-chamber; but the pocket-book could no-where be found.—The defendant and his wife appeared extremely anxious that the pocket-book should be found, and actually sent for a constable to assist in the search.

In answer to this, the defendant brought all his servants and children to prove, that they never saw the pocket-book; and the judge summed up in favour of the defendant, observing, that it was a very hard law against innkeepers, who were made liable for the security of the goods of their guests; and, unless the jury were satisfied of the evidence of the rider, they would find for the defendant.—The jury, however, consulted together for some time, and found a verdict for the plaintiff. Damages, 400*l.*

Mr. Jervis obtained a rule to show cause why the verdict should not be set aside, and a new trial had. Since the court granted the rule, the following extraordinary fact had come to light. The defendant had fallen into distress, his goods were seized in execution, and a public sale advertised on the 29th of March; on which day the auctioneer, in presence of the persons assembled, put up for sale a bed and mattresses, remarking, that it was the same in which the young man had slept who lost the 400*l.* The lot was purchased by a person, who joined in making an affidavit of the fact; and, to his astonishment and surprise, between the two old mattresses which were under the feather-bed, the lost pocket-book was discovered, and the 400*l.* in notes within it.—Upon the knowledge of that fact, Mr. Jervis suggested, if a new trial was not granted, that a *set processus* should be awarded, and the defendant spared from payment of the costs. Mr. Jervis added, that the defendant was most interested for his character, which had suffered by the verdict; and he contended, that the rider, having gone to bed intoxicated, might, by the cunning some men possessed in their intoxication, have hid the book between the mattresses, and the next morning lost all recollection of the fact.

The chief baron admitted that it was a sort of action which required as much strictness in proof as a trial for felony;



felony; and that the imprudent conduct of the rider laid him open to a severe cross-examination; but the jury, believing his testimony, had come to a right conclusion. The subsequent finding of the pocket-book was a decisive confirmation of his story; and, though he did not mean to attach suspicion to the defendant or his wife, yet he might have dishonest people about him; and he could not believe the pocket-book was between the mattresses on the morning of the search. He rather believed, from the noise the circumstance had occasioned in the country, that the party who took the pocket-book was apprehensive it could not be got rid of without detection, and had therefore placed it between the mattresses previous to the sale. Upon the whole, he saw no grounds for disturbing the verdict, or for granting a *set processus*. The other judges concurred in opinion; and the rule for a new trial was discharged.

On the 18th of September, the new theatre of Covent-Garden was opened, having been re-built in less than nine months. The managers, in consequence of their large expenses, thought fit to raise the price of admission—to the boxes, from 6s. to 7s.—to the pit, from 3s. 6d. to 4s.—This was resisted by the public as unnecessary and unreasonable, and as arising from an intention to take advantage of the town, which, Drury-Lane being in ruins, had no other place of theatrical amusement. Another and still more popular ground of resistance was, the erection of twenty-eight private boxes in the theatre, by which the audience at large was exceedingly cramped, and which were generally supposed to have been designed as resorts of impurity, and to furnish facilities, which in a British theatre ought not to be suspected. The demons of riot took the place of Comus and the Muses! The performances of the actors were drowned and reduced to mere pantomime, by laughing, groaning, hissing, mewing in imitation of cats, barking like dogs, grunting like swine, growling like tigers—in short, it seemed as if all the animal creation had been assembled in Covent Garden, as in a capacious lyceum, for the purpose of proclaiming their existence by their instinctive sounds. To all manner of natural sounds, emitted or excited by all manner of natural organs, was added the aid of instrumental noise; such as coachmen's horns and trumpets, dustmen's bells, and watchmen's rattles. In the pit they presented their backs to the players, except when they thought proper to grin and make faces at them. Many came with the symbolical characters of O. P. (Old Prices) in their hats, or upon their clothes, forming rings and making mock fights; or the whole joined in the notable O. P. dance, as it was called, which consisted in an alternate stamping of the feet, accompanied with the regular cry of O. P. in monotonous cadence. The managers, of whom some were also players, continued their pantomimical representations for week after week with wonderful patience. At length they lost their tempers: bands of boxers, Jews, chairmen, and butchers, were introduced into the theatre, as well as multitudes of Bow-street runners and constables. Bruises were inflicted and received, and some blood flowed. At last, after a campaign of three-months, the servants of the public made overtures for peace, and they were accepted. The terms were, that the boxes should be raised to 7s. the pit to remain as before. Thus the Pittites gained the day, and the Boxites were lured.—But hostilities were renewed on the 10th of September following, (1810.) when the house opened for that season, because the nuisance of private boxes had not been fully abated according to the contract, as understood by the public. The performances during the first week were rendered inaudible, and the clamour continued to increase: a dance called the Contract was substituted for the O. P. dance. The proprietors having conceded the point in dispute, by opening four more boxes on each side, peace was restored; and the managers continued to enjoy the undivided favour of the public while Drury-Lane theatre lay in its ashes, from which it did not emerge till the year 1812.

1810.—In proportion with his advance in the career which he has found opened to his exertions, the Londinographer finds the annals of those parts of the world, connected commercially or politically with the metropolis, more and more interesting; and yet his speed is still retarded by the influx of matter which presents itself to him, and partly obstructs his way.—This year, though not pregnant with momentous events, with decisive battles, with the fall of empires, or the bestowing of new crowns, yields however enough of interesting matter to fill many pages in our work, were we not bound, by its very nature, to epitomise, and bring within an attainable focus, the transactions which have taken place in our times, and are still fresh in the memory of our cotemporaries. The object of our lucubrations is not confined to the present time; and we must consider, with our readers, that the historian notes-down, for posterity, whatever the fleeting moment of time displays, and marks it (as if in a succession of painted sceneries) to their eager and steady sight; and that, when the hand that now writes has long, long, been withered in the tomb, when the eyes of the present reader have long been deprived of sublunary light, posterity will still peruse these columns, and canvass, perhaps with severity, but at all events with curiosity, the motives of his labours, the impartiality of his intentions, and the accuracy of his statements of facts.

With these considerations before us, we shall resume our annals by noticing some changes which took place in the British ministry; changes which can never fail to affect more or less, according to circumstances, the interests and welfare of the metropolis. On the resignation of the two secretaries, whose differences could not be settled by fair argument, and had called a stern verdict from the mouth of the blind and homicidiary pistol; on the secession of Mr. Canning and lord Castlereagh, (see p. 112.) Mr. Perceval, who had become first lord of the treasury and prime minister, on the retirement of the duke of Portland, set himself to thin and weaken the ranks of opposition, and to consolidate his own administration, by an amalgamation with earl Grey and lord Grenville, men of great wealth as well as eloquence, and no common share of abilities, both natural and acquired. They were considered by their adherents, among whom were many persons of large property, and not a few also of great talents, since the death of Mr. Fox, as the chief leaders of what was still called the whig-party. The project of Mr. Perceval being rejected by these lords, the marquis of Wellesley, just returned from Spain, was appointed secretary of state for foreign affairs; the earl of Liverpool secretary for the department of war and the colonies; and Mr. Ryder for the home department.

The imperial parliament of Great Britain and Ireland assembled on the 23d of January. The session was opened by commission. The king's speech was read by the lord chancellor; it turned, as usual, on the relations in which we stood to foreign states, the principal events that had arisen out of these since the last prorogation of parliament, and the views that had dictated, or continued to dictate, the conduct of government—the expedition to the Scheldt, and reduction of the island of Walcheren—the situation of Sweden—the expulsion of the French from Portugal—the victory of Talavera—the resolution of the Spanish government, in the name and by the authority of Ferdinand VII. to assemble the Cortes—and some grounds for hoping for a speedy restoration of a friendly intercourse between this country and the United States of America.

In the house of lords the address was moved by the earl of Glasgow; who, having taken a brief review of the conduct of ministers, with regard to their foreign policy and various expeditions, maintained, that whatever might have been the result, they were not only undeserving of censure, but entitled to the thanks of the country.

The address was opposed by the earl of St. Vincent, who recapitulated the events which we have taken notice of in the foregoing pages: namely, the convention at Cintra, the



the expedition, retreat, and death, of Sir John Moore, and other topics already fitted by the ingenuity of the opposition.—Lord Grenville proposed an amendment, wishing that, without delay, rigorous and effectual inquiries and proceedings should be instituted respectively to the campaigns in Spain and Portugal, and other parts of Europe.

In the debates on the subject, Lord Harrowby, the lords Moira, Sidmouth, Mulgrave, Grey, and several noble speakers, took an able and manly part.—Lord Liverpool answered with clearness, moderation, and strength; and, respecting the expedition to the Scheldt, said most pointedly; “Some noble lords have urged, that the destruction of Flushing was an achievement of no importance, and as such considered by the ruler of France. I would ask those noble lords, whether, if the case could be reversed, and a French fleet were to attack and destroy Sheerness, and afterwards make good their retreat, it would be considered by Bonaparte as a small triumph, or by us as a trifling defeat?”—The house divided on Lord Grenville’s amendment: for the amendment, 92; for the address, 144.

In the house of commons, the debates upon the address were nearly a fac simile of what had passed in the upper house, and met the same fate.—These eloquent and learned discussions are, we doubt not, productive of much eventual good, in bringing before the public eye certain particulars, which, were it not for them, would remain forever concealed under the ministerial veil.

Grateful for the military achievements, for the prudence, skill, and courage, of Lord Wellington, the house of lords re-founded with the praise of this able commander; and, notwithstanding some previous observations from Lord Grey, the Earl of Liverpool, on the 26th of January, moved the thanks of the house to this brave defender of our Spanish and Portuguese allies. After oppositions and supports, explanations and retorting arguments, the motion of thanks was carried without a division.—In this as in the last instance, the debates in the house of commons were a mere repetition of what had been urged in the other house; and consequently the noble lord who commanded the army at Talavera, and his co-operators, the officers, non-commissioned officers, and privates, all those who had shared the dangers, shared also the unanimous thanks of their country in the British senate.

On the 29th of January, Lord Cochrane rose in the house of commons, and moved, “that there be laid before the house a copy of the minutes of the trial of Admiral Gambier, on the 23d of July, 1809; also the original minutes taken day by day, by the deputy judge-advocate.”—This motion originated from a conviction that the ministry intended to bring in a vote of thanks to Lord Gambier, in both houses of parliament, for the victory in the Basque Roads. After most animated debates, Lord Cochrane’s motion was negatived; and the thanks of the house were voted, on a division to Lord Gambier, and unanimously to the officers, as well as acknowledgments to the seamen and marines, who had given convincing proofs of their undaunted courage on the occasion.

We have next a retrospective view of the affair of the Scheldt; an unfortunate expedition, the failure of which was diversely attributed to different causes, as the members who spoke on the subject were respectively affected.—Lord Porchester made the motion for an inquiry, which, after oppositions and debates, was carried by a small majority. As it would be useless and uninteresting to our readers to go over again all that has been said and printed on this business, we must confine ourselves to the mere statement, that, on the motion of Lord Porchester, a secret committee was appointed to inspect the papers and communications relative to the expedition.—In the course of this inspection, a narrative of the expedition to the Scheldt, signed by Lord Chatham, and presented to his majesty without the intervention of any responsible minister, was found among the papers. This irregular proceeding aroused the indignation of many; and motions upon motions were made to address his majesty on the subject.

This paper was produced on the 19th of February, upon motion of general Loft: it was entitled, “Copy of the Earl of Chatham’s Statement of his Proceedings, dated 15th of October, 1809;—presented to the king 14th of February, 1810.” The date of its presentation to the king was much noticed. It bore date only on the 14th inst. although it had been two or three months ago announced, in the newspapers known or supposed to have some understanding with the ministry, that Lord Chatham had presented a narrative of this description to his majesty. The objections which Lord Folkestone had to this paper, on account of the manner in which it had been presented to his majesty, were considerably aggravated by a knowledge of its contents. It appeared to be a special address from the commander of *one part* of the expedition, appealing to the judgment of his majesty, and actually reflecting upon the conduct of his colleague in the command. He really did not know how the house should proceed, in order to get rid of such a paper; but it seemed highly desirable that it should do so. To entertain such a document, would not only be inconsistent with the constitution, but, in his opinion, with common justice. He would be glad to hear from the chair, in what manner it could be disposed of.

After several members had spoken, the Speaker, having been appealed to, rose, and said, that he trusted the house would not be surprised at his delay in giving his opinion. On his first opening the narrative before them, and finding the name of CHATHAM; he was doubtful whether it ought to be received and acknowledged by that house, on account of its not bearing the signature of any of his majesty’s secretaries of state. But, considering by whom it was presented, he waved his doubts until he sent for some papers. On perusing these, he found that Lord North had presented several similar papers, and that he was considered to be *prima facie* accountable; a circumstance which, in his opinion, left the house at full liberty to discuss the merits of the narrative. The Chancellor of the Exchequer then moved, that it should be referred to the committee of the whole house on the expedition to the Scheldt; which was agreed to. The order of the day being then read, for the house going into a committee on the expedition to the Scheldt; they proceeded in the course of inquiry, on which they had entered the 2d of February, and which was continued through various adjournments, to the 15th of March. The sittings of the committee, employed in the examination of witnesses, were in number eighteen. The principal subjects, to which the inquiry was directed, were, the policy or design and views of the expedition; the manner in which it was conducted; and the evacuation of Walcheren.

Among the witnesses examined was, of course, Lord Chatham himself; and he was repeatedly asked, whether he had, on any former occasion, presented to his majesty *any other narrative*, paper, memorandum, or memorial, respecting the expedition to the Scheldt; but he declined to give any answer. This circumstance excited a strong suspicion, that the noble lord had actually presented to his majesty some such document. Mr. Whitbread, therefore, on the 23d of February, moved, “that an humble address be presented to his majesty, praying that he would be graciously pleased to order, that there be laid before the house, copies of all reports, memoranda, narratives, or papers, submitted at any time to his majesty, by the Earl of Chatham, relative to the late expedition.”

Mr. Secretary Ryder was persuaded, that the present motion was wholly without example. For, even supposing that such a paper as that described did actually exist, as it had never been communicated to his majesty’s ministers, he did not know in what office to search for it, nor could he understand what reply they could possibly advise his majesty to make to an address from the house of commons under such circumstances.

Mr. Ponsonby, adverting to the declaration of Mr. Ryder, that he did not know where to look for such a paper, laid,



said, he would ask the right honourable gentleman where he looked for the list? And, as to his not understanding what answer ministers could advise his majesty to return to such an address,—did he suppose that his majesty would hesitate to deliver any papers he might have in his possession, of the nature required, for the purpose of submitting them to the house of commons?

Sir S. Romilly observed, that, if a witness were asked, in a court of justice, whether he wrote a certain paper, and declined to answer, the judge would direct the jury to consider that paper as in existence. But, if there should be no such paper in existence, that was a still stronger reason for agreeing to the motion; for then all doubts would be satisfactorily cleared up, and the characters of the distinguished officers, supposed to be aspersed, stand as high as ever.—Sir J. Anstruther contended, that any paper relative to an expedition, which led to the waste of millions, and the death of thousands, could not be considered in any other light than as an official paper.—Mr. Bathurst likewise said, that it was not the place where a paper was found, but the nature of the paper, that made it official. It had been said, that those who supported the motion were begging the question. That he denied. They were justifiable in assuming the existence of any papers called for; justifiable in calling for them, in order to ascertain whether they did, or did not, exist. But, he would ask, was there a man in the house who doubted the existence of the paper? Did the Chancellor of the Exchequer contend that there was no such paper? The same question was put by almost every one who spoke on the same side.

Mr. Canning said, that, as soon as lord Chatham accepted the command of the late expedition, he became as responsible for his conduct as any other officer in the army, or as any man in the ranks. He had no right to cut out for himself a royal road to an audience of his majesty. He was, no doubt, responsible to the king, but only through the regular and ordinary channel. As one of the cabinet, he was responsible, equally with the rest of his colleagues in office, for the wisdom or policy of the expedition, to the country and to parliament; but, as commander of the expedition, he was responsible to the king, through his secretary of state. If the other paper, which had been read, had taken the course of going through the medium of the secretary of state into the king's hand, he should most certainly have thought that the papers now moved for did not exist. But when he considered, that the narrative on the table had first got into the king's hand, and was then made official; and that the same adviser had, perhaps, thought it proper not to make the other papers, if they did exist, official; his conviction was pretty strong, that they were not such as ought to have been made official. He did not, however, think that those papers could properly be withheld on the ground of their not being official.

Upon a division of the house, the numbers were—for the motion, 178; against it, 171.—On the 26th of February, the Chancellor of the Exchequer reported to the house, that his majesty had been waited upon with their address of Friday last, to which he had been graciously pleased to direct the following answer to be given: "The earl of Chatham having requested his majesty to permit him to present his report to his majesty, and having also requested that his majesty would not communicate it for the present, his majesty received it on the 15th of January last, and kept it till the 10th of this month, when, in consequence of a wish expressed by the earl of Chatham, on the 7th of this month, to make some alterations in it, his majesty returned it to the earl of Chatham. The report, as altered, was again tendered to his majesty by the earl of Chatham, on the 14th of this month, when his majesty directed it to be delivered to his secretary of state; and his majesty has not kept any copy or minute of this report, as delivered at either of these times; nor has he had, at any time, any other report, memorandum, narrative, or paper, submitted

to him by the earl of Chatham, relating to the late expedition to the Scheldt."

Upon this reply of his majesty, Mr. Whitbread, on the 2d of March, grounded a motion of censure on the earl of Chatham to the following effect: 1. That it appears to this house, that John earl of Chatham, having requested his majesty to permit him to present his report to his majesty, and having also requested that his majesty would not communicate it for the present, did, on the 15th of January last, privately transmit to his majesty a paper, bearing date the 15th of October preceding, and purporting to be a narrative of his proceedings as commander-in-chief of his majesty's land-forces in the late expedition to the Scheldt; and that he withheld all knowledge thereof, both from his majesty's ministers, and the admiral commanding in the said expedition, whose conduct is materially implicated in the said narrative; that the same was, on the 10th of February last, returned to him by his majesty's command, in consequence of his own request; and that, on the 14th of February, he again tendered the said narrative to his majesty, *the same having been altered, by the suppression of a paragraph, containing matter of opinion, the substance of which this house, by the examination of the said earl of Chatham, has not been able to ascertain.* 2. That the earl of Chatham, by private communication to his majesty, accompanied by a desire of secrecy, did unconstitutionally abuse the privilege of access to his sovereign, and thereby afford an example most pernicious in its tendency to his majesty's service, and to the general service of the state." The friends of lord Chatham thought fit to try their strength by moving the previous question upon these resolutions; but it was negatived by 221 votes against 188. The consequence was, that his lordship resigned his office of master-general of the ordnance.

Although these debates may have been interesting at a moment when the metropolis and the nation were conceiving hopes of opening a branch of commerce with the continent through the Scheldt, yet, as the whole came to nothing, we need only to state, that, at length, the ministers obtained a majority of votes, approving of the policy of the expedition, and of the retention of the island of Walcheren.

Arising from, and connected with, the preceding enquiry, we have to notice another subject, and one indeed of peculiar moment, as it refers to the privileges of the house of commons as exercised against the liberty of the subject, whether members of that house or not.—After the house of commons had determined to proceed in an inquiry into the expedition to the Scheldt, Mr. Yorke (February the 1st) gave notice, that, when the inquiry should be gone into, he would proceed to enforce the standing order of the house for the exclusion of strangers. The house having resolved itself into a committee on the expedition to the Scheldt next day, Mr. Yorke, according to his notice, moved the standing order for the exclusion of strangers, which was of course enforced; and the gallery continued shut during the whole of the inquiry.

Mr. Sheridan (Feb. 6.) begged leave to ask what was the sanction of this supposed standing order? In the first place, he contended, that it was no standing order at all. It was passed at the opening of the session *upon question*. It might have been rejected when proposed; and of course was liable to revision and repeal on any subsequent occasion. It was a mistaken idea to suppose that that order empowered any member to call upon strangers to withdraw. The order, which Mr. Sheridan read, said, "That any stranger appearing in the house shall be taken into custody by the serjeant." The power and authority then rested with the serjeant at arms. And how was he to enforce it? If, in proceeding to obey the order, the serjeant should find two or three hundred persons collected in the gallery, it would be impossible for him to take them all into custody; and therefore he must shut them up in the gallery whilst he went to collect his *posse comitatus*. In



the mean time the debate goes on. The strangers are in possession of all that has passed; and thus, by its very operation, the object of that standing order was defeated. There was also, he observed, another order, which held it to be the privilege of members to pass strangers through the house into the gallery, except while the house was sitting.—Here then were two orders wholly irreconcilable, unless it was intended that members should introduce their friends for the purpose of being committed to the custody of the serjeant at arms. Was it not, then, a duty to reconcile such orders to themselves, and to common sense? It was not his intention to move for the repeal of the order, or to maintain that there never could arise an occasion when strangers ought to be excluded; but he did wish the order to be so modified, that it should not depend on the caprice or pleasure of any individual member, but be fairly submitted to the decision of the house. When the character of the king's son was to be investigated, not a syllable had been heard of the exclusion of strangers; but, when the conduct and character of ministers were to be inquired into, then it appeared to be a subject too tender and delicate for public inspection in that house. Mr. Sheridan thought that there never was a period in our history in which it was more necessary for parliament to conciliate the public; therefore he moved, "That a committee of privileges be appointed to meet to-morrow, in the speaker's chamber, to consider the order of the 25th of January last."

Mr. Windham wished to know in what manner the daily publishing the debates was advantageous to the country. He asked what was the value to their constituents of knowing what was passing in that house? Supposing they should never know, it was only the difference between a representative government and a democracy. Till the last thirty years, or a few years farther back, it was not even permitted to publish the debates of that house. So lately as the times of Dr. Johnson, the debates were never published but under fictitious names. He had heard that proprietors of papers had talked of the injustice of closed doors. This was to consider the admission of strangers into the gallery as a privilege. But, though he might perhaps think it useful to let this practice continue, after having so long prevailed, he did not allow it to be a privilege. The house ought to maintain those regulations and orders which had so long prevailed. He would assert that the rights of the house were now in danger of being lost from misuse.

Lord Folkestone said, that, as the public had been allowed regularly to receive a report of the proceedings in parliament, he was desirous that no casual interruption of that permission should occur.

Mr. Yorke haughtily protested against the supposition that it was necessary for a member, who should move to enforce a standing order, to state the reasons which induced him to do so. He had moved the order on the present occasion, from a consideration of the many misstatements which went forth to the public last year, on a very important inquiry before that house. They were now performing their great function as the grand inquest of the nation. The grand jury of a county never admitted strangers during the time of their examining evidence. A right honourable gentleman had asked why they had not proceeded in the same manner in the course of a memorable inquiry last year? He regretted most sincerely that they did not; and he took shame to himself that he had not then enforced the standing order. The standing order in question was a most ancient order; the principle on which it was founded was, perhaps, interwoven in the original constitution of the house.

Mr. Sheridan stated, that the object he had in view, in the motion which he had submitted to the house, was not to prevent any individual member from clearing the gallery; but merely to require, that, after he had done so, he should condescend to give some reason for the step. If, after the exclusion of the strangers, the house should

acquiesce in the propriety of the motives for that exclusion, the public would then be satisfied. To what was it owing that Great Britain was able to maintain a struggle, and he hoped it would be a successful struggle, with the victorious arms that had trampled on the independence of the prostrate nations of Europe for the liberties of the world? To the liberty of the press alone, and most particularly and emphatically to the unrestrained publication of the debates and proceedings of parliament. It had been asked how such publication could produce any public benefit, or conduce to the well-being or happiness of the nation? By showing to the people, the grounds on which public measures were referred to, and particularly by convincing them of their necessity; thus inducing the public to submit with patience to the heaviest burdens that had ever been imposed upon a nation. If the liberty of the press had existed in France before or since the revolution—if it had existed in Austria—if in Prussia—if in Spain—Bonaparte would not now find himself in a situation to dictate to Europe, and filling the throne of nearly an universal monarch. As to the analogy between the house of commons in its inquisitorial capacity and a grand jury, grand juries did not publish the evidence on which they were bound to form a decision, because it could be only an *ex-parte* statement, which, however, might influence the opinion or verdict of a petty jury.—Mr. Sheridan, in conclusion of his reply, begged of gentlemen not to mistake his motion, which was not by any means to rescind the order to which it referred, but to have it ascertained by a committee of privileges, whether any, or what, modification of it was necessary.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer thought it necessary, for the dignity of the house, to maintain the privilege that any member has to call for the clearing of the gallery without argument.—On a division of the house, there appeared: for Mr. Sheridan's motion, 80; against it, 166.

Mr. Yorke was soon after appointed First Lord of the Admiralty and one of the Tellers of the Exchequer.

There is in human nature a very strong and active principle of imitation. It appears in earliest childhood, and has the happy effect of exciting and strengthening the powers of both body and mind. In sea-port towns children amuse themselves with the construction of ships with paper or pasteboard; in military stations with drums and wooden arms, and wheeling like soldiers. At every period of life mankind have a strong propensity to imitate their superiors. In the metropolis, the seat of the government, the middling and lower classes ape the proceedings and debates in parliament, from much the same principle that boys play the parts of soldiers and sailors. In every ale-house club, they dispute on all political, and sometimes other, subjects, and are engaged in *forming resolutions, making motions, seconding motions, and supporting or opposing motions*. Debating societies are instituted, meeting once or twice a-week, where any one, of either sex, is admitted, and may have an opportunity of displaying his oratorical powers, or admiring those of others, at the small expense of one shilling. This became a kind of trade or business. The president, or manager, paid for the room and candles; what remained of the admission-money, after defraying this expense, went into his own pocket. Among these assemblies, was one which assumed the title of the *British Forum*. The president was called *John Gale Jones*. The vote for enforcing the standing order for the exclusion of strangers, and what passed on that occasion in the house of commons, was made the subject of discussion in the *British Forum*. The following placard was every-where stuck upon the walls of the metropolis: "WINDHAM and YORKE. *British Forum*, 33, Bedford-street, Covent garden; Monday, February 19, 1810. Question; 'Which was a greater outrage on the public feeling, Mr. Yorke's enforcement of the standing order to exclude strangers from the house of commons, or Mr. Windham's recent attack on the liberty of the press?' Last Monday, after an interesting discussion,



discussion, it was unanimously decided, that the enforcement of the standing order for shutting out strangers from the gallery of the house of commons, ought to be censured as an insidious and ill-timed attack on the liberties of the press, as tending to aggravate the discontents of the people, and to render their representatives objects of jealous suspicion. The present question was brought forward as a comparative inquiry, and may be justly expected to furnish a contested and interesting debate. Printed by J. Dean, 57, Wardour-street."

Mr. Yorke having stated this in the house of commons, February the 19th, John Dean was ordered to attend at the bar of that house the next day. He attended accordingly; and, being asked what he had to say for himself respecting the offence he had committed, declared that he had been employed to print the paper by John Gale Jones. It was moved by Mr. Yorke, and voted *nem. con.* "that the said John Dean, in having printed the said paper, had been guilty of a high breach of the privileges of that house." Dean was committed to the custody of the serjeant at arms, and Jones ordered to attend next day, February the 21st. John Gale Jones being brought to the bar, the Speaker stated to him what had been declared by the printer, and asked him what he had to say in his own behalf? Mr. Jones answered, "I acknowledge, sir, that I was the author of that paper; and I am extremely sorry that the printer of it has suffered inconvenience on my account." Jones, at the desire of the Speaker, repeated what he had said; and, the question being put to him, if he had any thing more to say in his own behalf, declared, that "in what he had done he was not actuated by any disrespect to the privileges of the house, or the persons of any of its members individually. He had always considered it to be the privilege of every Englishman to animadvert on public measures, and the conduct of public men. But, in looking over the paper in question again, he found that he had erred. He begged to express his sincere contrition, and threw himself on the mercy of that honourable house—that house which, as an important branch of the constitution, had always had his unfeigned respect." The Speaker then put the question, "That the said John Gale Jones had been guilty of a gross breach of the privileges of that house;" which was carried *nem. con.* Mr. Yorke then moved, "that John Gale Jones, for his offence, be committed to his majesty's gaol of Newgate." The question, being put, was carried *nem. con.*—As to John Dean, he was, at the intercession of Mr. Yorke, on presenting a petition humbly praying for forgiveness, and being reprimanded by the Speaker, discharged out of custody, without paying any fees.—It was ordered *nem. con.* that what had been said by Mr. Speaker, in reprimanding the said John Dean, should be entered in the journals.

The attention of the house of commons was again called to Jones, March the 12th, by sir Francis Burdett, who lamented exceedingly that, in consequence of indisposition, he had not been present when John Gale Jones was committed to Newgate for a breach of the privileges of that house. He knew it was at all times much easier to prevent the adoption of a measure, than to induce the house to retract a resolution. He could not, however, discharge his duty if he did not still endeavour to induce the house to retract a step which they were not authorized to take.—The *house*, he contended, and *parliament*, were different: there must, consequently, be a difference in the extent of the privileges which they might, separately, or in conjunction with the other house of parliament, be supposed to possess. On this ground, he maintained that the imprisonment of John Gale Jones was an infringement of the law of the land, and a subversion of the principles of the constitution.—The question was, If the house of commons had a right to imprison a person, not a member of that house, for an offence punishable by the ordinary course of law; and, by a vote for that purpose, deprive the people of their imprescriptible rights? In this question there was involved the consideration of two distinct

qualities: privilege and power. Privilege the house possessed for its own protection: power was a right to be exercised over others. Privilege they were to exercise to prevent the crown from molesting them in their proceedings; as a shield to themselves, not as a scourge to the rest of the commons. A court of record only had a power of commitment: that house was not a court of record; therefore that house did not possess the right of commitment. The warrant of commitment, too, he contended, was illegal in all its parts, but eminently so in its conclusion. A warrant must conclude with the words, "till the party be delivered by the due course of the law." The warrant for committing Jones ended with the words "during the pleasure of the house." Lord Coke laid it down explicitly, that no man could be sent to prison without trial and judgment. The privilege talked of would make the house as great as king, lords, and commons. He might be told this was a privilege of parliament. He answered, No: it was a privilege assumed only by one branch of the legislature. If the members were of opinion that a resolution of that house was equal to that of all the branches of the constitution, they would agree in rejecting his proposition; but if, with him, they thought that they could not overturn the law of the land, and the acts of parliament solemnly passed, by any assumed power exercised by that house alone, they would agree with him, "that John Gale Jones must be discharged;" with a motion for which purpose sir Francis concluded.

The Solicitor General said, that the question before the house was, Whether Jones, convicted on his own confession and by the unanimous vote of the house of a gross breach of privilege, (which contained in itself a gross and scandalous *contempt*;) and punished for his offence in the way that appeared most fitting to the house, was guilty or not? As far as the present practice could be traced, it was found to be legal and constitutional. It was open to Jones to apply by petition; and, for his own part, he might agree to his discharge in this way, the next moment after disposing of the question as it now stood; but he would not, and he trusted the house would not, relax now, after hearing the kind of arguments adduced by the honourable baronet. If they did, it would be said that they yielded because they doubted their own right.

Sir Francis Burdett replied, that the legal meaning of *contempt* was that which throws obstruction, in the way of the proceedings of any court; but how were the proceedings of that house obstructed by a libel? When sir Francis had ended his reply, the house divided: for the motion, 14; against it, 153.

On the 24th of March, there appeared in Cobbet's Weekly Political Register, a Letter inscribed, "Sir Francis Burdett to his Constituents, denying the Power of the House of Commons to imprison the People of England:" accompanied with the argument by which he had endeavoured to convince the gentlemen of the house of commons, that their acts, in the case of Mr. Jones, were illegal.—This publication was brought under the notice of the house of commons, on the 26th, by Mr. Lethbridge, at whose desire the question was put by the Speaker to sir Francis Burdett, whether he acknowledged himself to be the author? Sir Francis having answered in the affirmative, Mr. Lethbridge gave notice of a motion on the subject.—Next day, in consequence of this notice, Mr. Lethbridge rose, with a degree of pain and embarrassment, which, he declared, he had never felt before, to make a complaint against one of the united commons of Great Britain and Ireland, who, in his opinion, had violated the privileges of the house. He did not mean to enter upon the subject itself, but only to lay on the table the document which the honourable baronet, who was the object of the motion he had to make, had admitted to have been published by his authority. For the purpose of saving the time of the house, he had marked certain passages in that document, which, in his opinion, more particularly justified him in the charge which he had preferred.



ferred against the honourable baronet. Mr. Lethbridge then gave in at the table, Cobbet's Weekly Register of Saturday, 24th of March, 1810; and sir Francis Burdett's papers were read by the clerk.

Sir Francis Burdett made a short but able defence. He said, that in writing the Address to his Constituents, and the arguments that accompanied it, he had no idea that he was infringing any privilege of that house. Was it to be supposed that the simple act of arguing on the powers of the commons was a crime? would not the house endure even an abstract doubt of their powers? He was willing to abide by the fact and argument of what he had written: he would stand the issue. But, if it was the pleasure of the house that he should now withdraw, he was ready to withdraw. The Speaker stated that this was, in similar cases, the uniform usage. Sir Francis Burdett accordingly withdrew; after which Mr. Lethbridge proposed the two following resolutions, for the adoption of the house. 1. That the letter signed Francis Burdett, and the further argument which was published in the paper called Cobbet's Weekly Register, on the 24th of this instant, is a libellous and scandalous paper, reflecting upon the just rights and privileges of this house. 2. That sir Francis Burdett, who suffered the above articles to be printed with his name, and by his authority, has been guilty of a violation of the privileges of this house.

The discussion was adjourned till next day, March the 28th; and then to the 5th of April, when the resumed debate was continued till half after seven in the morning; in the course of which, speeches were made by not less than thirty members. The question turned upon, Whether the house had a right to imprison a person not a member thereof; and whether sir Francis's letter, inserted in Cobbet's Register, was or was not a libel. The conclusion was, that the resolutions, moved by Mr. Lethbridge, were agreed to without a division.—A motion was then made by sir Robert Salisbury for the commitment of sir Francis Burdett to the Tower. An amendment was proposed, that sir Francis be reprimanded in his place: upon which the house divided: ayes, 152; noes, 190.

In consequence of this vote for the commitment of sir Francis, the Speaker, on the same morning, (Friday,) at half-past eight o'clock, signed the warrants for commitment, and immediately delivered them to the serjeant at arms, to be carried into effect, if possible, by ten o'clock that morning. From the politeness of the serjeant, in announcing the commission with which he was charged, it was not till about five o'clock in the afternoon that he went to sir Francis at his house, who told him that he would be ready to receive him at eleven o'clock next morning, (Saturday;) on which the serjeant retired, conceiving that it was sir Francis's intention to go with him peaceably to the Tower at the time stated. About eight o'clock, the serjeant, Mr. Colman, came again to sir Francis Burdett's. He was now accompanied by one of the messengers; and told sir Francis, that he had received a severe reprimand from the Speaker for not having executed the warrant, which he read. Sir Francis then said, that he disputed the legality of the warrant, and that he was determined not to go, if not constrained by actual force, which he was determined to resist as far as in his power. He stated also that he had written to the Speaker of the house of commons on this subject.

Meanwhile a mob had been assembled before sir Francis Burdett's house, and was every moment increasing. Mr. Colman, who had called several times without being admitted, went again to sir Francis's house, on Sunday morning, at seven o'clock, attended by a messenger, and some police-officers, and knocked at the door several times, but it was not opened. The serjeant and messenger, by turns, waited in the neighbourhood of sir Francis's house, for the rest of the day and the night, thinking that he might come out again, as he had once done on Saturday, and that they might have an opportunity of apprehending him. It had become evident, from the number of

the populace assembled in Piccadilly, that the warrant could not be executed without force. And the Speaker, having great doubts as to the power he was possessed of by his warrant, sent a copy of it to the attorney-general for his opinion, and on that opinion he acted. Late on Sunday evening, the serjeant went to the secretary of state's office to request civil and military assistance for carrying his purpose into effect. And on Monday, April the 9th, at ten o'clock in the forenoon, he went to sir Francis's house, attended by twenty or thirty police-officers, and a detachment of cavalry and infantry, to escort the carriage which he had in waiting to convey sir Francis to the Tower. The serjeant, attended by some police-officers, forced an entrance into sir Francis Burdett's house down by the area, and through the kitchen-door. Having left a party of the foot-guards in the hall, he went up, with the police-officers, into a room, where sir Francis was with his family, and Mr. Roger O'Connor, brother to the noted Arthur O'Connor. Sir Francis was employed, at that moment, in making his son read and translate Magna Charta.

Mr. Colman told sir Francis, that, however painful it was to him to proceed in such a way, he had such a force, that it would be quite in vain to make resistance; that he was his prisoner, and must immediately come into the carriage that was prepared for him. Sir Francis repeated the objections he had before made against the warrant, and declared that he would not yield to any thing less than actual force. As the constables were advancing, by order of the serjeant, to seize him, his brother and Mr. O'Connor laid hold each of them on one of his arms, and conducted him to the carriage, into which they followed him; but Mr. O'Connor was obliged, by a number of people who had quickly assembled, to come out again. A messenger was left with sir Francis in the carriage, and the serjeant attended on horseback. The escort proceeded rapidly to the Tower, by the northern skirts of the town, without encountering any opposition.

The mob, that had assembled near sir Francis's house, in Piccadilly, and in the adjoining streets, on Friday evening, obliged every one that passed to take off his hat and cry, "Burdett for ever!" They broke the windows of a number of houses; among which were those of lord Chatham, the duke of Montrose, Mr. Yorke, lord Westmoreland, Mr. Wellesley Pole, lord Dartmouth, sir John Anstruther, and Mr. Perceval. On Saturday, between twelve and one o'clock, the populace assembled in such great numbers, and grew so tumultuous, that a company of the foot and another of the horse guards were sent to disperse them; and the riot-act was read by Mr. Read, a police-magistrate. Some companies of volunteers also presented themselves, in readiness to support the civil authority. Towards the close of the day, the mob, which had dispersed, began to rally. The detachment of troops was reinforced; and the cavalry had orders not to permit more than two persons to converse together. There was some firing, without ball, for clearing Piccadilly. Some pistols, charged with ball, were fired on both sides, by which divers persons, both of the soldiery and populace, were wounded, though only slightly. But, on the return of the escort from the Tower, the contest was more sanguinary.

At the time when the serjeant at arms carried off sir Francis Burdett from his house, the number of people assembled in Piccadilly was but small. But the report of his seizure spread rapidly. The streets, through which it was supposed he would pass, were crowded with people, who, being informed that he had passed by a different route, proceeded, their numbers still increasing as they advanced to Tower-hill. The moment sir Francis entered the Tower, some pieces of cannon were fired, according to the custom in similar cases. A report was spread that the cannon of the Tower had fired on the people, which was credited by numbers of the credulous multitude. Scarcely had the military, on their return from the



Tower, entered Little Eastcheap, when they were attacked with showers of stones, brick-bats, and other missiles. The troops, for some time, bore the assault with patience; but, finding that the mob grew more and more outrageous and daring, they fired several shots among them, by which two or three lives were lost, and not a few wounded. This kind of warfare was continued till the guards crossed the Thames, by London-bridge, to return through St. George's Fields, and by Westminster-bridge, to their quarters.

The letter which sir Francis Burdett had written, agreeably to what he had said to the serjeant, on Friday evening, to the Speaker, was communicated by him to the house, on Monday, the 9th of April. In this piece, after stating what he conceived to be his duty, both to his constituents and to the king, sir Francis Burdett proceeds as follows: "Your warrant, sir, I believe, you know to be illegal. I know it to be so. To superior force I must submit. But I will not incur the danger of continuing voluntarily to make one of any set of men who shall assume illegally the whole power of the realm; and who have no more right to take myself, or any one of my constituents, by force, than I or they possess, to take any one of those who are now guilty of this usurpation. And I would condescend to accept the meanest office, being more desirous of getting out of my present association, than others may be desirous of getting profitably into it.— Since you have begun this correspondence with me, I must beg you to read this, my answer, to those under whose orders you have commenced it. I remain, sir, &c. &c."

The Speaker, having read the letter, stated, that the next thing the house had to dispose of was, whether it should be ordered to lie on the table? The debate, on that question, on the suggestion of C. W. Wynne, was adjourned until the next day, April the 10th; on which day Mr. Curwen, thinking that the course most becoming the dignity of the house would be to take no farther notice of that letter, moved, "that the further consideration of it be adjourned to that day six months." The Chancellor of the Exchequer said, that the punishment he had before proposed was for a defiance of the authority of that house. The present letter was but a continuation of the same defiance, and a proof of the same offence. It was, however, a great aggravation to repeat it. He therefore proposed the following resolution: "That the letter which sir Francis Burdett had written to the Speaker was a high aggravation of his offence; but it appearing, from the report of the serjeant, that the warrant for his commitment to the Tower had been executed, this house did not think it necessary to proceed any farther on the said letter."

A long conversation ensued, in which the impropriety of sir Francis Burdett's letter to the Speaker was urged by most of the members, though his conduct was animadverted on with much less severity by some than by others. Sir Samuel Romilly contended that there was no original offence; and that, therefore, the letter could not, properly speaking, be called an *aggravation*.

Capt. Parker, in a tone of great indignation, could not help expressing his wish that the house would at once expel sir Francis Burdett. The objection seemed to be, that sir Francis would be returned again; but he was satisfied, that, when once the electors of Westminster knew all the particulars of his late conduct, they would never return him to represent them again.

Mr. Whitbread could not consent to the word *aggravation* in the original motion; and proposed *flagrant*, as a parliamentary word, and, at the same time, sufficiently strong. The Chancellor of the Exchequer, being extremely desirous of unanimity on the present occasion, wished to adopt this suggestion. In order, however, that it might not appear on the journals that the original words, relative to aggravation, had been left out; he requested he might be allowed to propose the words suggested by the honourable gentleman as a part of the original motion. Mr. Whitbread consented. It appearing

to be the general sentiment of the house, that neither the letter, nor the amendments moved, should appear on the journals, the Speaker said he would give directions accordingly. And the question was put as an original motion; "That it is the opinion of this house, that the said letter is a high and flagrant breach of the privileges of the house: but it appearing, from the report of the serjeant at arms, attending this house, that the warrant of the Speaker, for the commitment of sir Francis Burdett to the Tower, has been executed, this house will not, at this time, proceed further on the said letter." Agreed *nem. con.*

Sir Francis, it may be presumed, was abundantly consoled under his imprisonment in the Tower, by the addresses he received, from different parts of the kingdom, and the petitions that were sent to the house of commons for his liberation. The first place that petitioned, as might be expected, was Westminster. On the 17th of April, lord Cochrane presented a petition from a meeting at Westminster, held that day in Palace-yard. It was entitled a *Petition and Remonstrance*. The house was not petitioned, but called upon, to restore to the inhabitants of Westminster their beloved representative, and to take into their consideration a reform in parliament. It contrasted the refusal of the house to inquire into the conduct of lord Castlereagh and Mr. Perceval, when distinctly charged with the sale of a seat in that house, with the committal of sir Francis Burdett to prison, enforced by military power. The petition being read, lord Cochrane moved, that it should lie on the table. This motion was opposed by several members, on account of the great indecency of the language. The Chancellor of the Exchequer entered fully into the feelings of these gentlemen; yet, in a case of petition, he would rather err on the side of indulgence than of severity, if the question could at all admit of a doubt. If the house should think, that the petition was intended merely as a vehicle of abuse, it ought, undoubtedly, to reject it. If not, then the petition ought, in his opinion, to lie on the table; which, after some further consideration, was ordered.

A petition from Middlesex was presented on the 2d of May by Mr. Byng, who moved that it do lie on the table. The Chancellor of the Exchequer appealed to the house whether there was any member who heard that petition read, that did not conceive it to be rather an experiment to try how far the forbearance of the house would go, in the sufferance of language such as it contained; or whether it could have any other object than to insult? A debate ensued; which was continued, by adjournment, on the next day. On a division of the house, there appeared, for receiving the petition 58; against it 139.—A petition from the livery of London for the release, not only of sir Francis Burdett, but of Mr. Jones, after a debate, continued by adjournment from the 8th to the 9th of May, was rejected by 128 against 36.—A second petition from the same party, in which they declared that in their former one they meant nothing disrespectful to the house, was received.—A petition from the borough of Reading, more respectful to the house of commons, for the discharge of John Gale Jones and sir Francis Burdett, was ordered to lie on the table; so also were petitions from Berkshire, Nottingham, Kingston-upon-Hull, Rochester, and the Borough of Southwark. A petition from Sheffield was rejected.

For some days before the prorogation of parliament, when prisoners committed by either house are always liberated, a number of sir Francis Burdett's most zealous partisans, having formed themselves into what they called a committee of his friends, announced, in the newspapers, the ceremonial to be observed on his going out of prison, as if it had not been a matter of course, but a triumph. There was to have been a procession, for numbers and pageantry beyond any thing of the kind recorded in English history, to accompany the champion of liberty from Tower-hill to his house in Piccadilly. The quarters, in which different parties were to assemble, were pointed out; and the order



in which they were to march described with great exactness. Banners were prepared; and soon after break of day the populace was in motion, and the sound of music was heard in every street. At nine in the morning, a multitude, consisting chiefly of the parish of St. Anne's, Soho, which they considered as being, in fact, the headquarters of the Burdettites, proceeded to the Tower, as a guard of honour; and, by ten o'clock, all the places of rendezvous pointed out by the committee were filled with the partisans of sir Francis. Towards the afternoon the whole line of streets from the Tower to Stratton-street, Piccadilly, was thickly planted with people. Every window and elevated station was occupied. In Piccadilly, scaffolds were erected: the sides of all the streets were also nearly lined with waggons, teams, and carts, filled with men, women, and children; and every eye was eagerly turned to the quarter from whence the spectacle, so much desired, was expected to come.

In the mean time, measures of prevention had been taken by the civil magistrates, by a proper disposition of military assembled in and about the metropolis.

The different bodies of men, that were to form the procession, wore blue cockades. This badge was also every-where to be seen among the multitude that lined the streets. Most of the ladies wore the garter-blue ribbon. From many houses were suspended rods with ribbons of the same colour. Numerous bodies of the Westminster electors began to repair to the Tower, about one o'clock, preceded by bands of music, and with blue silk colours flying, on which were inscribed various devices; such as "The Constitution," "Trial by Jury," "Magna Charta," "Burdett for ever." The north and west sides of Tower-hill were immensely crowded with people of every description, which prevented the procession from being arranged in the regular order that was intended; for never had greater pains been taken to order disorder and confusion. About three hundred men on horseback arrived at Tower-hill about two o'clock; among whom was major Cartwright, and colonel Hanger, mounted on a white horse, with a large oak stick in his hand. They all wore blue cockades.

After a long and anxious expectation of the appearance of sir Francis Burdett, a soldier in the Tower called out several times to the populace, through a speaking-trumpet, "He is gone by water." But no one seemed to credit what he said. A little afterwards one of the constables, posted on Tower-hill, assured the people that sir Francis Burdett had really gone by water. It is extremely difficult to banish ardent hope and expectation. The constable was not credited for his assertion, any more than the soldier who had spoken from the Tower. At half past four o'clock, however, three placards were suspended over the gates of the Tower, with the following inscription: "Sir Francis Burdett left the Tower by water at half past three o'clock." This he was enabled to do, though it was within a few minutes only after the prorogation of parliament was pronounced, by means of a sort of telegraphic communication, established between the Parliament-house and the Tower.

The news of sir Francis having gone from the Tower by water, excited not only surprise, but indignation in many. For some time considerable confusion prevailed, and discontent appeared in every countenance. After a short consultation, the Westminster committee resolved to conduct the procession to sir Francis Burdett's house, in Piccadilly; but it was near half an hour before they could communicate their intention to the whole of those who were to form it. The order of procession being fixed, colonel Hanger, followed by major Cartwright, led the van. Immediately at their heels were several gentlemen from the country, on horseback, four abreast; and, after these, a long column of the electors of Westminster on foot, six abreast, and an immense number of carriages, in some of which were several members of the common-council, and many liverymen of London. Next came sir F. Burdett's

phaeton, the horses of which were led by several attendants on each side. A great part of those who had originally intended to take part in the procession, left Tower-hill, St. John's street, and the Minories, when it was ascertained that sir Francis had gone by water; but many others joined it in its progress. The procession was preceded by horsemen with trumpets, and a long line of people on foot, with blue sashes and ribbons, decorated with appropriate mottoes and emblems.

As it was apprehended by the government, that Jones, alleging a right to a trial, would not quit his quarters in Newgate peaceably, it was determined to effect his ejection by a stratagem. As soon as notice was given to Mr. Newman, keeper of Newgate, of the prorogation of parliament, one of the turnkeys informed him that a gentleman wished to speak with him at the door. Mr. Jones immediately descended from his apartment; but, seeing nobody in the lobby, the turnkey said, "He is on the outside of the door, where you may speak to him if you please." Mr. Jones had no sooner got through, than the wicket was barred against him; and all his entreaties for re-admission were in vain. He therefore harangued the mob out of a hackney-coach window, on the grievance of being (like St. Paul, Acts xvi. 37.) illegally imprisoned, and then *thrust out privily*. Not being much listened to, he hastened to join the procession, where, as soon as he was recognised, his coach was drawn by the populace, preceded and followed by an immense line of hats with blue ribbons, as deep as the passage through the streets would permit, and surmounted by a number of persons wearing the same livery. When he arrived at Piccadilly, he mounted the roof of his hackney-coach, and harangued the populace again; but, such was the confusion and noise, that not a word was heard of what he said.

The grand procession, as it was called, reached Piccadilly about eight o'clock in the evening. By the efforts of the sheriffs and constables, that street was nearly cleared by ten. But parties going off, in various directions, exclaimed, "Lights up!" The summons was instantly obeyed; and the town in a short time displayed a general illumination.

In consequence of sir Francis Burdett's conduct that day, two members of the Westminster committee waited on him at Wimbledon. Sir Francis said, that his conduct had been the result of the deepest reflection. Their enemies, he said, had been base enough to charge him with the blood that had been shed on the day of his commitment; and had he, by gratifying his personal vanity, been the cause of a single accident, he should have reflected on it with pain for the remainder of his life.

Sir Francis, previous to his liberation, had entered an action at law against the Speaker of the house of commons, for issuing the warrant for his arrest and imprisonment; one against the serjeant at arms, generally for executing the warrant, and particularly for breaking open the doors of his house in the execution of it; and another against earl Moira, as the person who kept him in custody in the Tower. The house of commons ordered the attorney-general to defend them. The plea of defence was, that the warrant, being issued by the authority of that house, was a legal warrant, and therefore rendered the arrest and imprisonment legal. This plea was admitted: the privileges of parliament were allowed by the judges of the king's bench not to be cognizable in a court of law, but to be a part of the law of the land.

The peninsula presented during this year a very doubtful aspect with regard to its emancipation from French servitude.—The great battle of Ocana, fought on the 19th of November of the preceding year, and in which the Spaniards had nearly lost an army of 50,000 men, had given new hopes to Napoleon; and he hastened to plant his eagles on the ramparts of Cadiz and the towers of Lisbon. The city and province of Grenada were obliged to yield; and Seville surrendered without the least resistance. Not so Cadiz. Marshal Soult sent, February the 10th, a sum-



mons to the duke of Albuquerque to surrender that place, at the same time inviting him to a conference for settling the terms. The duke replied, that the Spaniards, faithful to Ferdinand, assisted by the English, would not lay down their arms till they should have recovered their just rights; and that they were not to be intimidated by the irruption of the French, who were masters only of the ground they had overrun and now occupied. In return for the interest which marshal Soult took in the fortune of the Spaniards inhabiting the Isle of Leon and the fortrefs of Cadiz, the duke of Albuquerque counselled him to renounce the idea of sacrificing his troops to no purpose; and knowing, as he did, the advantages possessed by his own troops not only in respect of localities, but also in that fraternal concord with which they performed all kinds of service together with the English, their intimate allies. The defenders of Cadiz were Spaniards; but they would be supported by English and Portuguese, and by all those who, penetrated with the justice of their cause, would do themselves honour in contributing to the defence of that fortrefs. The duke concluded by declining the conference to which the marshal had invited him, until by the restoration of Ferdinand VII. to Spain, and the removal of all foreign troops, he should be in a situation to accept what he would do with pleasure, his obliging offer.

On the 16th of February, the junta of Cadiz received a written message from king Joseph, by a flag of truce, in which he graciously expressed his readiness to forgive and forget all their offences; represented the ruinous consequences of war, which must annihilate commerce, and destroy the mass of the inhabitants; and requested that persons might be deputed from Cadiz to treat for the security of the Spanish fleet. This note was addressed to three of the leading members of the junta. The answer of the junta was in the following terms: "The city of Cadiz, faithful to its principles, renounces any other king than Ferdinand VII."

The duke of Albuquerque was some time after removed from the command of the army, and general Blake appointed in his stead; but, until general Blake, who was employed in collecting the wrecks of the army of Arisaga, should arrive in Cadiz, the command of the army was entrusted provisionally to general Castanos.

The cause and manner of the duke's removal, which may well appear a matter of surprize, were as follow:—The duke's little army, on its arrival, after a long and rapid march, in the Isle of Leon, (a place separated from Cadiz by a very narrow isthmus,) was in want of necessaries of all kinds. The only authority at that crisis was a junta of merchants. To this body the duke applied for clothes, arms, ammunition, accoutrements, and pay; and, in a word, for every thing that his troops stood in need of. The junta alleged that it was not in their power to furnish the necessaries demanded. The duke maintained that it was; and declared publicly, that he could not remain at the head of an army in want of every thing with which an army should be provided. The regency, willing to temporize with the junta, appointed the duke of Albuquerque ambassador to the court of London; which was only an honourable exile. It was easy to perceive, that treatment so base and injurious made a deep and painful impression on the feeling mind of that high and heroic spirit. But, animated by the same love of his country which had restrained him from dissolving the municipal junta, which he could have done with a word of his mouth, he smothered his resentment for the space of eight months; when, being no longer under any anxiety for the safety of Cadiz, he conceived it to be due both to his own honour and interest, as well as those of his country, to vindicate his honour and reputation. He set himself to write and publish a manifesto, that might serve as an answer to his enemies. It was dated at London, December 12, 1810. In this the duke declared, that he had attended in person the sittings of the junta of Cadiz as often as possible, to represent the urgent necessity of the troops under his com-

mand. This intercourse was continued till he was convinced by his own observation, as well as what fell in conversation with individual members of that body, that they had not the general interest in contemplation so much as they pretended. From the very commencement of their authority, they strove by all means to acquire the exclusive management of the public revenue. They employed the national funds in commerce, the profits of which were to be appropriated to their own private use; and the most pitiful speculations he had been made acquainted with from the mouths of several of the members. "Who," said the duke, "would believe that the junta of Cadiz could detain in its hands a hundred pieces of cloth, in the hope that, by the management of the public revenue, they should gain, and put in their own pockets, three reals per yard?" This was a fact that the duke knew to be certain.

The junta of Cadiz, on seeing this manifesto, wrote a letter to the duke of Albuquerque, dated the 12th of January, 1811, in which they treated the duke as an impudent calumniator, and an enemy to the public welfare and to his country. Yet the Cortes pronounced sentence in favour of the duke, and transmitted their resolution on the subject, dated Leon, Jan. 14, 1811, to the secretary of the war department, to be communicated to the council of regency. They declared, that the duke of Albuquerque, and the army under his command, had deserved well of their country by their services, and particularly by covering the accessible points of the Isla and of Cadiz. It was therefore the will of the Cortes, that the duke of Albuquerque, who was desirous of continuing his military career, should be called on by the regency to return to Spain to be employed in the army. The council of regency did not delay a moment to send their orders to Albuquerque, to repair immediately to Galicia, to take the chief command of all the north of Spain, in place of general Mahe, who was appointed to a command in Murcia. Had these two dispatches reached the duke of Albuquerque at the same time, it is probable that, from a satisfaction at the conduct of the Cortes, he would have despised the insults offered by the mercantile junta of Cadiz. But this was not the case. He received the letter from the junta first; and that by the twopenny-post, with the seal broken. This made an impression on his mind, which his nomination to the chief command in Galicia, and all the north of Spain, was not sufficient to efface. The insults of the junta rankled, and painfully agitated his soul. Contrary to the advice of his friends, who represented how much he should despise them, he spent three days and three nights in drawing up a reply, almost without taking any nourishment. On the fourth, which was the 15th of February, 1811, he was seized with a phrenzy, which on the 18th terminated in his dissolution. Thus perished, in the 37th year of his age, the great pride and hope, at that crisis, of Spain; the victim of high and just indignation, and of sensibility too lively and exquisite. The remains of this young warrior and patriot were deposited in Henry VII's chapel, Westminster-abbey, until they should be removed to his native country. All the ministers of state, foreign ambassadors, French princes deputed by Louis XVIII. and an immense concourse of persons of the higher ranks, attended his funeral, which was solemnized with a noble and affecting magnificence, and such as we never witnessed before or since that of lord Nelson. His eulogy was worthily pronounced in the house of peers by marquis Wellesley. The assembly of the Cortes poured forth their regrets, together with the praises due to the man who had been the first to quit the Spanish army in Denmark, and fly to the succour of his country; who had always fought the French with glory; who, in the character of a commander in chief, had defeated them in a variety of actions; and, lastly, who had preserved the ground on which they now stood.

The war extended nearly from one side of the peninsula to the other, whilst the siege of Cadiz was going on with



all the exertions the French were capable of. But the operations of the Spaniards and their English allies were not confined to the defence of Cadiz. They acted on the offensive, in rousing, encouraging, and aiding, the natives in a resistance of the invaders. A detachment of 5000 men, under the command of the Spanish general Don Louis Lacey, disembarked at Algeiras, and marched by St. Roche, on the town of Ronda. At this place there was stationed a French force of 6000 men. Being informed of the unexpected arrival of the Spaniards, whose numbers report had greatly exaggerated, and that they were to be attacked by surprise in the night, they suddenly evacuated Ronda, and fled in great disorder, leaving behind them their arms, provisions, and ammunition; the whole of which fell into the hands of the Spaniards. Though the number of the Spanish regulars was exaggerated, the whole of Lacey's troops, regulars and volunteers, in a few days after his landing at Algeiras, is said to have amounted to 12,000. All the arms found at Ronda were distributed among the inhabitants of the mountains. Parties of French were again marched against the insurgents, as the French called them, by general Sebastiani. A murderous warfare was carried on on both sides. The Spaniards were obliged to retreat. The mountaineers were defeated in various actions, but not pacified. All the British officers and men who have had occasion to see any of the Spanish mountaineers, agree in their descriptions of the ferocious and savage appearance and air of the Alpajarese, and other Spanish mountaineers. They every day were bringing prisoners to Gibraltar, with spoils taken from the Frenchmen they had killed, such as horses, helmets, uniforms, &c. The rustics, who were wont to be clothed like the Russian boors, in sheep-skins, were many of them completely accoutred in French uniforms.

On the 22d of August, a combined expedition set sail from the port of Cadiz against Moguer, a town in the province of Seville, on the river Huelva, below its junction with the Tinto, where a French division was posted under the command of the duke of AreMBERG. The land-force consisted chiefly of Spaniards, to the number, it would appear, of from 12 to 1500; but there was also an English division, under the orders of captain George Cockburn. The land-force was commanded by the Spanish general Lacey. Captain Cockburn had charge of the naval part of the expedition. In the evening of the 23d, when the squadron was about four leagues from the entrance of the Huelva, the general intimated to captain Cockburn his desire to disembark on the coast along which they were sailing, by which means the troops could reach Moguer a good deal sooner than by water. About ten o'clock the troops began to disembark; and the whole, with the horses, ammunition, &c. being safely landed between one and two o'clock, the general began his march along the coast. Eleven English flat-bottomed boats advanced for the purpose of transporting the army over a large branch of the Huelva, which intersects the road to Moguer, and comes a great way to the south and west of Moguer, into the country. By the passage of the Huelva, in the boats, the march was not retarded a moment. It arrived at Moguer, twenty-two miles from the point of disembarkation, towards eleven in the forenoon, August 24. The Spaniards, forgetting their fatigues, proceeded immediately to attack the French; who, not expecting such a visit, were driven from the town almost without resistance. They soon rallied, however, and made several attacks on the advanced Spanish line, in order to recover what they had lost. But the Spaniards stood firm, and repelled their onsets with the utmost bravery. Captain Cockburn, in his dispatch to admiral Keates, commanding the naval force at Cadiz, speaks in the highest terms of the alacrity and ardour with which the Spaniards sustained the fatigue of a march of twenty-two miles, after three successive nights passed without repose, and of the firmness and valour they displayed in their engagements with the French. These, he says, had raised his admiration to the highest pitch, and added to his hopes

that such a people must ultimately prevail and triumph in such a cause. Of general Lacey he says, that he showed himself worthy to command such men. The coolness of the general, his ability, and active bravery, qualified him in a singular manner for the kind of service on which he was then employed. The Spaniards were not less liberal in their praises of the English. In the Regency Gazette Extraordinary of Cadiz, Aug. 30, it is said, "The Spanish and English marines contributed in the most distinguished manner to the fortunate success of the enterprise; and our allies, and particularly captain Cockburn, acquired new claims to the gratitude of the Spanish nation."

Some artillery, ammunition, and other articles, being landed from the vessels on the night of the 24th, measures were taken for pursuing the enemy. The next day a division advanced, and took possession of the town of Niebla, about ten miles north-east from Moguer, to the great joy of the inhabitants, and all the country round. But general Lacey, apprised that the French were on their march in great haste towards Seville, having destroyed the magazines and batteries, and spiked the guns of Moguer, re-embarked his troops, and sent them back to Cadiz, where they arrived safely on the 30th of August.

The English flotilla of gun-boats also destroyed the batteries and redoubts of St. Mary's, and some other points, on the Bay of Cadiz.

A secret expedition that set sail from Gibraltar, on the 11th of October, under the command of lord Blaney, against Malaga, produced very different effects from the preceding. The object of the expedition was to take Fort Fangarola, in order to draw the enemy out of Malaga; then to re-embark, set sail for that city, and with the assistance of a reinforcement to be sent without delay from Gibraltar, to destroy the enemy's works at Malaga, and drive away the hords of privateers that took shelter in its harbour. It was calculated that Fort Fangarola would surrender without resistance. The expedition consisted of about 4 or 500 English of the 89th regiment, 500 German deserters enrolled and armed at Gibraltar, a number of artillery-men, and a Spanish regiment sent over from Ceuta. This armament, on the 14th of October, disembarked three leagues west from Fangarola, situate about four from Malaga. The garrison, 160 men, when a division of the troops under lord Blaney were within cannon-shot, fired upon them with a 24-pounder, and some other pieces of smaller calibre. Lord Blaney had trusted that a herald of truce would do the business: he had not at hand either scaling-ladders or battering-cannon: he brought up some pieces from the ships in the night, and planted them on ground from whence they could play with advantage. The fire of the garrison ceased about eleven o'clock A. M. but they sallied out, and stormed the battery. The officers of the English division which remained on the flanks of the height on which the battery was raised, while the rest of the troops were moving to the positions assigned by the general, attacked the assailants, and the battery was cleared. In a very short time a more numerous party of the French appeared in the midst of the cannon; the battery was taken, and the English troops took to flight. The arrival of 1200 men from Malaga, encouraged the French, and struck a panic into the English and Spanish troops. The French from Malaga were disguised in Spanish uniforms; of which stratagem, on their near approach to Fort Fangarola, lord Blaney was apprised by some French deserters; but his lordship firmly believed them still to be Spaniards, and threatened to cut off with his own hand the head of any traitor that should fire on the troops that were come to join them. He persevered in the error of mistaking them for friends till the moment they told him he was their prisoner; which happened nearly at the same instant when the battery was taken a second time. It fortunately happened, that the 32d regiment, which followed the expedition a few days after its departure from Gibraltar, had landed two companies at the moment when the encounter



took place. These two companies took possession of a height commanding that part of the water-side, and supported by the fire of the line-of-battle ship in which they had come, covered the re-embarkation of all such of the 89th regiment as had not taken the route of Marabella, with the fugitive Spaniards. This affair of Fangarola was very disgraceful to the expedition; for the French did not exceed half their number.

The French, to the number of 12,000 men, having early in February made a fruitless attempt on Valencia, from whence they were driven back with considerable loss, proceeded to lay siege to the castle of Hostalrich in Catalonia, the reduction of which was necessary to an attack on the important city of Tarragona. The town of Hostalrich was reduced in the month of January. The castle, situated on a steep and rugged mountain, was not to be taken but by blockade. On the night between the 2d and 3d of May, a bold attempt to throw both provisions and a reinforcement of troops into the castle was frustrated by the vigilance and military skill and valour of the besiegers. On the night of the 12th, the garrison, under the advantage of an exceedingly thick mist, went out of the fort, in profound silence, and the advanced guard fell of course on the French sentinels. One of these was killed, but the other gave the alarm. The French troops were instantly under arms, and pursued the Spaniards with so much celerity, that the whole were either killed or taken. In the fortrefs of Hostalrich were found 42 large pieces of brass ordnance, and a very considerable quantity of ammunition for war, but an extremely-small stock of provisions.

The reduction of Hostalrich facilitated the carriage by land of provisions to Barcelona, and covered the communication between that place and Gerona.—On the 14th of May, general Suchet became master, after fifteen days of open trenches, and three days firing, of Lerida. There he found 100 pieces of cannon of various calibre, 1,500,000 cartridges, 200,000,000lbs. of powder, and 10,000 firelocks. The garrison, eight thousand men, were made prisoners of war.—On the 8th of June, the fortrefs of Mequinenza in Catalonia, situate near the confluence of the Segre and Ebro, in the midst of a desert, and justly called the Key of the Ebro, was taken by the same general. The French found at Mequinenza forty-five pieces of ordnance, four hundred thousand English cartridges, fifty thousand pounds of powder, a great quantity of cast-iron, and provisions for two thousand men for three months.

Agreeably to the orders received from Paris, the corps of Suchet, after the reduction of Lerida and Mequinenza, began to move towards Tortosa. From Mequinenza and Caspe, (a town of Arragon, situate at the conflux of the Ebro and Guadaloupe,) all the way to Tortosa, a road for carriages was cut, waving to the length of thirty leagues, through mountains scarcely passable for mules or travellers on foot. The park of artillery was moved down partly by water-carriage, and partly by land, as far as Xerta, which was within two leagues of Tortosa. While the French were employed in their preparations, or what, in the language of the French general who commanded, is called "all the preliminary labours of the siege," the garrison of Tortosa did not fail, in the months of July and August, to make repeatedly the boldest and most vigorous sallies. On the 3d of August they made a general sally: it advanced on all points at the same time, even under the enemy's entrenchments. The French advanced posts were not able to sustain their shock; but, the choice troops being brought into action, the Spaniards were driven back into the fortrefs with the loss of some hundreds of their men killed, and about as many prisoners. In this bold enterprise, count d'Abras, the governor of Tortosa, was dangerously wounded.—On the 22d, general Frère's division of the army of Catalonia arrived to join the besieging army: he was stationed on the Ebro, at the distance of one league below Tortosa, to have an eye on the route towards Tarragona and the sea-coast.—On the

29th, by break of day, 45 pieces of cannon, from ten batteries raised on both sides of the river Ebro, commenced a fire, which in the space of two hours silenced all that was opposed to them; on the same day the bridge was cut, and the day afterwards entirely broken down. In the night between the 29th and 30th, the Spaniards evacuated the tête de pont, which was taken possession of by the French. On the 30th there was no firing but from the castle, and on the 31st none at all. The parapets were destroyed; the embrasures were unfit for receiving cannon; two breaches had begun to be made in the wall; parties had descended and passed the ditch; and the miners commenced their subterraneous operations. In these circumstances, in the morning of the 1st of January, 1811, a flag of truce was seen on the summit of the castle. Two officers came to the French general with a letter from the governor, authorizing them to propose terms of peace. They offered to quit Tortosa immediately, on the condition of being sent to Tarragona; or to surrender on conditions within fifteen days, if the place should not be relieved. These proposals were rejected in the most peremptory manner. A fire of shells from mortars and obuses was re-opened on both the town and castle. The miners resumed their labours. On the morning of the 2d, a new battery, constructed with extraordinary quickness in the covert-way on the counterscarp of the ditch, played at the distance of fifteen fathoms from the wall, and effected a breach, which was enlarged every hour. Three white flags waved on the ramparts at the same time; but the firing was every-where continued; and in two hours every thing was ready for the assault. Heralds of peace presented themselves anew; and at length the garrison, reduced from 9 to 8000 men, laid down their standards and arms, deified as prisoners of war, and under a suitable escort were led as prisoners of war to Saragossa. Among the standards was one presented by the king of Great Britain, whom Suchet calls "le roi Georges," to the city of Tortosa. The French were put into possession of 177 pieces of ordnance, 9000 firelocks, and a great quantity of bullets, shells, and gunpowder.

A small body of French, three or four thousand, towards the end of December, 1809, entered the capital of Leon, from whence, on their approach, the Spaniards retreated. A corps, which was the 8th, under general Junot, laid siege to Astorga, and held other places in subjection, by a proper distribution of garrisons. A strong division under general Bonnet took possession of Oviedo the capital, extended itself over the whole province of Asturias, and threatened again to penetrate into Galicia. Astorga was taken, after a short siege, on the 12th of April. Three thousand five hundred Spaniards, with English firelocks, and wearing English clothes, laid down their arms, and were conducted to Barneza, whence they were sent to France. But the whole of the prisoners taken during the siege of Astorga, according to the dispatch of Junot to Berthier, amounted to about 5000. The number of the Spaniards killed at the siege was 1500, and 500 wounded were left in the hospitals. The French found at Astorga twenty pieces of cannon and two mortars. The loss of the French, as stated by Junot, in all the different encounters with the enemy, both in Astorga and the territory around it, was only about 160 killed and 400 wounded. The Spaniards stated, probably with equal exaggeration, that the loss of the French in killed and wounded was not less than 4000. After the fall of Astorga, the 8th corps joined that of marshal Ney, duke of Echlingen, before Ciudad Rodrigo. In the mean time, field-marshal Massena, prince of Essling, was on his way from Paris to take the command of the army appointed for the conquest of Portugal, to consist of the 2d, 6th, and 8th, corps, forming all together a force of about 80,000 men.

The siege of Ciudad Rodrigo was obstructed and retarded by heavy rains, bad roads, the difficult conveyance of stores and provisions, and lastly the near vicinity of the allied army of English and Portuguese, un-



der the command of lord Wellington. The trenches were at length opened on the night between the 15th and 16th of June, by which time Mailena had arrived in the French camp to take the command of the army. The town was completely invested by a body of troops under the orders of Ney on the right bank of the Agueda, and by another under Junot on the left. In the morning of the 25th of June, a fire was opened on Ciudad Rodrigo from 46 pieces of battering cannon, which soon obtained an advantage over that of the garrison. But the Spaniards, who had a very numerous artillery, brought different pieces into play, and poured a shower of shells and bullets on the assailants; who, in order to cover their advances, found it necessary to attack two convents, which were taken and retaken several times, and not kept by the French at last until they were partly burnt. Possession was then obtained of the suburb St. Francis, after an obstinate resistance, and several forties. On the 28th, great damage having been done to the walls, the governor, Don Andrew Herrasty, was summoned to surrender; but he refused to capitulate: both the garrison and inhabitants, roused by the monks to a high pitch of religious enthusiasm, appeared determined to stand out to the last extremity. The firing was then re-commenced with increased fury: batteries were erected nearer the walls, in both of which a practicable breach, from fifteen to eighteen fathoms in width, was made on the 9th of July; in the night of which the explosion of a mine threw the counterscarp into the ditch. This breach being discovered about four o'clock P. M. of the 10th, it was instantly mounted, amidst the cries of *Vive l'Empereur*, by three gallant soldiers, who poured the contents of their firelocks among the garrison; whose fire, which had become feeble for some hours, now entirely ceased. The besiegers were marching in columns to the assault, when the white flag appeared. The garrison surrendered at discretion. The French were struck with the appearance of subversion and ruin wherever they turned their eyes. Scarcely was a house to be seen entire, or without some trace of the furious siege it had undergone. Of the troops and inhabitants, 2000 were killed. The garrison, to the number of 7000, deposited their arms in the arsenal. There was found at Ciudad Rodrigo 125 pieces of ordnance, mostly bronze; 200,000 weight of powder; and more than a million of cartouches for infantry.

The next operation in the progress of the French army of Portugal was the siege of Almeida. But a considerable time was spent in repairing and strengthening the defences of Ciudad Rodrigo, in waiting for the return of the troops that escorted the Spanish prisoners to Bayonne, and the arrival of some other reinforcements. The fortrefs of Almeida, deemed by general Dumourier the strongest in Portugal, stands on the top of a high mountain, or rather a lofty mountainous plain; 113 miles north-east from Lisbon. This elevated plain is divided by a very deep valley, or rather an immense glen, containing in its sinuosities, the rapid river Coa, which, rushing down amidst rifted rocks of granite, after being joined by three small rivers, falls into the Ebro. The Coa runs at the distance of a mile from the town of Almeida. It had six royal bastions of stone, and as many ravelins, with a good ditch and covered way. Nearly in the centre of the town, on a lofty mound, stood the castle and magazines, which were bomb-proof. Within its walls were wells, and at a small distance a fine spring of water. The population of Almeida did not exceed 2500. The fortrefs was garrisoned by 5000 men, partly English, partly Portuguese; but the whole commanded by British officers. The governor was brigadier-general Cox. On the 26th, eleven batteries, mounted with 65 pieces of cannon, opened a fire on the fortrefs, which was returned by the garrison with great vigour. Towards eight o'clock, a bomb fell within the walls of the castle on a caisson which they were filling with gunpowder at the door of the principal magazine; the flame was communicated to a hundred and fifty thou-

sand weight of powder: the explosion was like the eruption of a volcano. It was supposed by the besiegers that the whole of the place had been blown up. A great quantity of the wrecks fell into the French trenches. By this accident 900 persons were killed, and 400 wounded; of about 400 artillery-men, not one escaped. The conflagration spread, and was continued for the whole night. Next day, marshal Massena went himself to the trenches, and viewed the ravages of the terrible explosion. The castle, the cathedral, and all the neighbouring houses, had disappeared. Even before this explosion, the fire of the fortrefs had been silenced. The marshal sent a flag of truce, offering capitulation; and also a note to the governor, in which he observed to him, that Almeida was in flames, that the whole of his heavy artillery was now mounted on batteries, and that it was impossible that the English army should come to his relief. After several hours employed in negociation, the governor, whose object had been, as Massena thought, to gain time, refused to accede to the terms. The French therefore re-commenced their fire at eight o'clock in the evening; three hours after, governor Cox signed the capitulation proposed by Massena. The garrison were to have the honours of war, that is, to march out with their arms, and lay them down on the glacis; the militia to return to their homes, and not to serve during the present war, either against France or her allies. Ninety-eight pieces of heavy artillery and seven field-pieces fell into the hands of the French, with 300,000 rations of biscuit, 100,000 rations of salt fish, and a great quantity of other provisions. Of the Portuguese militia, 1200, instead of returning home, entered voluntarily into the service of France.

It is now time to return to lord Wellington, commander-in-chief of the British army, whom (p. 192.) we left at Badajoz, after his retreat from Talavera. The events of the war in Old Castile rendered it necessary for him to retreat from Badajoz, in December 1809, to the north of the Tagus. In February 1810, the English army, augmented by Portuguese troops disciplined by general Beresford, were quartered on an extended line, comprehending Oporto, Lamego, Vizeu, Coimbra, Abrantes, and Santarem. It is unnecessary to follow the Anglo-Portuguese army in all their changes of position during the retreat towards Lisbon. Lord Wellington had formed a plan of defensive operations as profound as any we read of in history. While he was employed in making demonstrations on the frontier of Spain, immense fortifications were rising in a line from the sea to the Tagus, at a short distance from Lisbon. To these, which were almost impregnable, it was his plan to retreat, where he would be near his resources, and receive reinforcements. After the surrender of Almeida, he began to retreat slowly and in good order, and to concentrate the different corps of his army, which had been separated for the purpose of watching and guarding various points that were menaced by the French army of Portugal. The troops with which he made head against Massena, at the commencement of the campaign, did not exceed the number of 25,000.

These movements were preceded by a proclamation issued by lord Wellington on the 4th of August. Having briefly stated the sufferings of such villages on the frontier of Portugal as, confiding in the promises of the French, had remained at their homes, and submitted to their authority; sufferings greater than any calamities that could have been inflicted by a cruel enemy; he told them, that there was no safety for them, but in a fixed and determined resolution to impede as much as possible the advance of the enemy into the interior of the country, by removing all that could be of use to the enemy or facilitate his progress. The army under his command would protect as great a portion of the country as possible; but the people alone could preserve their property by placing it beyond the grasp of the enemy. The duty he owed to the prince regent of Portugal and the Portuguese nation, constrained him to make use of the power and authority



with which he was vested, for the purpose of compelling such persons as might appear to be careless and remiss, to make the necessary exertions for saving themselves from danger, and their country from ruin. For this reason, all magistrates and persons holding offices under government, that should remain in towns and villages after receiving orders from any military officer to depart; and all persons, of whatever class, who should hold any communication, or in any manner assist the enemy; were to be considered as traitors to their country, and judged and punished as such an enormous crime deserved.

While the British army was on its retreat by Ponte Murcella, the whole of the French forces were drawn together in the neighbourhood of Pen-hell, to the number of about 80,000, in pursuit of it. Lord Wellington had advanced in his retreat two leagues beyond Coimbra; and was accompanied by the whole population of the country, who destroyed as much as they could of the property they could not carry with them.

After the fall of Almeida, the plan of Massena began to be unfolded. It was to turn lord Wellington's left. Lord Wellington, to avoid this danger, retreated through the valley of the Mondego, and called the generals Hill and Leith to join him at the strong position of Ponte Murcella, on the Alva, where he was determined to make a stand, and dispute the passage of the bridge. But Massena, having perceived this, suddenly altered his plan, repassed the Mondego, and threw himself on the road which leads from Vizeu to Coimbra, to get possession of the resources presented by that city and the territory adjacent, and to proceed from thence in his march to Lisbon. Lord Wellington, penetrating the design of this new movement of Massena, immediately determined to cover Coimbra, not with the intention of maintaining this open town as a permanent station, but that the inhabitants might have time to retire with their effects. Lord Wellington therefore, with equal judgment and rapidity, repassed the Mondego, and threw himself between Massena and Coimbra.

Marshal Massena, on the 18th of September, arrived at Vizeu. "Through ways," says the marshal, "bristling with rocks, we traversed deserts. Not a soul to be seen: every thing removed, destroyed, or abandoned. The English had the barbarity to order all who should remain at their homes to be shot. Old men, women, and children—every one fleeing before us." At Vizeu, all the forces of Massena were concentrated on the 21st. Here they were obliged to halt for three days, in order to give time for bringing up the baggage and park of artillery. It was this halt that gave time to lord Wellington to execute the judicious and brilliant manœuvre of passing from the left to the right of the Mondego. He posted the central division and the left wing of his army on the Sierra de Buzaco, which was perpendicular to the course of the Mondego, and covered Coimbra, leaving at Ponte Murcella only the corps under general Hill. Massena left that place on the 24th; and on the 26th arrived in front of the position of Buzaco, occupied, with the exception just mentioned, by the allied English and Portuguese armies.

The Sierra de Buzaco is a high ridge, extending from the Mondego in a northerly direction. At the highest point of the ridge, about two miles from its termination, is the convent and garden of Buzaco. The Sierra de Buzaco is connected by a mountainous tract of country with the Sierra de Caramula; and nearly in a line with the Sierra de Buzaco is another ridge of the same description, called the Sierra de Murcella. All the roads to Coimbra from the eastward lead over one or other of these sierras. They are very difficult for the passage of an army, the approach to the top of each of the ridges, on both sides, being mountainous.

Marshal Massena, who was ignorant perhaps of the strength of the allies, and probably did not expect to find them here, made a bold attempt to carry their position. Of the battle of Buzaco, fought on the 27th of September, we have two accounts; one by Massena, and one by lord

Wellington, but both agreeing in the main points, that the French made simultaneous attempts to drive the allies from the mountains, in two different quarters; that in these attempts the French displayed both daring and persevering courage, but that they were repulsed by the allies with great slaughter. During the attack on the Sierra de Buzaco, although nearly the whole of the French army, consisting of the corps of Ney, Junot, and Regnier, amounting to the number of 70 or 80,000, were under arms, from 20 to 25,000 only were engaged in the action; and of the allied army, from 50 to 60,000 strong, as small a proportion. The line of the allied army was eight miles in extent. The fourth battalion of Portuguese caçadores attacked a superior body of French with the bayonet, without firing a single shot. A high compliment was paid to the gallantry of the Portuguese by the enemy, who affirmed in his public statements, that lord Wellington had practised the device of dressing British soldiers in Portuguese uniforms. The loss of the French in killed and wounded is stated by Massena to have been 3000, including a very great number of officers, many of them severely, and some, among whom was general Simon, dangerously. General Grandorge died of his wounds.

While the French, having turned the English position at Buzaco, were on their march by a roundabout way to Coimbra, lord Wellington, by a more direct road, got there before them; which he did on the 30th of September. But, as Coimbra was not a position in which the superior force of the enemy could be opposed with advantage, he sent his advanced guard to the left bank of the Mondego on that day, and continued his retreat in the best order the next day by Pombal, Leyria, and Alcobaca, to his strongly-fortified positions near Torres Vedras, where he arrived on the 9th of October. The stay of the allies at Coimbra was short; but there was time for destroying the magazines there. Those, however, at Figueras, at the mouth of the Mondego, which were of greater value, fell into the hands of the enemy. When lord Wellington moved rapidly to the left of the Mondego, he left some corps of cavalry on the right bank, to give more leisure for evacuating Coimbra. The inhabitants of Coimbra, and of all the other places through which the allied army passed, accompanied them in their retreat, carrying along with them their most precious effects. The inhabitants of Coimbra, after removing every thing they could carry off, requested our soldiers to take whatever they could carry, and immediately after threw the provisions that remained into the Mondego. The same thing was done at Figueras. The picture drawn by Massena of this miserable desolation, is not overcharged: "The enemy burns and destroys every thing as he evacuates the country. He forces the inhabitants to abandon their homes on pain of death. Coimbra, a town of 20,000 inhabitants, is deserted. We find no provisions. The army is subsisted on India corn, and vegetables which we find remaining on the ground." Every soul in Coimbra fled, leaving it literally a desert; for the order of the regency was positive for all to leave their houses, carry off all their goods, or destroy them, and leave nothing for the enemy. The road to Lisbon was blocked up with waggons, carts, mules, horses, and bullocks; mothers, their eyes streaming with tears, carrying their screaming infants; young women of genteel condition, also in tears, on foot, and separated in the crowd from their families; men with heavy hearts, but in silent sorrow, and every thing wearing an air of trouble and confusion. All the roads from St. Thomar and the other neighbouring towns, to Lisbon, were in like manner full of men, women, and children, with what effects they could bring along with them.

Neither the government of Portugal nor the private families of Lisbon remained untouched at the sight of such distress; distress incurred in the common cause of the Portuguese nation. The inhabitants of Lisbon, particularly those of the higher ranks, received the emigrants

from



from the provinces with open arms, and contributed in every possible way to their relief. People of all ranks and characters were united in a common sympathy. Persons but little suspected of possessing tender or generous feelings showed both compassion and bounty on the present melancholy occasion. A very powerful sympathy with the suffering Portuguese, was also expressed by the British legislature and nation. The house of commons (April 8, 1811.) voted for their relief 100,000*l.* and a sum, at least equal to this, was raised by voluntary subscription. This money was very judiciously employed in the purchase of such things in this country as the Portuguese were in most immediate want of.

The French army entered Coimbra on the 1st of October, 1810, the day on which the main body of the allies left it. A show of resistance was made by the British cavalry, that had been left for aiding the retreat of the inhabitants. Massena, on the 2d, sent forward his advanced guard to Condeixa, from which the allies retreated. He did not find the supplies he expected at Coimbra. Provisions of every kind had been carried away or destroyed. His sick and wounded he left in two entrenched convents at Coimbra, with a guard of only 3500 men. He could not spare a greater number. "The best guard," he said, "was to beat the English, and drive them to their ships." Not doubting, indeed, but the English were in full flight to their ships at Lisbon already; though he had no magazines, and though 20,000 Portuguese militia were in his rear; he set out from Coimbra with the whole of his forces, and followed as hard as possible on the heels of the allies, between whose rear-guard and the French cavalry there was daily skirmishing. It was not till the 14th of October, when he reconnoitred the English fortifications in person, that he discovered his mistake, and the dangerous predicament into which he had been led by the military genius of lord Wellington.

The grand position of the allied army was a line of strongly-fortified heights, extending from Alhandra, on the Tagus, to Torres Vedras, about thirty miles from Lisbon, and from thence to the mouth of the Sissandro. And behind these, two other lines of trenches and redoubts, extending from Ericeyra and Mafra, on the sea, to the Tagus. One of these, which was next to the fortified line of Torres Vedras, might be defended by 20,000 men; the other, which was nearer Lisbon, by half that number. On these was planted an immense power of heavy artillery. But, besides this triple line, redoubts were raised at Penniche, Obidos, and other places. Many of the hills were fortified. On the left of the position, the whole of the coast, from Vimeira to the mouth of the Tagus, was studded with redoubts, mounted with heavy artillery. On the right, the banks of the Tagus were flanked by our armed boats. Mines also, ready to spring, were formed in various places. In short, the whole country, from Lisbon almost to the Mondego, appeared like one fortification in the form of a crescent. Within the lines of Torres Vedras, Ericeyra, and Mafra, defended by from 70 to 80,000 fighting men, the allies had collected all the produce of the country through which they had retreated. With Lisbon in their rear, they were abundantly supplied with every thing they wanted.

Massena, having reconnoitred the positions of the allies, confined his operations to the fortification of his own, the taking of Montejunto, and the collection of cattle, grain, and raisins, for the subsistence of his army. None of his movements, or changes of positions or detachments, had any other than this last object. This work alone was sufficiently arduous. His quarters, which were limited on one side by the Tagus, were straitened more and more on the north-west by the Portuguese militia. Colonel Trant, throwing himself into the rear of Massena, entered Coimbra on the 7th of October, and made 5000 prisoners, chiefly sick, and the wounded in the battle of Buzaco. On the day following, brigadier-general Wilson arrived there with his detachment: they had taken about 350 waggon-drivers

that had been left behind the French army at Coimbra for collecting provisions. General Wilson, with a detachment of infantry and cavalry, proceeded southward by Condeixa, and occupied the road between Coimbra and Leyria. The Portuguese garrisons of Penniche and Obidos, and the British cavalry, carried on an incessant and destructive warfare on the rear and the right of the French. The detachments sent out to hunt about for provisions, were so closely watched by the Portuguese militia and the British cavalry on the side of Obidos and Ramalhal, that Massena could not be said to be in possession of any other territory in the whole country than that on which his army was posted. Not less than 6000 men were constantly employed in conducting, not waggons, but small carts, carrying ammunition, provisions, and officers' baggage, to the French. At first they found wheat and millet; the wheat they separated from the husk and boiled; the millet they roasted. But this supply of grain was soon exhausted, or, at least, became so scarce, that none of the common soldiers had any of it; they lived on horned cattle, dried grapes, and other fruit. Flesh, for want of any thing farinaceous, they ate immoderately; and, what was a very distressing privation, they had no salt. Few cattle remained at the end of October; inasmuch that the soldiers began in November to eat the flesh of horses and mules. They were not only in extreme distress for want of provisions; they were in great want of shoes; many of them were barefooted. The following placard was stuck up in a conspicuous place by a French soldier: "A French soldier should have the heart of a lion, the stomach of a mouse, and the humanity of a brute."

The longer the French general lay inactive in the front of the British lines, the more his difficulties increased. The heavy rains falling at that season of the year, rendered it impossible for him to bring up his heavy artillery. From the same cause the Mondego had overflowed its banks. He was hemmed in on every side. To attack the allies, posted as they were, would have been madness; to retreat northwards, extremely hazardous, if not altogether impossible. The hardships and sufferings of the army, for want of provisions, have already been described. In these circumstances he had only a choice of difficulties. To endeavour, by enlarging his quarters, to maintain himself on the right bank of the Tagus, until he should receive a reinforcement of men, together with a supply of stores and provisions, or to make a desperate attempt to cross the Tagus, and support himself in the Alentejo; which, however, he could not have done for any great length of time, as that province is but a poor country. He made a show, however, for occupying the attention of the allies by the construction of boats, pontoons, and flying bridges, of intending this; while, at the same time, he moved farther up the river, exchanged Alentquer for Santarem, which he strengthened by adding art to the advantages which it enjoyed by nature, and even by laying its environs under water. The French position formed a triangle, of which Santarem and the Tagus were the base; the Zezere one of the legs, and a chain of mountains the other. Bridges were thrown across the Zezere, and a body of troops was stationed at Pnnhete, which was fortified. In November and December, the cavalry, 9 or 10,000, were dispersed in cantonments along the right of the Tagus, so far as the borders of Upper Beira. Redoubts were constructed at different points on the same side of the river. Thus the circle Massena had to depend on for subsistence was somewhat widened, and he looked forward to the reinforcements and supplies which he expected from Drouet and Gordanne on the one hand, and from Mortier on the other. Drouet's corps, 12,000 strong, with a large convoy, arrived early in December; and, some weeks after, that under Gordanne, nearly equal in number. Towards the end of that month, detachments from the army of Mortier, and that of Soult, to the number of 12 or 14,000, having quitted Andalusia, were on their march on the left of the Tagus, through Estremadura.



There was now some appearance that seemed to menace a turn of fortune in favour of the French. But lord Wellington was firm in adhering to his plan, nor ever for a moment doubted of ultimate success. He considered that, if the reinforcements sent, or yet to be sent, should be unable to protect his convoys against the attacks of those numerous bodies of troops that harassed him in flank and rear, and to cover the formation of magazines, they would aggravate the distress arising from the want of necessaries, instead of alleviating it. The ardour and activity of lord Wellington were suitable to the importance of the crisis: he was very sparing in his diet, and slept in his clothes; he was up every morning at four o'clock, and at five he rode out and visited his advanced posts. The enthusiasm with which he was actuated was infused by sympathy. The whole country was under arms. Every thing at Lisbon was military. The city was garrisoned by marines from the English fleet. The garrison of Lisbon was sent to reinforce the army, which was also augmented by the arrival of 10 or 12,000 men, under the marquis of Romana. The greater part of the British troops had arrived from Cadiz, and other regiments were arriving from time to time from the Mediterranean, Lisbon, and Gibraltar. The seamen and marines were also landed from the fleet, to assist in working the guns in the batteries. The banks of the Tagus on the right were flanked by our armed boats, and seven sloops were sent up the river. Great fortifications were raised on the south of the Tagus, to cover the river and protect the shipping. The peninsula, formed by a creek or small bay at Moita, near Aldea Gallega, on the Tagus, and the bay of St. Ubes, at Settuval, was cut off from the French by a double line of fortifications, mounted with heavy artillery, and manned, partly, by a body of 3000 seamen; so that the enemy could not advance to Almeida opposite to Lisbon; which it was apprehended might be his intention. The corps of general Hill and general Beresford were posted on the south bank of the river; while, in front of the grand line of Torres Vedras, lord Wellington lay with the main body of the British army at Cartaxo. The British fleet lay between; and, on whichever side an attack might be made, was ready to bring over reinforcements from the other. The number of troops that could be brought into action, within not many hours, has been variously stated. They seem, as we have been able to judge, in point of numbers, to have been pretty nearly equal; that is, on each side from 80 to 90,000. What advantage of numbers there was, probably lay on the side of the allies. Such nearly were the relative positions and force of the French and the allied army of Portugal at the close of 1810.

After the sad reverses of fortune suffered by the Spaniards towards the close of 1809, when they were convinced, by multiplied experience, that their armies were altogether unfit to contend with the French in pitched battles, they had again recourse to that desultory warfare which had been so wisely recommended by the junta of Seville at the beginning of the revolution, and which had been carried on for some time with so much success. The junta of Badajoz issued a spirited and energetic address to the Spanish nation, rousing them to a defiance of the invaders, even in the midst of their triumphs; and gave orders for raising the greatest possible number of detached corps. The order of the junta specified also the weapons to be used: these were only two; the musket, and the *cuchillo*, or side-knife: the musket for attacking the enemy's convoys and detachments by ambush and surprise; and the *cuchillo* for attacks by night and in the streets. Among the most renowned chiefs or leaders of the *Guerillas*, (to the parties of armed Spaniards were called,) were Longa, in Galicia and Asturias; Mina, in the north of Castille; Santocildes, in Leon; Don Juan Sanchez, near Salamanca; baron Deroles, in Arragon; and l'Empecinado, (the appellation assumed by a gentleman of the name of Martin,) in the vicinity of Madrid.

The French troops, after the retreat of lord Wellington, and the total defeat of the main Spanish army under Ariefaga, were dispersed in different and distant stations, for procuring subsistence, and keeping the territories they had overrun in subjection. The allied army presented a formidable force on the frontier of Spain. The French, in the prosecution of their grand design, the reduction of Cadiz and Lisbon, were obliged to concentrate their forces. This operated as a diversion in favour of the *Guerillas*. Many places occupied before by the French, fell into the hands of the *Guerillas*: among these were Oviedo and Gijon, in Asturias. When the French divisions were drawn together for opposing the united armies of lord Wellington and general Cuesta, the *Guerillas*, taking advantage of their absence, scoured the country in different directions. When the French returned, after the retreat from Talavera, to their old quarters, the *Guerillas* were dispersed, but not subdued; for, on the departure of the French troops from a variety of posts, to join Massena, the *Guerillas* appeared again in force with increased boldness; and of this alternation of concentrating the French forces for fighting great battles, and dispersing the different divisions for subsistence in a poor and exhausted country resolute to maintain its independence, there seemed to be no end. In proportion as the *Guerillas* increased in numbers and daring resolution, it became necessary for the French to send stronger and stronger efforts for protecting their couriers and convoys against those parties who incessantly attacked the enemy in the rear, impeded his communications, cut off his supplies, and, by the booty that fell into their hands, made up in no inconsiderable degree for the ravages committed in the provinces by the invaders. Indeed the misery to which the country had been reduced was so great as to drive many young men to the *Guerillas* as their only means of a livelihood. We find the French generals, in their private dispatches to the government, (intercepted,) continually deploring the necessity they were under of detaching or separating their divisions, for the purpose of maintaining the public tranquillity in the conquered provinces. The French, harassed on every side by an armed population, were ignorant of the number of enemies they had to contend with. The *Guerillas*, dispersed by superior forces in one place, appeared re-organized in another: new bodies of armed men seemed to spring up from the earth after they were supposed to be destroyed.

A convoy destined for the pay of the French army, was intercepted in the night of the 10th of October, by the celebrated partisan, the patriot hero, Mina, between Bayonne and Madrid. The governor of Gomara sent 300 men to reinforce the escort, which was also 300. The whole was dispersed or taken by 500 under Mina, who became master of twelve carts loaded with silver, sixty prisoners, thirty horses, arms, and ammunition.—A convoy was taken by the *Guerillas*, of 6000 muskets, and 6000 uniforms, on its way from Bayonne to the troops in Asturias.—In the environs of Madrid, a body of 8000 men, under l'Empecinado, made king Joseph himself tremble on his usurped throne.—It was stated in a Spanish journal, that, about the beginning of September, "the uncle and worthy successor of the immortal Mina, in the command of his party, had routed near Pampeluna 800 *ganachies* [apes]." So the Spaniards nick-named the French; as the Americans, in the war with England, called our soldiers *lobsters*. It is added in the same paragraph, that this excellent warrior laid Pampeluna itself under contribution, by threatening to starve it. The common escort for a courier to the smallest distance was 200 dragoons; to France 1400. But towards the end of 1810, when the *Guerillas* had increased prodigiously, both in boldness and numbers, at the same time that the Portuguese militia and ordenanza hung in great force on the rear of Massena, this force was deemed very inadequate indeed to the service. In November, a body of French infantry and cavalry, 3000 strong, passing the Zézere, and, crossing the



Lower Beira took the road by the side of Castel Branco to the Spanish border, merely for the purpose of escorting a courier and obtaining information; as appeared from the short time in which they returned to the positions at the bridges of the Zezere and the fort of Punhete. There was a whole division of French troops under the orders of general Clarapede, appointed for escorting couriers between Ciudad Rodrigo and Santarem. When general Foix was sent, in November, by Massena to Paris, he was escorted by 2000 men. On his return to the French position at Salamanca, with dispatches for Massena, January 13, 1811, he was escorted by near 3000 men. The success of patriotic skirmishing in Arragon, forced Bonaparte to send 4000 gens-d'armes into that province from France.

These are a few of the examples of the activity and enterprise of the Guerillas. But, after all, the Guerillas were liable to be cut off in detail, or dispersed; while the French, by seizing the fortresses, ports, cities, and towns, and the roads from one city or town to another, proceeded by sure steps to the conquest of the whole country; of a large portion of which, at the end of 1810, they had uncontrolled, though very unquiet, possession.

The convulsions which had rent the bosom of the mother-country, were felt across the Atlantic in the new world. —The Spanish provinces of America, by their geographical position and immense extent, seem destined by the hand of nature to form five great independent states: Mexico, Terra Firma, Paraguay, Peru, and Chili. The Spanish Americans were an oppressed and insulted people. Their grievances were many and various. But the principal of them may be reduced to two heads: restrictions on commerce, and even on the free cultivation of the soil; and an exclusion from all places of profit, trust, and power, in the administration of the provinces. The monopolization of commerce was as detrimental to the inhabitants of Old Spain in general as to the colonists, and benefited only the merchants of Cadiz, the emporium in which that trade centered. The colonies that suffered most from the monopolization of commerce were those of Caraccas, Buenos Ayres, and the great island of Cuba.

The central junta, willing to unite all hands and hearts in support of the tottering and falling monarchy, had declared the ultra-marine possessions to be integral parts of the Spanish empire, and their rights to representation in the general congress. But all the provisory governments that succeeded each other, though they recognized their rights in theory, continued to trample on them in practice. At no former period was there greater speculation in the American colonies of Spain, or greater despotism or insolence in all the political departments, from the highest to the lowest—none in which men were in less danger of being called to account for acts of rapacity and oppression. Crowds of needy adventurers were sent to America, to repair their fortunes, ruined by the convulsions of the mother-country. They filled all the public places, which the natives considered as their natural heritage; nor had the injustice and outrages which they had suffered themselves, taught them moderation and equity in their own conduct towards others.

Such was the actual government, and such the condition of the people, when intelligence was received of the irruption of the French into Andalusia, and the dispersion of the central junta, loaded with execrations and the contempt of the people. On the declaration of war by France against the mother-country, the colonists manifested the greatest ardour in the common cause of the Spaniards, by their ready obedience to the provisory governments in Old Spain, and by the liberality of their contributions. But, when every ship that arrived from Europe was fraught with news of fresh defeats and disasters, and accusations of treason, they became more sparing of their contributions, and less and less disposed to place their confidence in the temporary authorities. They recollected that in the greater part of the Spanish provinces in America, and in those of Europe, without exception,

it was not the nobility and prime gentry that first took the alarm, and set themselves to oppose and confound the designs of France, but the *people*. A general persuasion prevailed, that the persons in possession of the various departments of government, almost all of them natives of Spain, were more anxious to keep up their connections with the mother-country, into whatsoever hands the supreme authority might pass, than to repel foreign aggression and usurpation. There seemed, however, to be at first a tacit agreement or understanding among all the Spanish provinces of America, that, for the sake of avoiding the horrors of anarchy, it would be prudent to recognize the authority of the metropolis, so long as there should be any appearance of a fixed government to rule the monarchy in the name of Ferdinand VII.

The authority of the central junta, and the regency appointed at Cadiz, was first disowned in Terra Firma. On the news of the reduction of Seville, and the dispersion of the junta, the minds of all classes were greatly agitated. The general alarm of the detested and dreaded domination of France was aggravated. But they who were distressed by the restrictions imposed by the mother-country on trade, were not displeased at a conjuncture that might enable them to take the redress of their grievances into their own hands. The unpopular magistracy of Caraccas was deserted by the military, who fell in with the general voice of the people; and a provisory junta was formed for carrying on the government of the province in the present unsettled state of affairs, without dissolving the connection, but on the principle of fraternization, friendship, and unity, with the mother-country. Similar revolutions took place immediately afterwards, and almost simultaneously, in other provinces, and in the same spirit. Caraccas, Cumana, Barinas, Margarita, Barcelona, Merida, and Truxillo, were united as federative governments, in what was called the "American Confederation of Venezuela," April 19, 1810.

The principal promoters and leaders in this revolution looked forward with ardent expectation to ultimate independence, though they concealed themselves at first under the wings of the general partisans of Ferdinand VII. They made warm professions of attachment to the mother-country, and, in common with the rest of their countrymen, swore allegiance to Ferdinand, as their legitimate sovereign; though the new juntas did not acknowledge, or pay any deference or regard to, the regency at Cadiz. This moderation of conduct, though prudent in itself, would not perhaps have been observed in preference to the solicitations of present interests and passions, if it had not been prescribed by an indispensable regard to the general sentiments and inclinations of the provinces. But this stream was soon unfortunately turned into a different, and somewhat opposite, direction.

The council of regency, awakened to a sense of their public duty, by the well-founded and firm remonstrances of the island of Cuba, passed a decree, May 17, permitting the colonies to trade with foreign nations in all the articles of their own product, for which there was not a vent in Old Spain. This decree, morally just, and politically wise and necessary, did not suit the interests, and was offensive in the highest degree to the merchants of Cadiz, on whom the regency were in a great measure dependant for the means of continuing their new, feeble, and slippery, government. This decree was therefore revoked on the 17th of June. And the regency had even the ridiculous folly to pretend, that it was not authentic, but an imposition on the public; as if they would have suffered a forgery to be in circulation, and have the force of a law, for the space of six weeks, in the very place where the regency resided, without contradicting and protesting against it! It was impossible that the Spanish Americans should respect a provisory government so pitifully mean, cunning, and fraudulent.

While the impression made on the minds of the Americans, by the revocation or disavowal of the decree in



favour of colonial trade, was yet fresh and lively, intelligence was received at Caracas, that all who had been concerned in the late revolutionary movements were proclaimed to be traitors, and the ports of the province declared to be in a state of blockade, until the inhabitants should recognize the regency of Cadiz as the true and legitimate representatives of Ferdinand VII. An amnesty, however, was held out for what had passed, provided that submission and obedience to government should be paid in future. Nothing could possibly exceed the weakness of this passionate ebullition of impotent pride and arrogance! Even if the denounced blockade could have been enforced by a numerous fleet and army, the policy of it might well have been questioned.

The French government in Spain was of course desirous to gain over the colonies. King Joseph addressed the inhabitants of Spanish America in a proclamation issued at Madrid, March 22, 1810. He called them his *dear subjects*, and invited them to submit, and partake in the blessings of his just and paternal government. But, if they should not have a mind to do this, he counselled them to have nothing to do with the rebellious and perfidious junta, who, as well as the English, had nothing in view but to deceive and plunder them; and declare themselves free, and independent of all nations in the world. Joseph also sent emissaries for the promotion of his interests, by intrigue, into the Spanish provinces through North America. The regency, aware of these machinations, sent orders to the public authorities in Spanish America, not to admit any one from the North-American frontier, without the most satisfactory passport. A gentleman, arrived from the Havannah at Liverpool, August 1, writes to his friend in London as follows: "In coming toward the Moro, we saw ten thousand people surrounding a gallows, on which was suspended one of Joseph Bonaparte's emissaries to Mexico, Don M. R. Aleman y Pena, a young man of twenty years of age, belonging to one of the first families in Mexico, who was returning from college in Spain. He had accepted of four or five hundred blank commissions from Joseph, for governors, generals, admirals, and other office-bearers, to be filled up at pleasure."

In most of the provinces, juntas were formed by the leaders of the people for carrying on the government, according to the views taken by the respective districts of their relation to the mother-country. In all, the authority of Ferdinand VII. was recognised; but not that of the regency of Cadiz; or, in other words, Ferdinand represented by that council. The governments that submitted to the regency, considered those who did not as rebels. Commissioners were sent from Porto Rico, Mexico, New Mexico, Cuba, Spanish Guiana, Monte Video, and the juntas or governments of some other districts, to the regency of Cadiz, with assurances of their attachment and zealous co-operation in support of the monarchy in all its members or branches. But by far the greatest portion of the Spanish part of South America adopted the principles, and followed the example, of the Caracas. The inhabitants of those fine countries were divided into two parties—the Loyalists, and the Independents; and their dissensions fermented into flames of civil war.

The junta of Caracas had very naturally represented their situation and desires to the British governor of the island of Curaçao, so near the entrance into the gulf of Venezuela, soliciting his countenance and protection. The governor did not hesitate to enter into a friendly correspondence with Caracas; but, in circumstances so new and important, required instructions from home for the direction of his conduct. It was necessary for the British government, at this crisis, to make a public declaration of the system on which it was to act with regard to the Spanish colonies; and the earl of Liverpool, secretary of state for war and the colonies, wrote a letter, June 29, 1810, to the governor of Curaçao, brigadier-general Liddiard, in which he stated, that "it was the first object of his majesty, on being acquainted with the revolution in

Spain, to second the efforts of so brave and loyal a people for maintaining the independence of the Spanish monarchy in all parts of the world. In conformity to these sentiments, and the obligations of justice and good faith, his majesty must discourage every step tending to separate the Spanish provinces in America from the mother-country in Europe. If, however, contrary to his majesty's wishes and expectation, the Spanish state in Europe should be condemned to submit to the yoke of the common enemy, whether by real compulsion, or a convention that should leave only the shadow of independence; on the same principles his majesty would think it his duty to afford every kind of assistance to the provinces of America that should render them independent of *French Spain*, open an asylum to such of the Spaniards as should disdain to submit to their oppressors, regard America as their natural refuge, and preserve the remains of the monarchy to their lawful sovereign, if ever he should recover his liberty. It was a satisfaction to his majesty to learn, by papers he had received, that what had passed in Caracas was in a great measure owing to the erroneous impressions they had received of the desperate state of Spain. These being removed, the inhabitants of Caracas would be disposed to renew their connections with Spain, as integral parts of the empire, on their being admitted to take their place in the Cortes of the kingdom." Nothing could be more prudent than this conduct of the British government in a situation so new, delicate, and difficult. A copy of lord Liverpool's letter was communicated to the council of regency at Cadiz, and published in all the Spanish newspapers.—We will just observe, that the noble secretary should not have used the word *Caracas*, but *Venezuela*, of which the city of Caracas is the capital. The province of Caracas was only one member of the confederation of Venezuela, as above noticed; (p. 231.) In our common books of geography, and particularly in the last edition of Pinkerton's Geography, the names of provinces are generally confounded with those of the department, or political division, to which they belong, and *vice versa*: which cannot fail to occasion much embarrassment to English readers of newspapers and other periodical publications. The grand political divisions of Spanish America are, four viceroyalties, and five general *capitanias*, or principalities, independent of the viceroys. The four viceroyalties are, Mexico or New Spain, New Grenada, Peru, and Buenos Ayres; the five states, independent of these, are Cuba, Porto Rico, Guatimala, Venezuela, and Chili.

The empire of France furnished, during this year, some political events of a very interesting kind. The divorce of Josephine from Napoleon, which was conducted with great dignity and decorum, (see p. 198.) was a prelude, as might well be imagined, to a second marriage. Bonaparte, on the 27th of February, announced, by a message to the senate, that he had dispatched his cousin, the prince of Neufchatel, to Vienna, to demand for him the hand of the archduchess Louisa-Maria, daughter of the emperor Francis II. according to a contract that had been made, and of which the conditions were to be laid before them. The ceremony of marriage, in which the archduke Charles received the hand of his niece, as the representative of Bonaparte, was performed on the 11th of March. This was a grand source of amusement in a great variety of ways, both to the volatile French and the stiff and formal German nations: the feasts, the balls, the shows, the poetry, and the addresses and other pieces in prose, to which it gave birth, were endless. From Vienna to Compiègne, the road by which the princess passed seemed to be strewn with flowers. Paris leaped for joy. It was at first generally imagined, that Louisa was an unwilling victim to preserve her family from farther humiliation, if not total ruin. She appeared however gay, lively, and almost playful, and delighted with her conquest over a man who had conquered the world. But, while the face of France and its dependencies seemed to be brightened with joy, the well-wishers to established monarchies and the old order of things de-  
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piored the humiliation of Austria, and the fervility of the archduke Charles.

The intimation given by Bonaparte in December 1809, of an intended change in Holland, by which it would become a part of the French empire, (p. 198.) was not long before it was acted upon. French troops had begun to glide imperceptibly into Holland, till at last it was occupied by a French army of 40,000 men. The Exchange of Rotterdam was converted into a stable for French cavalry. This was a virtual or real annexation of that country to the French empire. Yet Bonaparte appears at first to have been willing that it should possess a nominal independence, and his brother wear a nominal crown. A treaty was made (April 1.) with Louis, whereby Holland on the left bank of the Waal only was to be annexed to France. An army of 18,000 men, including 3000 cavalry, partly French and partly Dutch, was to be distributed at all the mouths of the rivers, along with officers of the French customs, for the prohibition of all trade between Holland and England; the whole to be paid, provisioned, and clothed, by the Dutch government. About the middle of June, 20,000 French troops were assembled in the environs of Utrecht. On the 29th of that month, Louis king of Holland received official information, that the emperor insisted on the occupation of Amsterdam, and the establishment of the French head-quarters in that capital.

Under these circumstances, Louis, on the 1st of July, resigned his rank and royal dignity in favour of his sons, Napoleon-Louis and Charles-Louis-Napoleon. On the same day he wrote a farewell address to the legislative body, stating the circumstances under which he was compelled to sign a treaty dictated by France. "I have the cruelly-grievous satisfaction, yet now the only one I can have, that I have fulfilled my obligations to the end. That I have (if I am permitted to speak) sacrificed to the existence and welfare of the country all that was possible; but, after the resignation and submission of the 1st of April, I should be much to blame if I consented to retain the title of king, being no longer any other than an instrument—no longer commanding in my own capital, and, perhaps, soon not even in my palace. My brother, so violently irritated against me, is not so against my children. Perhaps I am the only obstacle to the reconciliation of this country with France; and, should that be so, I might find some consolation in dragging out the remainder of a wandering and languishing life at a distance from the first objects of my whole affection, this good people, and my sons. These are my principal motives. There are others equally powerful, with respect to which I must be silent, but they will easily be divined. The emperor, my brother, though strongly prejudiced against me, must feel that I could not act otherwise. He is great; and he *ought to be just*. As to you, gentlemen, I should be much more unhappy even than I am, if possible, could I imagine that you would not do justice to my intentions. May the end of my career prove to the nation and to you, that I have never deceived you; that I have had but one aim, the true interest of the country; that the faults I may have committed are to be ascribed solely to my zeal, which induced me to employ, not always the best, but the most practicable, means of overcoming the difficulty of circumstances. I cannot, gentlemen, conclude, without recommending to you, in the name of the interest and the existence of so many families, whose property and lives would be infallibly compromised, to receive the French with the attention, cordiality, and kindness, due to the brave people of the first nation in the universe. In whatever place I may terminate my days, the name of Holland, and the most lively prayers for its happiness, will be my last words and my last thoughts."

In this address, and indeed in the whole tenour of Louis's conduct towards Holland, as was acknowledged by the Dutch themselves, we recognise moral sentiments, the very reverse of those of his brother; a sympathy with the human race, and a lively regard to their sympathy

and approbation. Louis showed an excellent understanding too. He appeared in the light of both a good and a sensible man, struggling hard to do the best he could under untoward and adverse circumstances. Yet he cannot on any account be considered as a great man. He had become the instrument of a tyrant in subverting the constitution of the country, and establishing a form of government inconsistent with the habits, and repugnant to the opinions, of the inhabitants. How much more noble, lofty, and truly great, was the conduct of Lucien; who, after repeatedly refusing to accept proffered crowns, withdrew from the tyranny of a despot, though his brother, to breathe the air of liberty in this happy island! Lucien Bonaparte, with his lady, seven children, and the whole of his suite, which was very numerous, including a number of artists and men of letters, arrived at Plymouth from Malta, on the 13th of December, in an English frigate. He has continued ever since to reside near Worcester, under the protection of this government, having a range of parole four miles from his house, which includes the city of Worcester. His establishment consists of about fifty persons; and he is greatly respected in the neighbourhood.

The ex-king Louis, after many conferences with Napoleon at Paris, during a residence there for six weeks, reported to his ministers, by orders from the emperor, that there could no longer be any independence or national existence for Holland, if there should be a continuation of a maritime war with Great Britain. But the annexation of Holland, which would be so great an extension of sea-coast to France, must naturally be an object of alarm to the British government: it was therefore possible, that the cabinet of London, rather than suffer so fatal a stroke, might be induced to make peace with France, or to change the measures it had adopted respecting commerce and the navigation of neutral states. He therefore directed them to send some discreet person, acquainted with the nature of commerce, to England, to represent to the ministry how advantageous the independence of Holland must be to Great Britain. On this mission mynbeer Peter Cœsar Labouchere was sent, on the 2d of February. Having arrived in London on the 16th, he had several conferences with marquis Wellesley. The whole communication was merely verbal. The marquis expressed his sorrow at the aggressions to which Holland was a prey; "but," said the marquis, "we must not sacrifice our own national interests and honour. The commercial war was provoked by the French emperor himself. The orders in council were not the cause, but the consequence, of the decrees of Berlin and Milan. The decrees of France were still in force. It could not be expected that we should relax in our efforts of self-defence." In another conference with Labouchere, lord Wellesley observed, that it would not be convenient for England to admit in principle that the British measures of reprisals should be discontinued as soon as the cause that provoked them should be removed. "In fact," said Labouchere, "this minister thinks very highly of the orders in council, as tending to weaken the means and force of France. No hopes of a change or relaxation in this system, but in a change of ministry. Attempts on the part of hostile nations to bring back the English government to other ideas, would probably have the contrary effect. It is not improbable that Bonaparte, on this last point, was of the same opinion. But it formed a part of his policy to affect an earnest desire of peace. In his message to the conservative senate, dated Tuilleries, December 10, 1810, in which he states his reasons for annexing Holland and other countries beyond it to France, he mentions this fruitless mission of the Dutchman to London. As to the abdication of Louis in favour of his children, it was considered as of no validity, not having been previously concerted with the emperor. The kingdom of Holland, therefore, was annexed to France on the north; and the Valais, on the south, became one of its departments. Thus aggrandizing his empire, and stretching the arms of



his gigantic power from the Alps to the Pyrenees, from Amsterdam to the Mediterranean Sea, Bonaparte thought of securing his situation on the throne.

Count Semonville, who brought up the report of the *Senatus Consultum* for the annexation of Holland, the Hanse Towns, and the Valais, to France, said, "At length, after a struggle, glorious for France, of ten years, the most extraordinary genius that ever nature in her munificence produced, has re-united, and held in his triumphant hands, the scattered wrecks of the empire of Charlemagne." It was also mentioned, that "the new departments had *acquired rights* to contribute to the military conscription; and that consequently the contingent to be furnished by each department would be considerably less than it had been for some years." Amsterdam was to rank as the third city in the French empire. Paris was the first; the second Rome. In the annual statement presented to the emperor for the year 1811, the whole population of the French empire, before the annexation of Rome, Holland, the Valais, and the Hanse Towns, amounted to 38,080,443 persons, without reckoning the military actually bearing arms. It was, after that annexation, computed at about 43,000,000.

The electorate of Hanover was annexed to the kingdom of Westphalia: it was divided into three departments, and the name of Hanover abolished. The French conscription-laws were also introduced into the kingdom of Naples, and into part of Denmark. A corps of French marched to Lubec: the peninsula of Jutland was completely isolated, and wholly at the mercy of France. By a royal decree, the Jews were to be included in all military levies in Denmark. A census was taken throughout the grand duchy of Warfaw; a prelude to the establishment of the conscription-law in that country.

An imperial decree was issued in December for restraining the liberty of the press. In its provisions it was extremely minute, consisting of not fewer than fifty-one articles; among the most essential of which were the following:—Article 1. There shall be a director-general, under the orders of the minister of the interior, charged with the superintendance of every thing relating to the printing and publication of books. 2. From the first of January, 1811, the number of printers in each department shall be fixed, and that of the printers in Paris reduced to sixty. 10. It is prohibited to print, or cause to be printed, any thing contrary to the duty which the subjects owe to the sovereign, or to the interests of the state. 12. The printer shall transmit to the director-general of the printing and book-selling business, a copy of the manuscripts in his hands, and also one to the prefect of the department to which he belongs. 15. When the director-general inhibits the printing of any work, he shall send a copy of it to a censor, chosen from a number of persons to be named for that office by the emperor. 16. On the report of the censor, the director-general may point out to the author such alterations or erasures as may be thought proper. If he should refuse to agree to these, the sale of the work to be inhibited, the forms to be broken, and possession taken of the sheets or copies printed. 30. Warrants to be delivered to booksellers on or after the first of January, 1811, on their taking the prescribed oath, by the director-general of the press, submitted to the approbation of the minister of the interior. 33. Warrants not to be granted to any other persons wishing to set up the business of a bookseller, than such as should have recommended themselves by good lives and good morals, and also by an attachment to their country and to their sovereign. 38. When books are allowed to be published, a copy of each, or the first volume, shall be marked with a stamp at the provisory depot, and the books shall be returned from thence to the proprietor.—Never, perhaps, was the importance of the printing press so emphatically illustrated as by this decree of the tyrant of France.

Next to the desire of maintaining internal tranquillity, and preventing all attempts against either his government

or life, that of ruining the English commerce appears to have been in the mind of Bonaparte the strongest. Not only were military governors appointed at the ports of the maritime coasts of Germany annexed to France; but at Dantzic, Colberg, and some other places, we believe, in Prussia, for preventing the introduction of English goods and colonial produce. A very great number of French troops, at the head of which was general Raupe, was stationed in Dantzic: this was the head-quarters of the army at war with commerce. The English goods seized in the Hanse Towns and the ports of Prussia, brought eight or nine millions sterling into the French exchequer. In Westphalia, a line of French custom-houses extended from Rees to Bremen. The hatred of English merchandise became at length stronger than the desire of improving the French finances. All English merchandise, whether taken at sea or land, was ordered to be burnt. The decrees, first for seizing, and lastly for burning, English merchandise, were carried into execution with great rigour, in the Hanse Towns, in France, Italy, Germany, Prussia, Swiflerland, and Denmark. The zeal of his Danish majesty, in this business, was signalized by a severity that seemed to outrun even that of Bonaparte: to hold any intercourse with England was made felony in the captain of a ship, who was accordingly liable to be punished with death, and the owner of the ship was to be branded. By an imperial decree, punishments of different kinds and degrees were denounced against all who should be concerned in English merchandise, from captains of ships to common porters. We have a picture of the rigour with which the anti-commercial decrees of Bonaparte were enforced, in a letter, dated at Frankfort, November 1, and received in London November 16. "The gates of the town have been shut, and domiciliary visits made to most of the mercantile houses in the city, in order to seize every kind of English and colonial goods." The emperor, as some relief to his own subjects, granted licences to certain individuals, both for exportation and importation of certain articles, on certain conditions. But such licences were not to be signed by any of his ministers; they must be signed by himself. His autograph consisted in the three first letters of his name, [*Nap.*] fantastically written. He repealed, nominally, the decrees of Berlin and Milan, as far as related to America; but he imposed such a duty on the importation of colonial produce as amounted nearly to a prohibition; while, at the same time, he continued to seize occasionally, and sequester, American vessels as usual.

The affairs of SWEDEN will naturally be looked for under that article; yet, as the events which took place in that kingdom are intimately connected with the general situation of the continent at the moment of which we are taking notice, we must give a slight sketch of them to prevent a chasm in our annals. They, besides, affected the trade of this country, and consequently the metropolis was interested in their issue.—The advanced age of the duke of Sudermania, who had ascended the throne under the title of Charles XIII. and who had not any children, admonished this prince, as well as the states of Sweden, of the necessity there was of electing a successor. The choice of the states fell on the person proposed by the new king, Charles-Augustus prince of Augustenburg, a subject of the king of Denmark. This prince, on the 24th of January, 1810, repaired to Stockholm, where he took the oaths of fidelity, and received the homage of the states. But he did not live long to enjoy his new dignity. On the 29th of May, while he was reviewing some regiments of cavalry, he was suddenly seized with a fit of sickness, and, having fallen from his horse, soon expired. On the 20th of June, great crowds were assembled in the streets of Stockholm, to see the funeral procession. Count Fersen, who, in virtue of his office of high marshal, led the procession, in a coach drawn by six horses, was assailed with hissing and hooting; and a volley of stones was thrown at the carriage, one of which struck him in the face



face as he looked out at the window. The count immediately ordered the postillions to stop, and took refuge, with difficulty, in the nearest house. At that moment, baron Silverparre, the adjutant-general, arrived, and demanded to know the cause of the riot. The cry was, "Count Ferfen has murdered the crown-prince." The baron then said, that the king had ordered him to declare that the count should be arrested and tried. The mob then huzzaed, and, apparently satisfied, began to disperse. But in a very little time a large party returned; rushed into the house and the chamber where he was; and, with most horrid imprecations and abusive language, stripped him of his sword, the insignia of the orders he wore, his watch, his money, the medal suspended from his neck, and his coat, which they tore in pieces. These spoils they threw to the rabble out at the window. In the mean time, baron Silverparre continued to harangue the mob, whom he at length prevailed on to agree to what he prayed for; which was, that the count should be suffered to go to prison without being insulted, to be tried, and condemned if he should be found guilty. The leaders of the mob promised to let him go quietly to the town-house, on condition that the life-guards, which by this time had come up, should be sent back. Silverparre had the stupidity to trust to their word. The count, in his waistcoat, left the house, and proceeded to the place of confinement through a crowd of people, agitated by passion, over which there was not any curb; yet they divided for the unhappy count to pass through them, as he advanced to the town-house; and he at length made his way into the guard-room. The mob, for about ten minutes, paused; but at length, perceiving that they had not any resistance to encounter, they burst into the guard-room, seized the count by the legs, threw him on the ground, took the rings out of his ears, and cut off his hair; they then dragged him out, and, in the presence of the regiment of guards, drawn up in parade, but with their arms laid on the ground, murdered him, by the mere dint of repeated strokes with sticks and umbrellas. His body was stripped naked, and left all day to the outrages of the populace. It was not till the evening, when the insurgents were dispersed by the fire of the troops, that any one durst remove the body; when it was secretly conveyed to one of his estates, about five miles from Steding, where it was interred in the garden.

The regularity and relentless perseverance with which the attack on count Ferfen was conducted, could not but give rise to a suspicion, that it was the result of a previous plan, rather than an ebullition of popular indignation. That the Swedish guards, commanded by officers of the first families in the kingdom, should remain inactive spectators of the murder of the count; that a body of regular troops should not have the courage to save a high officer of the crown from the sanguinary rage of a mob, was a circumstance, of all the kingdoms on the continent of Europe, the least to be expected in Sweden. But another event soon occurred, which placed the degeneracy of the Swedish nation in a light still more striking.

On the 15th of August, the states assembled at Orebo, for the election of a successor to the king on the throne. There were four candidates. The first was the eldest son of Gustavus IV. When this unfortunate prince, during his exile in Swisserland, was informed of the proclamation for convoking the diet at Orebo, he quitted the place of his residence *incognito*, and took the route of Germany, with the intention of soliciting the support of the courts of Peterburg and Berlin in favour of his eldest son; but he was arrested on his journey by order of the king of Prussia, and sent to Wittenburg. The second competitor was the prince of Holstein, the elder brother of the prince of Augustenburg. The king of Denmark also appeared in the list of candidates: to overcome the aversion of the Swedes, and conciliate their favour, he promised to quit Copenhagen and reside at Stockholm. The fourth competitor was Bernadotte, prince of Ponte Corvo. Though

this was the candidate, as was well enough understood, and as could scarcely be misunderstood, favoured by the emperor of the French; yet he secretly encouraged the king of Denmark to solicit the succession, because he knew that he could never succeed, and that the very idea of being governed by a Danish king was odious to the Swedes, which must operate in some measure in favour of Bernadotte; at the same time that the offer of the Dane to reside at Copenhagen would tend to render him an object of suspicion, and to weaken the loyalty and attachment of his own subjects. The new old king of Sweden, on the day above mentioned, with the advice of his council, proposed to the states, as a successor to the crown, John Bernadotte. A letter from Bonaparte had been received by the king and the states, in which he professed the strongest attachment to the interests of Sweden, and a resolution to defend and promote them. He hoped that, in choosing a successor to the reigning sovereign, the states would select one of similar sentiments; but said he should not interfere in the election. On the 21st of August, Bernadotte was chosen crown-prince of Sweden by the general voice of all the orders composing the states; and an ambassador was sent to Paris, to announce their decision to the emperor and the prince elect. The world began now to combine this event with the murder of count Ferfen, some even with the death of the prince of Augustenburg.

Be the case as it may, the French emperor certainly never thought that his old friend and companion Bernadotte would one day invade the "sacred territory" of his dominion; but events have proved, that lust of power and blind ambition will easily turn the best friends into bitter enemies. Strong suspicions have been entertained, that the death of the prince of Augustenburg, and the murder of count Ferfen, were both the work of the chief ruler of events at that time; and that the poisoned cup and the weapons of the Swedish mob had been successively tempered at St. Cloud. We shall not enter into the minutiae of the arguments for and against these not-ungrounded suspicions, and will only remark that, in the hands of Providence, the tools used by wicked men are often turned against the original purpose for which they were taken up.—But we cannot avoid quoting a kind of prophetic remark of the author of the Annual Register for 1810. After noticing, that the deliberate election of Bernadotte, by the states of Sweden, in preference both to the brother of the late crown-prince, and the eldest son of Gustavus IV. appears to be the most deplorable instance of national degeneracy and degradation to be met with in history; the author concludes, "Yet it may eventually, if the prince of Ponte Corvo has sufficient wisdom, courage, and magnanimity, prove the salvation of Sweden; and even the whole north of Europe. A fair field for surpassing the glory of Bonaparte lies before him."

After his arrival in Sweden, Bernadotte endeavoured in every possible way to ingratiate himself with the nation, and to acquire their confidence. He professed to change his religion, and to adopt the Lutheran tenets of the Swedish church. He appropriated part of his immense private fortune to the purchase of the estates in Pomerania that had been distributed among French officers, which he did on easy terms, and restored them to their true owners; and he accommodated the Swedish government with the loan of more than 300,000l. sterling, at four per cent. interest. These acts of beneficence he had promised before his election; and he kept his word. His installation took place on the first of November, in the presence of the assembled diet; and about the middle of the same month the Swedish government, at the requisition of Bonaparte, declared its adherence to the continental system. War was declared against Great Britain and Ireland; all intercourse with the British dominions was prohibited; and the importation of colonial produce interdicted.

On the 13th of November, the late king of Sweden, the unfortunate Gustavus IV. in the course of a languish-



ing and wandering life, arrived in England, under the title of Count Gottorp. The particular object of this visit has not transpired, though it may easily be divined. He was received with due sympathy, honour, and regard, by the court, the government, and the nation. He avoided all state, declined to accept the offer of pecuniary aid, and lived, for the short time he remained in this country, as a private gentleman. He left London, March 26, 1811, for Yarmouth, and proceeded from thence to Heligoland on-board a British frigate. We understand that he is now living privately in some obscure part of Germany, where he forgets perhaps the loss of a crown in the enjoyment of free and tranquil retirement.—Gustavus Adolphus was an heroic prince in a corrupt age; possessed of all the virtues except prudence; for, without discretion, heroism itself is but a splendid madness; though it seems strange to affirm, that what would be virtue in an heroic, that is a virtuous, age, ceases to be virtue in an age not heroic and not virtuous. We have before observed, that, if all the sovereign princes of Europe had acted like the king of Sweden, the ancient thrones would have been preserved, and public law, the law of nature and nations, still respected. Yet it must be admitted that his dethronement was an act of necessity. Like his renowned predecessor Charles XII. and his father Gustavus III. he was more concerned for personal glory than for the good of his subjects. But the deliberate choice, by all the orders of the state, of Bernadotte, to the exclusion of all the royal family from the succession to the crown, was (though it is at this moment unfashionable to say so) an indelible stain on the Swedish nation; and, above all, on the duke of Sudermania.

So much for the Swedes.—The Danes were in the mean time employed with great activity in fitting out frigates and gun-boats for annoying our trade in the Baltic; and which annoyance they pursued with great courage as well as assiduity, and no small success.—In the beginning of July, Murat, the Neapolitan king of Naples, threatened an invasion of Sicily; but the issue was, that, on the 3d of October, he proclaimed to his soldiers, “that the expedition to Sicily was adjourned.”—Meanwhile the Turks and Russians were carrying on war with an infatuation which would scarcely appear credible to posterity, if there were not similar instances of folly in history, both ancient and modern. Their whole faculties seemed to be absorbed in mutual hostility and rage. They seem never so much as once to have bestowed a serious thought on the tremendous power that hovered over them, ready to pounce on one or both, when they should be sufficiently debilitated by their mad conflicts.

Some farther efforts were made this year to procure peace with America. Instead of Mr. Erskine, who was recalled on account of his being said to have acted contrary to his instructions, Mr. Jackson was sent: but Mr. Jackson was personally disliked by the American people; and his behaviour was not at all conciliating. His unaccommodating firmness was contrasted with the amiable pliancy of Mr. Erskine; and it served the political views of the American ministers to nourish the popular prejudice against him. It was not to be expected that, in such circumstances, he should succeed in his negotiation: from subsequent information it is now known to have been absolutely impossible, upon the terms of his instructions. It could not, however, be foreseen that his mission would terminate, as it did, in the suspension of all official communication between him and the government to which he was deputed.

The British government considered the transaction between the United States and Mr. Erskine as terminated by the formal and public disavowal of the envoy's authority to do what he had done; and Mr. Jackson was directed to take the business up where the disavowal had left it, and to proceed on the terms which were anew prescribed to him. But the president thought proper to call repeatedly on Mr. Jackson for an explanation of the disavowal. This gentleman declared, that the disavowal was occasioned by

Mr. Erskine's deviations from his instructions. He took occasion, at the same time, to contradict a rumour that Mr. Erskine had other instructions besides those that were laid before parliament, and had been communicated. Unfortunately for Mr. Jackson, he discovered that Mr. Erskine had so far adhered to his instructions, as to propose to the acceptance of the American minister the conditions contained in them; and that it was owing only to his subsequent relinquishment of them that all the embarrassments arose. The Americans therefore had no right to express so much surprise at the agreement not being approved in England. But Mr. Jackson, who did not scruple to say so, was told that he had insulted the government, and that no farther communication would be received from him. It was asserted that he had reproached the American government with knowing, at the time of their making the agreement with Mr. Erskine, that he was exceeding his powers. The British minister was exposed to repeated insults; and nothing but the utmost prudence on his part could have averted the most serious personal danger. The official account of these transactions was brought to England by the secretary of the British legation. And Mr. Pinkney, the American resident at London, in consequence of the orders he had received, demanded the recall of Mr. Jackson; which was, without hesitation, acceded to. Marquis Wellesley, the British secretary of state, told the American minister, “that his majesty was always disposed to pay the utmost attention to the wishes and sentiments of states in amity with him, and had therefore been pleased to direct the return of Mr. Jackson to England; but his majesty had not marked with any expression of his displeasure the conduct of Mr. Jackson, whose integrity, zeal, and ability, had long been distinguished in his majesty's service;” and who did not appear, on the present occasion, to have committed any intentional offence against the government of the United States.

Thus ended the third attempt that was made, by the British government, to accommodate those differences with the United States which had arisen out of the peculiar maritime situations of the two countries, and the unfortunate rencontre which, in the year 1807, occurred between two of their ships of war. And it is to be apprehended that, without a departure of one of the two parties from their respective tenets, no permanent adjustment of their views, at least if the war continues, can be expected. The surrender of the right of taking our seamen by force out of American ships is, among other things, expressly refused by the British government; and it has been as peremptorily declared by the Americans, that, without that surrender, no treaty can ever be agreed to. Let us, however, hope better things from the present conferences at Gottenburgh. Let us hope that we may be able to close this article by a declaration of peace, not with America only, but with Europe also.

In such a conflict, however, as that which exists at present between Great Britain and the United States, the party with the smallest capital, and the fewest channels of industry and enterprise, must, for a time at least, be the greatest sufferer: and, if the unseemly policy of restrictions, embargoes, and commercial hostility, be persevered in, a commercial intercourse with America is not so essentially necessary to Great Britain as to render it advisable to purchase it by the sacrifice of any other branch of our national policy. It is certain that, before the general maritime commerce of the United States became circumscribed by the measures adopted by them in 1807, their markets were of very great importance to the British trade, both for the sale of a large proportion of British manufactures, and for the purchase of many necessary articles of supply for our own consumption, which could not then be procured elsewhere. The embargo and the acts which grew out of it rendered it necessary to obtain from other sources the articles in question, and to send through other channels those furnished by our manufactures. Canada has, in consequence, risen to a degree of importance and prosperity



prosperity altogether unexampled. In 1810, upwards of 600 sail of ships arrived at Quebec for timber; and saw-mills every-where sprang up, worked by steam-engines. Our navy is supplied with her timber; our West-India islands with her lumber; large and every-year-increasing quantities of corn, the growth both of the Upper Province and of the states bordering upon the Lakes and the river St. Lawrence, supply the deficiency of what had before been obtained from New York, Philadelphia, and the towns situated within the Virginian Cape. On the other hand, we are now the carriers of our own manufactures to places where they had before been sent under the protection of the American flag, and through the lucrative agency of American commissioners. A very general belief had been sedulously propagated, by those persons who are interested in the trade with the United States, that the failure of their market would inflict a deadly blow on our manufacturing interests. The assertion was specious, and not without some apparent foundation; but, besides that it has been disproved by the event, the contradiction of it is satisfactorily explained by this circumstance, that, of the whole amount of British manufactures at any time sent to the United States, only a small portion was consumed in that country: by far the largest part was re-exported, with the accumulated profits of duties, commission, and freight, accruing to the American treasury, merchant, and ship-owner. These profits have been willingly, but we must think unwisely, relinquished by America, although it is not for us to quarrel with her policy, since they are thrown by it into British hands. We have the best official authority, the returns of our own custom-house and those of the American treasury, for asserting, that the British manufactures, exported to the island of Jamaica alone, exceed, by one million sterling, the greatest amount of annual exportation that was ever sent to the United States. The loss then of our trade to those states, even if it were not counterbalanced by the acquisition of markets in other quarters, would be reduced to the amount of our manufactures actually consumed in them, deducting from that amount always the quantity that must, of necessity, be conveyed there in spite of all restrictions and prohibitions whatsoever. If, then, this loss would not greatly affect the general balance of our trade, still less can it be put in competition with the advantage of maintaining unimpaired those principles of general policy which the dignity and the interests of the empire have suggested.

This year, the star of Great Britain shone on our naval and colonial affairs with even more than its usual benignity. In the Mediterranean, the fortress and isle of St. Maura, the ancient Leucadia, not far from Cephalonia, in the direction of Corfu, and nearly in the mouth of the Gulf of Lepanto, was taken, after a slight resistance, on the 16th of April, by an armament from Zante, under the command of brigadier-general Oswald. In the West Indies, the island of Guadaloupe, the last that remained to the French in that part of the world, surrendered on terms, February the 6th, to the combined military and naval British force, commanded by lieutenant-general sir George Beckwith: the naval part of the expedition was conducted by vice-admiral Alexander Cochrane. This year also the French were deprived, by the English, of the last establishments that remained to them beyond the Cape of Good Hope; viz. the Isle of Bourbon, and the Isle of France, or the Mauritius.

The reduction of the Mauritius, either by blockade or force, had been considered as impracticable. It was accomplished, however, with little resistance, by an army of 8 or 10,000 men commanded by major-general John Abercrombie, second son to the late general sir Ralph Abercrombie; the naval part of the expedition was under admiral Bertie. The whole fleet, transports and ships of war, amounted to 70 sail. All the arrangements for an attack on the isle having been made, the troops effected a landing, under cover of the fire-ships, on the 29th of November. Some skirmishes took place till the 2d of December; but, on the 3d, the enemy

proposed to capitulate. Terms were immediately agreed on; and, on the same day, a capitulation was signed, by which an immense quantity of stores and valuable merchandise, five large frigates, some smaller ships of war, and 28 merchantmen, with two British East Indiamen that had been captured, were surrendered. Our whole loss did not exceed 150 men, in killed and wounded. The French troops were sent to France, not as prisoners of war, but free, and at their own disposal. The inhabitants were to preserve their religion and laws, and all private property was to be respected. General Abercrombie observes, that what had hitherto been considered as the grand obstacle to an attack on the Isle of France, was the difficulty of finding a proper place for the debarkation of a considerable number of troops, the whole coast being surrounded with breakers; and the supposed impossibility of finding anchorage for a fleet of transports. But these difficulties were, at length, surmounted: by the indefatigable labours of commodore Rowley, seconded by other naval officers, engineers, and pilots, a fit place for anchorage was discovered, and an opening in the surf sufficient to admit the passage of three ships abreast. The Isle of France, which was by far the most important, was the last of the possessions that remained to France, in or between the Cape of Good Hope and India. A British garrison was placed in the *Mauritius* (for it had now recovered its ancient name) of 5000 men. The two restored East Indiamen, the *Ceylon* and *Windham*, were sent to England: the first with a cargo from the Isle of Bourbon; the second with one from the Mauritius. They arrived safely in an English port, about the middle of April, 1811; together with the five French frigates, the *Astrea*, the *Bellona*, the *Venus*, the *Minerva*, and the *Victor*.

After the reduction of the Mauritius, three frigates were dispatched on an expedition against Tametava, on the coast of Madagascar, and to go from thence to root out the French from the Isle of Almerante, and some other little nestling-places of theirs. But the great object of the expedition was, to destroy the batteries of Tametava, under cover of which the French vessels were wont to be victualled and repaired when they could not reach the Mauritius, and to trade with these isles, where they procured salt-fish, cocoa-nuts, and tortoise-shells. On the 10th of January, 1811, there did not remain to France any territory in either of the Indies, or ship in the Indian ocean.

The Dutch settlement of Amboyna, with its dependant isles, was surrendered on the 17th of February, to a detachment of an European regiment, with artillery, from Madras, together with 300 seamen from British ships of war. On the night of the 8th of August, a handful of British seamen, not more than 180, led by captain Cole, of the *Caroline* frigate, took Banda, the principal of the Dutch spice-islands. The guns of fort Belgia, at Banda Neira, near which the scaling ladders were placed, fortunately burnt priming, owing to the heavy rains. The Dutch garrison were panic-struck, and fled in all directions, leaving the colonel-commandant and ten men killed. A flag of truce was dispatched to the governor, offering protection of private property, on the surrender of the island; which was refused. However, one shot from fort Belgia, and a threat to storm the town and fort Nassau, both of which lay immediately under its guns, produced an immediate and unconditional surrender; and 700 regular troops and 300 militia grounded their arms. Banda Neira, and its dependencies, exported 900,000l.-worth of spices annually to Batavia. The conquerors found about 400,000l.-worth of spices at the time of the capture.

But the highest degree of bravery and enterprise could not protect the whole of our numerous ships of war from accident and disaster. A part of the squadron, stationed at the Cape of Good Hope, fell, August the 23d, into the hands of the enemy. Four English frigates, the *Sirius*, the *Magicienne*, the *Nereide*, and the *Iphigenia*, determined to attack the harbour of Sud-Est, opposite to the



Isle of Passé, into which three French frigates had taken two of our Indiamen, and in which the French ships of war were stationed. Unfortunately the *Sirius* and *Magicienne* ran aground on shoals with which the pilots were unacquainted; and the crews, after burning them, returned in the *Iphigenia*, which they took in tow to the Isle of Passé. The *Nereide*, having proceeded nearer to the inner harbour, was also stranded, and shattered almost to pieces; yet the captain, Willoughby, though exposed not only to the fire of the three frigates, but also to that of the batteries on-shore, did not surrender before every man on-board was either killed or wounded. The *Iphigenia*, closely blockaded in the Isle of Passé, was afterwards taken, together with the isle itself, by the French frigates. General Decaen, governor of the Mauritius, gave a pompous account of these conquests; and also of the previous actions, not only with the *Nereide*, but, as the governor says, with the *Sirius* and *Magicienne*, with whom there was no action, the whole fire of the three French frigates being directed against the *Nereide*. The circumstance of our ships being stranded on unknown shoals was altogether concealed in the French journals; in which the capture of the frigates, and the Isle of Passé, was blazoned as a great and glorious achievement. It is almost unnecessary to observe, that neither was any notice taken in the French papers of the retreat of a French squadron, on the 20th of July, from the presence of a small British force, under the orders of captain Blackwood, cruising off Toulon. Though we cannot, in this summary narrative, relate all the distinguished acts of skill and bravery performed by our navy, which would require a volume, we cannot refrain from noticing that of captain Blackwood. His squadron consisted of three 74-gun ships, with a frigate and corvette. These two last vessels being in danger of being cut off by a French squadron of six ships of the line, of which one was a three-decker, and four frigates, captain Blackwood, with his three ships drawn up in a line, bore down on the French fleet, and poured a broadside into the foremost ship. The French, intimidated by this bold attack, which they supposed to be a certain proof of the near vicinity of the fleet under admiral Cotton, sheered off for the harbour of Toulon. The courage of British seamen, and the excellence of the tactics of British naval officers, though both have been so often tried, were never more gloriously illustrated.—It may be mentioned among the naval and colonial affairs of Britain, that the English in the course of this year fortified and established a commercial depôt at the small Danish island of Anholt, situated in the Categat, in the same manner as had been done in 1809 at Heligoland, near the mouth of the Elbe, very convenient for the smuggling of goods into the Danish territory, and also into Germany, by the Elbe and the Weser.

The burning-decrees of Bonaparte, and an exclusion from the American market, occasioned much stagnation of trade in many of the manufacturing and some trading towns in England; but new avenues were opened, and our commerce still flourished, all things considered, wonderfully. It is lamentable to see refined nations, instead of co-operating for their own, together with the convenience and comfort of society, using all possible means for oppressing each other's industry:—duties, prohibitions, confiscations, and even punishments, usually inflicted only on criminals. There is something in this procedure, which, after all the calculations of a crafty narrow policy, appears to be odious, immoral, and inhuman. The ruler of France was so sensible of this, that his demi-official newspaper, the *Moniteur*, was employed to weaken the impression naturally made by such barbarous attacks on human industry and genius, by showing that they were common on the part of England. And certainly the *Moniteur* made it out clearly, that, in matters of finance and revenue in France, there was no regulation so severe as to be without multiplied examples in the revenue-laws of England. Divers English laws for

the burning of French manufactures, and smuggled tobacco and tea, are cited; and one, passed in the nineteenth year of the reign of George the Second, making the importation of any article prohibited felony, whether the importation should be clandestine or open.

If we turn from foreign countries to domestic scenes, we shall find some matters which, though beneath the dignity of history, cannot be passed over in a topographical article.

Erostratus set fire to the famous temple of Diana at Ephesus, in order, as it is said, to obtain celebrity. What could have been the reason which induced Mr. Lyon Levy, an eminent Jewish diamond-merchant, to take the trouble to ascend the staircase of the Monument, and to throw himself from the gallery into the street, cannot be exactly ascertained. This singular kind of suicide, however, took place on the 18th of January; and the hapless Israelite was killed on the spot.

We may venture to conclude, however, that a failure in some money-speculation was the cause of this rash act; and we have to record another of the same kind, and by a person of the same religion, which was perpetrated on the 28th of September following.—When the depraved gambler, reduced to desperation by an adverse throw of the dice, visits on himself the injuries which he has inflicted on society; when the seducer or adulterer lifts against his own breast the pistol with which he was wont to defend and augment his crimes; when the fashionable idiot, tired with a life of folly, and shuddering at reflection, seeks in vain for endless rest in the grave;—we are grieved, but not surprised, at the blind audacity of our fellow-creatures. But, when the benevolent of heart, in whose hands wealth has proved a source of comfort to the poor, assistance to the helpless, and support to the deserving, close an honourable and useful career by an act as cowardly as it is criminal, we not only feel grief but astonishment at the weakness and perversity of man. We interrogate the past to discover some traces of iniquity, unmarked by the eye of the world, which might have led more watchful observers to the expectation of such a deed; but when, as in the present case, none appears, we can only attribute the rash action to the absence of that Christian light which reveals in present calamities future blessings, and those Christian principles that sweeten the most bitter cup with the dew of resignation. It is remarkable, that, whilst the wicked amongst Christians, or those who, although born under the dispensation of the gospel, both by their conduct and professions deny its doctrine and contemn its faith, are found to commit suicide, the best characters in other religions have recourse to that dreadful expedient as a means of security for their fame and rest for their souls.—Mr. Abraham Goldsmid, whose self-inflicted death gave birth to the preceding observations, was the second son of a respectable Dutch merchant of the Jewish persuasion, and came over to this country with his father and elder brother. He was born in the year 1757; and, as soon as his mind had acquired sufficient powers, was initiated into the principles of merchandise. Tenderly attached to his brother, he became his partner when both were grown up, and when the death of their father left them in possession of a capital that enabled them to venture into bold speculations. Their indefatigable industry and natural acuteness soon improved their fortune, which was greatly increased by the marriage of the elder Goldsmid with the daughter of Mr. Solomons, of Clapton, who brought him no less a sum than one hundred thousand pounds. From that time their commercial undertakings became more considerable, and in a few years they were ranked among the first men in the moneyed world. Their increasing riches introduced them to the notice of an administration celebrated for the expense which it incurred, and the debt which it entailed on the nation. Whenever a loan was wanted, the Goldsmids mostly supplied a large portion of it; and, as the terms on which it was obtained were always advantageous, their fortune



kept pace with the facilities which they granted to government. In the purchase and sale of bullion, stock, navy-bills, and exchequer-bills, and in negotiating foreign bills of exchange, they also annually disposed of millions; till at last the extent of their speculations, the greatness of their credit, and the liberality of their dispositions, caused them to be placed, without one dissenting voice, at the head of the Stock Exchange. Thus eminently raised in the public opinion, they incessantly laboured, not to obtain the applause of men, which they already possessed, but that of their own hearts. Charity and benevolence marked all their actions, and their munificence was not confined to the deserving objects of their own nation and belief, but to men of every denomination. They supported every public-spirited institution with their subscriptions, and never closed their hearts or their purse to those who wanted assistance, whatever might be their religious principles. The unfortunate end of Mr. Benjamin Goldsmid, his brother, (April 18, 1808,) greatly affected him, and perhaps first awakened the thought of committing suicide in his mind. Mr. Goldsmid was joint contractor with the house of sir Francis Baring for the loan; and, taking the largest probable range, that he had dealt amongst his friends one half of the sum allotted to him, the loss sustained by the remainder, at the rate of 65l. per thousand, was more than any individual fortune could be expected to sustain. Ever since the decline of omnium from par, Mr. Goldsmid's spirits were progressively drooping; but, when it reached five and six per cent. discount, without the probability of recovering, the unfortunate gentleman appeared evidently restless in his disposition and disordered in his mind; and, not finding that cheerful assistance amongst his moneyed friends which he had experienced in happier times, he was unable to bear up against the pressure of his misfortunes. Another circumstance that is said to have pressed heavy upon his mind within the last week was, that he had borrowed of the East-India Company half a million; he had given security for this sum; but the period of redemption had arrived; it was to have been paid off on the 28th; and Mr. Goldsmid, it is reported, felt considerable difficulty in raising the money. It is said that he had at one time determined, if possible, to put an end to all his dealings in the Stock Exchange, and to retire to private life. But this determination could not be executed immediately; and in the mean time heavy demands would come against him. His temper, hitherto so equal, became in consequence irritable. He lost all his fortitude. Despondency took possession of him, and drove him to the commission of that fatal act which terminated his life. Yet he so far mastered his feelings in company, that his friends and family had not the least apprehension of his committing suicide. He came to town on Thursday, September 27, in his carriage, from Morden, accompanied by his brothers, Edward and Isaac, and his son Moses; and several friends who met him did not observe any thing particular in his manner or appearance. He returned to Morden to dinner, and had company. In the evening he joined in a party at cards, after walking a good deal in his grounds, and giving notice to several of the workmen employed in his large premises that he should soon discharge them. On Friday morning he rose at his usual early hour; and about half past seven o'clock was observed to pass over the bridge to the wilderness or rookery, in his grounds; and there he perpetrated the fatal deed. His coachman having, as was usual, enquired what horses were to go to town, he was referred to Mr. G. being told at the time which way he had walked. The coachman went in search of him, and was the first that found him, weltering in his blood, with the pistol grasped in his right hand. Life was not quite extinct; but, before the medical assistance which was sent for arrived, he had expired in the arms of his afflicted family, but wholly unconscious of being with them. He left a widow and several children. He was in his 53d year. An inquisition was held, on Saturday, on the body, at his house at Morden.

The proceedings lasted but a few minutes, when the following verdict was returned: "Died by his own hand, but not in his senses at the time." His remains were interred in the Jews' burial-ground, at Mile-end. The hearse, which conveyed the body, passed over London-bridge, followed by the carriage of the deceased, and thirteen mourning-coaches, in which were the high priest, the elders of the synagogue, and a great part of the family, except his brothers, who were too much affected to attend. On their arrival at the ground, a number of poor persons had collected to witness the interment of a man, who had proved not only their particular benefactor, but had studied to render himself useful through life to all classes of mankind. The mourners were scarcely able to support themselves. Mr. Alison, the brother-in-law of the deceased, fainted over the body twice, and sunk on the grass, lamenting the dismal event. The high priest and elders paid every distinction in their power to the remains of their departed friend; but, in conformity to the Mosaic laws, they withheld from him the customary funeral rites.

It is always with pleasure that we return to the transactions of our Guildhall; but, in the present instance, we are sorry to find that the old question, about presenting the addresses of the livery to the king upon the throne, was again unsuccessfully revived.—A common hall was held on the 9th of January, for the purpose of receiving the report of the lord-mayor and sheriffs on the address voted by the livery to his majesty. The clerk read the report, which stated, that the remembrancer had called at the secretary of state's office with the address, and an intimation that it was intended to present it on the levee-day. Next day he was told, that it must be left at the secretary of state's office, to be presented (as was usual with all addresses, except those from the two universities, and the corporation of London) by him to his majesty. On the levee-day the lord-mayor told the secretary of state, that he then had the address in his pocket, and wished to present it. The secretary said it was best to give it to him, and he would save the lord-mayor all further trouble; to which his lordship replied, that he would not consent to present it to any one except to the king in person; and that it was both the wish of himself and sheriffs to do it in any way which would save his majesty most trouble. The secretary said, the king's pleasure had been already taken and expressed as to the mode of presenting it. Mr. Sheriff Wood then demanded an audience of his majesty; which the secretary replied could not be granted, except upon some especial and expressed reason; for that no audience could be granted on a subject upon which his majesty had already expressed his pleasure. Such was the report, to receive which the hall had been called. In consequence of which, the following resolutions, among others, were then passed:

"Resolved unanimously, That it is the undoubted right of the lord-mayor, aldermen, and livery, of the city of London, to present their petitions to the king sitting upon the throne.

"Resolved unanimously, That it appears, that the secretary of state informed the sheriffs, that the petition of the livery could be received only through his office; that they have been denied, not only the usual access to his majesty by a personal audience, but even the undoubted right of presenting the same when they had actual access to his majesty at the levee, where they attended to present, and did present, a petition from the court of common-council.

"Resolved unanimously, That such denial is not only subversive of the rights of the livery, but a flagrant violation of the right of petitioning, claimed, demanded, and insisted upon, and confirmed to them by the bill of rights.

"Resolved, That whoever advised his majesty not to receive the petition of the livery in the accustomed and established mode, have committed a scandalous breach of their



their duty, violated one of the first principles of the constitution, and abused the confidence of their sovereign.

“Resolved unanimously, That the sheriffs, attended by Mr. Remembrancer, do forthwith wait upon his majesty, and deliver into his majesty's hand, in the name of the lord-mayor, aldermen, and livery, of London, a fair copy of the foregoing resolutions.”

On the 23d of February, Mr. Waithman, at a court of common council, brought forward a motion for a petition to parliament, against granting a pension to lord Wellington for his services; which, after two divisions, was carried by a majority of seven; and a petition to the house of commons agreed to accordingly.—This will appear, at the present moment, to have been a very ungracious proceeding; but it must be observed, that his lordship's talents were not then so fully appreciated by the public in general, nor had his services been of so decided and unambiguous a nature. Another reason was, that, while lord Wellington's pension-bill was passing through the house, the sinecure office of a teller-ship of the exchequer became vacant; and might have been given to lord Wellington, instead of Mr. Yorke, who had certainly never performed any services for which a direct pension to that amount could with decency have been granted. The whole amount of the pension, therefore, might have been saved to the public. This circumstance was also urged in the house of commons by Mr. Banks.

In the early part of this month, a court-martial was held at Portsmouth, on the Hon. Capt. W. Lake, of his majesty's ship *Ulysses*, for having, when commander of his majesty's ship *Recruit*, on the 13th of December, 1807, at six o'clock in the evening, caused a seaman of the name of Robert Jeffery, to be put on-shore on the desert island of Sombbrero, in the West Indies. It appeared, that in the month of November, 1807, Jeffery went into the gunner's cabin, and took out a bottle with some rum in it; that on the day he was sent on-shore he broached a cask of spruce-beer, which had been brewed for the ship's company; and that his general character was that of a skulker. The *Recruit* being off the isle of Sombbrero, captain Lake asked the master what island it was, and if there were not some thieves on-board? To which the master answered, “Yes, there are two.” Captain Lake then desired him to send Jeffery up to him: the man soon came up, and captain Lake said he would not keep such a man in the ship. He then ordered lieutenant Mould to land the man, and return immediately to the ship. As soon as admiral Cochrane heard of the circumstance, he reprimanded captain Lake, and sent him to take the man off the island. Some of the officers of the *Recruit* landed, and explored the island, but they found only a barren spot, covered in the middle with a kind of rough grass-weed. There was no house nor inhabitant on it. It appeared, however, by the American newspapers afterwards received, that the man had been taken off the island by an American ship, and landed in America. Captain Lake, in his defence, admitted that he put the man on-shore, but denied that he intended to put his life in jeopardy, as he thought the island was inhabited; that in landing him he thought he would be more sensible of his want of conduct, and would reform in future. The court agreed that the charge had been proved, and sentenced captain Lake to be—Dismissed from his majesty's service.

In October following, Jeffery arrived in London from America; when the lords of the admiralty gave him his free discharge from the service; and the friends of captain Lake made him a liberal compensation for the hardships he had sustained. In the account of his sufferings and preservation, he says, that at first he did not believe that it was intended to leave him on the island. He saw the ship the morning after he was put on-shore, and expected every moment that a boat would be put off to take him on-board. He suffered at first very much from thirst; and to allay it he drank a quantity of salt water, which only increased it. Fortunately for him, some rain fell on

the third day after he was put on-shore, and the quantities that remained in the cavities of the rocks supplied him while he remained there: he was under the necessity of sucking it out with a quill. He saw great numbers of birds of the gull kind, rather larger than a goose, but he could not catch any of them: he found only one egg, but it was in such a putrid state that he could not eat it. The only food (if it may be called food) that he had was some bark, which he found on the shore. He saw five ships pass by while he was on the island, but at too great a distance for him to be visible to the people on-board; and the American vessel by which he was at last taken off would probably have passed on in the same manner, if the captain had not heaved to from motives of curiosity, to examine the birds which were flying in great numbers about the island.

Early in the morning of the 31st of May, an attempt was made to assassinate his royal highness the duke of Cumberland. The duke had dined at Greenwich, returned to town in the evening, and went to the concert for the benefit of the royal society of musicians. He came home about half past twelve, and went to bed about one. About half past two he received two violent blows and cuts on the head: The first impression upon his mind was, that a bat had got into the room, and was beating about his head; he was soon convinced to the contrary, by receiving a third blow: he jumped out of bed, when he received a number of other blows: from the glimmering light, and the motion of the instrument that inflicted the wounds, reflected from a dull lamp in the fire-place; they appeared like flashes of lightning before his eyes. He made for a door near the head of his bed, leading to a small room, to which the assassin followed him, and cut him across the thighs. His royal highness, not being able to find his alarm-bell, which there is no doubt the villain had concealed, called with a loud voice several times for Neale, his valet in waiting, who came to his assistance, and, together with his royal highness, alarmed the house. The duke desired Neale not to leave him, as he feared there were others in the room. His royal highness, however, shortly afterwards proceeded to the porter's room; and Neale went to awaken Sellis (a Piedmontese), another of the duke's valets. The door of Sellis's room was locked, and Neale called out to him saying, “The duke is murdered.” No answer being given, the door was broke open, and Sellis was found dead on his bed, with his throat cut from ear to ear. It is supposed that Sellis, conscious of his own guilt, (for it is said that he was the assassin,) imagined, when the alarm was given at his door, that they were about to take him into custody, and immediately cut his throat. His blue coat was found folded up on a chair in one corner of the room, the inside of which was stained with blood; and, as he had cut his throat in another part of the room, the blood must have been that of his master. A pair of his slippers was also found in the closet adjoining the duke's chamber, where he had concealed himself until his royal highness was asleep. The assassin seems to have stood rather back towards the head of the bed, which was placed in a small recess, in order to avoid discovery, and was therefore obliged to strike down at the duke's head in a slanting direction; in consequence of which, the curtains which hung from the top impeded the action of the sword; and to this alone can his royal highness's preservation be attributed—several of the tassels of the curtain were cut off. The weapon was a large military sabre of the duke's, and had been lately sharpened. The whole edge appeared hacked and blunted with the force of the blows. His royal highness's shirt was cut through in several places, and a great splinter was shivered from the door through which he made his escape. Adjoining the room itself, and communicating with it, is the little closet where the murderer is thought to have secreted himself. There is in this closet a small press, in which the bolsters were usually put, and in which he hid himself, as the scabbard of the sabre was found there. Sellis had five different rooms to pass



pafs through from the duke's bed-room to his own, and his traces were diftinctly marked by the blood left by his left arm upon the fides of the narrow door; and, when his coat was examined, the left fleeve was found to be covered with blood. His royal highnefs, we understand, received fix diftinct wounds: one upon the forehead, towards the top of the head; another down the cheek, one upon the arm, another by which his little finger was nearly fevered from the hand, one on the front of the body, and another on the thigh, befides feveral punctures in different parts with the point of the fabre. Mr. Home, the furgeon, was immediately fent for, who pronounced that none of them were mortal. Sir H. Halford was alfo called in. The prince of Wales went to the palace early in the morning to vifit his royal brother; and about eight o'clock fet off for Windfor, to communicate to the royal family the intelligence of the attack made upon the duke. A coroner's inqueft was held on the body of Sellis; who, after fitting four hours, to hear evidence, &c. deliberated about an hour, and then returned a verdict of *Felo de fe*.—As Sellis was quite dead when difcovered, and as dead men tell no tales, the plot of this tragedy has never been fully cleared up. Mr. White, jun. the editor of the Independent Whig, a weekly newspaper, was afterwards convicted of a libel on the duke of Cumberland, for what he thought fit to write on the fubject, and is now under fentence of imprifonment in Newgate, befides which he is to pay a fine of 200l. Mr. White certainly foretold a particular circumftance which has fince come to pafs; and almoft every week he continues boldly to afert that Sellis was not his own murderer.

On the 15th of June came on, in the court of King's Bench, the trial of Mr. Cobbett, author of the Weekly Political Register, for a libel.

The Attorney-general opened the cafe on behalf of the crown. In 1808, lord Caftlereagh brought in his bill by which the local militia might be called out for twenty-eight days, though they had only been called out twenty days. When the Cambridgefhire militia was called out, fome difaffected perfons in the Ifle of Ely caufed them to mutiny; and it was found neceffary to call in the military in the neighbourhood. Five of the ringleaders were fentenced to receive 500 lathes, part only of which they received. The *German legion*, who were thus called in, is compofed of a body of men, who, when Hanover was overrun, quitted their country, and, entering into his majesty's fervice, have conducted themfelves with bravery; and it was no difparagement to the British army to fay, that the German legion fhared the glory with them. At the battle of Talavera, the German legion took three ftandards. No troops had ever conducted themfelves in a more quiet, orderly, and fober, manner, and he could not find that any complaint had been made againft them. Mr. Wardle, in a motion in the houfe of commons, had propofed to difband the German legion; againft which Mr. Hufkiffon offered fufficient reafons.—A paragraph foon after appeared in the Courier, which he would read. "The mutiny amongft the local militia, which broke out at Ely, was fortunately fuppreffed on Wednesday, by the arrival of four fquadrons of the German legion cavalry. Five of the ringleaders were tried by a court-martial, and fentenced to receive 500 lathes each, part of which punishment they received on Wednesday, and a part was remitted. A *ftoppage for their knapsacks* was the ground of complaint that excited this *mutinous* fpirit, which occafioned the men to furround their officers, and demand what *they deemed* their arrears." With this paragraph, as a text to a fermon, had Mr. Cobbett headed his paper.—The Attorney-general then read the alleged libel.

"LOCAL MILITIA AND GERMAN LEGION.

"See the motto, Englifh reader! See the motto, and then do pray recollect all that has been faid about the way in which Bonaparte raifes foldiers.—Well done, lord Caftlereagh! This is juft what it was thought your plan would produce. Well faid, Mr. Hufkiffon! It really was

not without reafon that you dwelt with fo much earneftnefs upon the great utility of the foreign troops, whom Mr. Wardle appeared to think of no utility at all. Poor gentleman! he little imagined how a great genius might find ufeful employment for fuch troops. He little imagined, that they might be made the means of compelling Englifhmen to fubmit to that fort of *discipline*, which is fo conducive to the producing in them a difpofition to defend the country, at the risk of their lives. Let Mr. Wardle look at my motto, and then fay, whether the German foldiers are of no ufe.—Five hundred lathes each!—Aye, that is right! Flog them; flog them; flog them! They deferve it, and a great deal more. What! fhall the rafcals dare to *mutiny*, and that too when the *German legion* is fo near at hand! Lafh them, lafh them, lafh them! They deferve it. O yes; they merit a double-tailed cat. Bafe dogs! What, mutiny for the fake of *the price of a knapsack*! Lafh them! flog them! Bafe rafcals! Mutiny for the price of a goat's skin!—And then, upon the appearance of the *German foldiers*, they take a flogging as quietly as fo many trunks of trees!—I do not know what fort of a place Ely is; but I really fhould like to know how the inhabitants looked one another in the face, while this fcene was exhibiting in their town. I fhould like to have been able to fee their faces, and to hear their obfervations to each other at the time. This occurrence at home will, one would hope, teach *the loyal* a little caution in fpeaking of the means which Napoleon employs (or rather, which they fay he employs) in order to get together and to difcipline his confcripts. There is fcarcely any one of thefe loyal perfons, who has not, at various times, cited the *hand-cuffings*, and other means of *force*, faid to be ufed in drawing out the young men of France; there is fcarcely one of the loyal, who has not cited thefe means as a proof, a complete proof, that the people of France *hate Napoleon and his government*, affift with *reluctance* in his wars, and would *fain fee another revolution*. I hope, I fay, that the loyal will, hereafter, be more cautious in drawing fuch conclufions, now that they fee that our *galant defenders* not only require phyfical reftraints in certain cafes, but even a little blood drawn from their backs, and that, too, with the aid and affiftance of *German troops*. Yes; I hope the loyal will be a little more upon their guard in drawing conclufions againft Napoleon's popularity. At any rate, every time they do, in future, burft out in execrations againft the French for fuffering themfelves to be 'chained together and forced, at the point of the bayonet, to do military duty,' I fhall juft re-publish the paffage which I have taken for the motto to the prefent fheet. I have *heard* of fome other pretty little things of the fame fort; but I rather choofe to take my inftance (and a very complete one it is) from a public print notoriously under the fway of the miniftry."

Mr. Cobbett defended himfelf; and the jury returned a verdict of *guilty*.—On the 9th of July following, the Attorney-general prayed judgment againft Mr. Cobbett, which was as follows: "That you, William Cobbett, do pay a fine to the king of 1000l. that you be imprifoned in his majesty's gaol of Newgate for the fpace of two years; that, at the expiration of that time, you enter into a recognizance to keep the peace for feven years, yourfelf in the fum of 3000l. and two fureties in the fum of 1000l. each. And, further, that you be imprifoned till that recognizance be entered into, and that fine paid."

Upon this fevere fentence we fhall juft obferve, that the difcuffions which took place about this time, in the parliament and elfewhere, upon the fubject of flogging in the army, have at length caufed that punifhment to be much lefs frequent; and it feems to be now underftood that a man cannot legally be brought out a fecond time under the fame fentence, to have his wounds torn open afrefh.

About this time, in purfuance of a petition to the houfe of commons from the trustees of the British Mufeum, Mr. Greville's minerals were valued by Drs. Babington



and Wollaston, C. Hatchett, esq. and four other gentlemen, who reported, that the whole collection consisted of about 20,000 specimens; that the series of crystallized rubies, sapphires, emeralds, topazes, rubelites, diamonds, and precious stones in general, as well as the series of the various ores, far surpassed any that were known to them in the different European collections; and that the value of the whole was 13,727*l.* including that of the cabinets, which cost 1600*l.*

On the 23d of July, the earl of Northesk and sir Richard Strachan received, at the Mansion-house, the swords voted to them by the city of London. They were accompanied by earl St. Vincent. Appropriate speeches were made by the chamberlain, and answered by the admirals. After this ceremony, they staid and dined with the lord-mayor.

On the 14th and 15th of August, the metropolis and its neighbourhood were visited by a tremendous thunder-storm. At two o'clock in the afternoon it appeared as if a cloud burst over the metropolis, and discharged in the course of a minute a profusion of water: this was succeeded by a shower of very large hailstones, which broke several windows, and much glass in the gardens south-west of the town. The flashes of lightning succeeded in the most rapid succession; and, from the clouds being so low, the air was so strongly impregnated with sulphur as to become quite offensive. About a mile beyond Kilburn Wells, a brilliant ball of fire passed rapidly along, which had a sublime and awful effect: the Watford coach was coming to town at the time, and the coachman and a female passenger were struck down by the lightning; the hand of the woman was very much hurt, and the ring on her finger was melted; a team which was near the coach had one of the horses killed, and a woman in the cart struck down by the lightning. An aged man, working in the garden of Mr. Sneathe, in the Edgeware-road, was struck blind by the lightning. Three men were struck by the lightning on Bexley Heath, one of whom was killed, and his watch-case melted. At Ditton, a barn filled with corn was burnt by the lightning. At Hampstead and Highgate the claps of thunder resembled the firing of heavy artillery. The tempest extended to most parts of Kent; and two gentlemen were killed near Canterbury while taking shelter under a tree. But the greatest damage was produced by the rain: in many parts, the streets were impassable; and the property of the inhabitants in their kitchens and cellars received much injury. Westminster-hall presented an unusual appearance: the water overflowed the sewer at the back of the Exchequer coffee-house, and soon covered the lower part of the hall. Boys were stationed with brooms to sweep away the inundation; but the stench produced by the overflow made the place uncommonly disagreeable to those who attended on business. The convulsions, which prevailed at intervals, frequently occasioned a momentary suspension of the proceedings in the courts, as the lightning had a peculiar effect on the eye-sight.

On the 4th of September, at six in the morning, a fatal duel was fought on Wimbledon Common. Mr. George Payne, who was killed, was the younger son of the late René Payne, esq. who left him his fortune, to the amount of 14,000*l.* a year. The cause of the fatal duel is truly melancholy. The orphan daughter of the late Dr. Clark, of Newcastle, was the friend of Mrs. Payne, and a visitor in the family. An unfortunate attachment took place between Mr. Payne and Miss Clark, which the irritated feelings of her brother forced him to resent. Every means were tried by Mr. John Payne, the elder brother of the deceased, to avert the catastrophe, but in vain. Mr. George Payne was most exemplary in all his conduct through life, except in this fatal attachment. He was a most liberal and most amiable man. He had whispered to his second, Mr. Abbott, that he should not return Mr. Clark's fire; but the first shot was mortal. Mr. Clark effected his escape.

On the 3d of October, the coffer-dam at the Limehouse

entrance of the West-India docks, erected for the purpose of keeping out the water, while the building of the wing-wall of the lock was going on, gave way. At nearly high water in the afternoon, the workmen employed in excavating the earth for the foundation, having observed the water to burst underneath the piles, were ordered to remove immediately from the dam. The confidence however reposed in its security, from the immense strength of the braces, &c. was such, that hopes were entertained that it would not entirely give way. But in a few minutes the piles (which were upwards of thirty feet long) were forced perpendicularly into the air; the water of course filled the dam, and the effects were immediately felt in the basin, though not to the extent that might have been expected. Fortunately no lives were lost. The situation of the dam was so much exposed, that not less than from thirty to forty vessels passed every tide. Many of these, in passing, (notwithstanding every exertion on the part of the dock-master,) came with a severe craft against the dam; and from this circumstance, and the pressure of about fifteen hundred thousand tons of water, the blowing up of the whole was not to be wondered at.

To our antiquarian readers the following anecdote will not be unacceptable. The workmen employed, in the beginning of November, to repair the church of St. Mary, Aldermanbury, discovered the remains of the notorious chancellor Jefferies. A large flat stone was removed near the communion-table; and in a vault underneath the men found a leaden coffin containing the body. The coffin did not appear to have suffered much decay. It was closed, and a plate remained on it, inscribed with the name of Chancellor Jefferies. His son and daughter are also buried in the same vault. The coffin was not opened; and, after public curiosity had been gratified, it was replaced in the vault, and the stone fastened over it.

We have had, in the course of this article, several occasions to notice the hoaxes played on the credulity of the public. The following instance is most egregious, and ought to be recorded to give future readers an idea of the humour of the present times, and put our cotemporaries under their guard.—On the 26th of November, by nine in the morning, the house of Mrs. T. a lady of fortune, at No 54, Berners-street, was beset by dozens of tradespeople at one time, with their various commodities; and such crowds had collected as to render the street impassable. Waggoners laden with coals from the Paddington-wharfs, upholsterers' goods in cart-loads, organs, pianofortes, linen, jewellery, and every other description of furniture, were lodged as near as possible to the door, by anxious tradespeople attended by a laughing mob. About eleven the lord-mayor arrived in his carriage; but his lordship's stay was short, and he was driven to Marlborough-street police-office. At the office his lordship informed the sitting magistrate, that he had received a note, purporting to have come from Mrs. T. which stated that she had been summoned to appear before him, but that she was confined to her room by sickness, and requested his lordship would do her the favour to call on her. Berners-street at this time was in the greatest confusion, by the multiplicity of tradesfolks, who were returning with their goods, and spectators laughing at them. The officers belonging to Marlborough-street office were immediately ordered out to keep order; but it was impossible for a short time. The first thing witnessed by the officers was six stout men bearing an organ, surrounded by wine-porters with permits, barbers with wigs, mantua-makers with band-boxes, opticians with their various articles of trade; and such was the pressure of tradespeople who had been duped, that at four o'clock all was still in confusion. Every officer that could be mustered was enlisted to disperse the people; and they were placed at the corners of Berners-street, to prevent more persons from advancing towards the house with goods. The street was not cleared till a late hour; as servants of every denomination, wanting places, began to assemble at five o'clock. It turned out that letters had been



been written to the different tradespeople, which stated recommendations from persons of quality. This hoax exceeded by far that in Bedford-street, a few months before; for, besides a coffin, which was brought to Mrs. T.'s house, made to measure, agreeable to letter, five feet six by sixteen inches, there were accoucheurs, tooth-drawers, miniature-painters, and artists of every description.

On the 10th of December, a very melancholy accident happened in Swan-yard, near Drury-lane. At the head of Swan-yard several houses had been pulled down; but the corner-house was left standing, and was occupied by families from the top to the bottom. A large stack of chimneys belonging to this house, having lost its former support and protection, gave way about six o'clock at night, and, falling in upon the roof, brought the whole down through all the floors successively. A man named Anderson, and his wife, in the third floor, were carried down with the ruins, and almost literally crushed to pieces: about half an hour afterwards they were dug out of the ruins, but without any signs of life: their son, a boy about twelve years of age, was carried also down by the ruins, but escaped nearly unhurt. The father and mother were found locked in each other's arms, and in a state completely mangled; the father was an old soldier, who, in the field of battle, had had many a hair-breadth escape. Another man lost his life, whose body was not found till some days after.

The following mysterious and sacrilegious robbery reminds us of Horace's expression: *Omne sacrum rapiente dextra*; "Nothing's too sacred for their plund'ring hands." On Saturday night the 22d, or early on Sunday morning, St. Paul's cathedral was robbed of the whole of the church-service of plate, of considerable value. The ingenuity required to get at the property, proves the depredators to have been complete masters of their profession. The plate carried off consisted of the following articles, all silver gilt: One large embossed chased waiter, with the emblems of the Lord's Supper, weight 128 ounces; the covers of a large folio bible, richly chased, 110 oz. ditto of a prayer-book, 100 oz. a large plain salver, with an angel's head engraved in the centre, 108 oz. a smaller salver, engraved with a glory, 67 oz. two rich chased waiters, with very fine alto-relievo figures, occasionally to use in the centre, 153 oz. two very large chased altar-candlesticks, 330 oz. two smaller candlesticks, 200 oz. two very large rich chased flagons, 260 oz. two smaller flagons, 130 oz. two chased chalices, with hexagon feet, and two salvers for the covers, 112 oz. two small salvers richly chased, 31 oz. and one pierced spoon. Several of these articles had been used on the 21st, at a private ordination, and, when done with, were locked up in the plate-room, immediately over the vestry, in iron chests, which had on them padlocks as well as other locks. There are two doors to the room, an inner and outer one; the former was entirely iron, the other plated, and of uncommon strength. To these principal doors there are several passages leading, all of which have doors always locked, through which persons must pass before they reach the plate-room; and it is only known to a few persons to what apartment they lead. All these doors remained locked; and it was not until Sunday morning, when the plate was wanted for the church-service, that the robbery was discovered. The person who had the plate under his care opened the passage-doors with the keys belonging to them; but the lock of the main-door he could not open until he had procured the master-key. He then found that the chests containing the plate had been broken with an iron crow, or some such instrument, after the padlock had been opened in the usual way. Notice was immediately given at Bow-street; and Mr. Read the magistrate, and Mr. Stafford the clerk, went and inspected the apartments, &c. The police-officers were of opinion, that the robbery was what is called, in the slang language, a *put-up robbery*; or that the quantity and value of the plate, the place where it was kept, and the way to get at it, were all previously

well known, and the crime committed by persons perfectly acquainted with the place. The plate had lately been newly double gilt, which gave it the appearance of gold. The robbers must have passed nine doors or gates before they could get at the property. The master-key was kept in a closet where one of the vergers usually placed his silver staff; but that was not stolen, although it is supposed the key was used to effect the robbery. It appeared, upon further inquiry, that there was a master-key to all the doors leading to the room wherein the plate was deposited; and that it was not unusual for that key to be publicly shown to any person who might express a wish to see or examine it. The officers of police have no doubt but that by means of taking an impression of the key in wax, the robbers gained access thereto.

On the 25th of October, a court of common-council was held, to receive the report of the committee appointed to consider of the propriety of extending the time allowed for the election of aldermen (three days) to eight days, and for increasing the sum necessary for qualifying a person to take that office upon him, from 10,000l. to 30,000l.

On the 31st of the same month, a very full court of common-council met for the purpose of taking into consideration the following motion, of which Mr. Jacks had given notice: "That a bust of our most excellent sovereign George III. be placed in the council-chamber of this city, as a grateful testimony, to descend to the latest posterity, of the high sense this court entertains of the manifold blessings enjoyed under his paternal reign; in which, during the long period of fifty years, continued in the most eventful times, and under the most arduous circumstances ever recorded in history, Britons have the proud satisfaction to feel, that, amid the wreck of surrounding nations, their beloved country has preserved its laws, its religion, its liberties, and its independence, unimpaired." This resolution was, in the issue, changed to an order for a whole-length statue.

Alas! at this moment his majesty was unconscious of the respect that was paid him, and of the veneration in which he was held.—On the 1st of November, the lord-mayor received a communication from Mr. Ryder, secretary of state for the home-department, informing his lordship, that, in consequence of the continuing indisposition of his majesty, no new chief magistrate of the city could be submitted for the royal approbation, and that in consequence his lordship would be expected to continue in the discharge of the duties of that high office until his majesty's pleasure could be taken on the appointment of his successor.

The cause of this notice was, the melancholy recurrence of that dreadful calamity which has repeatedly visited our worthy and revered monarch, and is now considered to be incurable. The present and permanent attack originated in an excess of filial tenderness and parental affection.—The parliament had been prorogued to the 1st of November; on which day a proclamation was issued, as by the king in council, stating it to be his majesty's pleasure that it should be further prorogued. This proclamation, which was not of itself sufficient for the prorogation of parliament, was to be followed, of course, by the usual commission, signed by the king, and read in the house of lords by commissioners appointed for that purpose. But the royal sign-manual was not to be obtained. The parental and tender heart of the king was wrung with inexpressible grief and anguish, at the protracted sufferings which terminated, November the 2d, in the death of his youngest and favourite daughter, the princess Amelia. His whole soul was absorbed in the sufferings and fate of one who had always returned his parental affection with exquisite sensibility and duty. He could not think or speak of any thing else. The powers of his understanding were impaired; and the mental malady, under which he had laboured in 1788, returned. Committees were appointed by both houses of parliament for the examination of physicians, who were examined accordingly, on the state of his majesty's health. In this, and in other necessary points, they



they were guided in their proceedings by the precedent of the year 1788.

After various adjournments, in the vain hope of some favourable turn in the king's malady, at length, on the 20th of December, Mr. Perceval thought fit to move, in the house of commons, three resolutions: the first declarative of the incapacity of the sovereign; the second, on the competency of the two houses of parliament to supply that incapacity; and the third, that the proper mode of doing it would be by bill. Of these, the 1st passed unanimously; the 2d with the single negative of sir Francis Burdett; but on the 3d Mr. Ponsonby moved an amendment, "That an address should be presented to the prince of Wales, praying him to take upon himself the office of regent." On this motion a division took place, in which the amendment was rejected; the votes for it being 157, against it 269; majority for the minister, 112. In the house of lords the same resolutions were proposed, and carried, after a similar amendment had been moved on the third, and rejected; the division being, contents 74, non-contents 100; majority, 26. The assent of the lords to the resolutions having been announced to the commons on the 31st, Mr. Perceval moved five separate propositions as the basis of an intended bill for regulating the office of regent. Of these, the first appointed his royal highness the prince of Wales, regent, under certain restrictions and limitations; by the second he was restrained from conferring the rank of peerage for a time to be determined; by the third, from granting offices in reversion, or places or pensions for a longer term than during the royal pleasure; the fourth made regulations respecting the king's private property; and the fifth related to his household, vesting the management of it in the queen.

The first stand made by the opposition was against the leading proposition, "That the regent should be laid under certain restrictions;" the hon. Mr. Lambie moving an amendment upon it, "That the entire royal power should be conferred upon him, without any restrictions." In this debate the same ground was gone over again as on the occurrence in Mr. Pitt's ministry, with the same result, the amendment being negatived by 224 against 200; but the smallness of the majority indicated that the ministers began to totter in their seats. The views of the two parties at this period are easily understood. The opposition contemplated the establishment of the regency as the conclusion of the present administration, the members of which were avowedly destitute of the prince's confidence; they therefore naturally wished to put into his hands as much power as possible, and resisted every restriction which would operate as a limitation of that influence and authority to which they expected to succeed. The ministry, on the other hand, borne up by the prospect of the king's speedy recovery, an event which his physicians represented as little less than certain, were chiefly intent upon the means for facilitating his resumption of the regal office, and in the mean time retaining a portion of the influence attached to the possession of court-favour. It was therefore their policy on one hand to restrict the regent in the distribution of his graces, and on the other to establish a counterpoise to the authority necessarily conferred upon him, in the household-appointments left at the disposal of the queen.

1811. The early days of January were consumed in long debates as to the mode to be pursued for the issue of money from the exchequer for the use of the army and navy. It was obliged to be decided according to the exigency of the case; but was not effected without a protest of twenty-one lords in the upper house.

The relation of the proceedings in the two houses during the debates on the several clauses of the regency-bill is involved in singular perplexity, resulting from the fluctuations of party and the vacillations of opinion, whence proceeded a variety of amendments and re-amendments, admitted in one house, and rejected in the other, according to the prevalent feelings of the day. In several of the contested points

the ministers were defeated; and at one time it seemed probable that the proposed restrictions would be in great part annulled; but at the actual passing of the bill it appeared that they had recovered their ground, a circumstance that may reasonably be attributed to the flattering reports of the king's progress in amendment, which excited sanguine expectations that a very short period would intervene before he would be in a capacity for resuming the royal authority. It was doubtless recollected, that in 1789 a recovery had taken place while parliament was still occupied with discussions concerning a regency-bill; and a majority looked forward rather to the revival of the present administration than to the temporary transfer of power to a new one. After, therefore, the draught of the proposed bill had undergone some inconsiderable alterations, it was presented to the queen and the prince of Wales for their acceptance, which was signified by those personages by their separate answers addressed to both houses jointly. In that of the prince, a regret was delicately expressed that he had not been allowed the opportunity of manifesting, by his conduct, what were his reverential feelings towards his father and sovereign; and he accepted the office of regent, restricted as it was, "still retaining every opinion expressed by him on a former occasion."

According to the plan adopted by the ministers in conformity to the precedent of 1789, the great seal was affixed to a commission for the opening of parliament, which ceremony took place on January 15th; and on the 17th the regency-bill was committed. Its clauses underwent fresh discussion in its passage through the two houses; and various amendments were proposed by the opposition, but were negatived by the ministerial majorities. The last stand was made upon the duration of the restrictions, which lord Grenville attempted to reduce from twelve months to six, but without success.

Both houses being finally agreed on the clauses of the regency-bill, the great seal was affixed to it by commission; and on February the 5th it received the *royal assent*, if so it may be called. Strong protests were however made to the last by the opposition-members against the fiction employed of signifying the king's assent by the great seal to an act founded on that very incapacity which disabled him from performing any legislative function; and the expedient was condemned in unqualified terms as fraudulent and unconstitutional. On the other side it was not denied that there existed an irregularity in the case; but it was contended that the peculiar circumstance occasioning the suspension of the royal authority, for which no legal provision had been made, rendered some irregularity unavoidable, and that the application of the great seal was the least that could be devised. The speech which on this question appeared to make the greatest impression was that of Mr. Abbott, speaker of the house of commons, who had hitherto taken no part in the debates, and whose station and character gave the stamp of importance and impartiality to his opinion.

Of the clauses in the regency-bill, the most important of those relating to the regent himself are the following:—He is to exercise, in the name of his majesty, the royal authority belonging to the crown. He is to be deemed a person holding an office in trust, and is to conform to the statutes relating to persons under that circumstance: he is restrained from granting peerages or summoning heirs-apparent, or appointing to titles in abeyance; likewise from granting offices in reversion, or for a longer period than during pleasure, except those which by law are granted for life, or during good behaviour, and except pensions to the chancellor, judges, &c. These restrictions to continue till after the 1st of February, 1812, and then to determine, provided parliament shall be then assembled, and have been sitting six weeks previously.

With respect to the queen, the act vests in her the care of his majesty's person during his indisposition, with the sole direction of such portion of his household as shall be deemed requisite for due attendance on his person, and



the maintenance of his royal dignity, and the full power of nominating to all vacancies of officers of his household, with the exception of the lord-chamberlain, the gentlemen and grooms of the bed-chamber, the equerries, the captain of the yeomen of the guards, and the captain of the band of gentlemen pensioners. Her majesty to be assisted by a council, the members of which are named in the bill; and, in case of their death or resignation, she has authority to nominate others from among the members of the privy-council.

Some provisions were made, at the same time, for the eventual case of his majesty's being restored to mental health and power; but this was placed entirely in the hands of the queen and her council, no public body being invested with a power of enquiring into the fact of his recovery. As an examination by both houses of parliament preceded the declaration of the king's incapacity, it may seem incongruous that the very momentous circumstance of restoring him to his high functions should be decided upon by a kind of secret junta; and, although the characters of its members in the present instance precluded all suspicion of collusion, yet it may perhaps be wished that such a precedent had not been established for future times.

The feelings of the regent on his accession to power were soon made known in a way the nation had not been prepared to expect. It was announced that the present ministers were to be continued in office. As the restrictions imposed upon him, though some diminution of his influence, by no means prevented him from effectually supporting an administration of his own choice, it was obvious that some other cause had produced this unexpected determination. And it cannot be doubted that the expected short term of the regency operated as well to disincline the prince to the delicate and somewhat-invidious task of marking out the members of a new ministry, as to render the persons themselves who possessed his confidence unwilling to come forward and take upon them, at such a critical period, the burthen and responsibility of offices which they were likely to hold for so short a time. In a letter which has been made public, as that by which his royal highness apprised Mr. Perceval of his intention not to remove from their stations those whom he found in them as his majesty's official servants, he explicitly declares, "that the irresistible impulse of filial duty and affection to his beloved and afflicted father leads him to dread that any act of the regent might, in the smallest degree, have the effect of interfering with the progress of his sovereign's recovery; and that this consideration alone dictates the decision now communicated to Mr. Perceval."

That his royal highness really regarded his situation as that of the ceremonial rather than the efficient head of the state, was apparently indicated by his declining to open the parliament in person; and delivering by commission, on Feb. 12, a speech in no respect different (except in as far as it touched upon the circumstance of the regency) from that which the ministry would have dictated had the king still been sitting on the throne. The customary addresses, in echo to the speech, were moved in both houses, objected to, commented upon, defended, and then passed *nem. diff.*

An address, however, of a very different complexion, from the lord-mayor, aldermen, and commons, of the city of London, was presented to the regent on the 24th of February. It was, in fact, a strong remonstrance, respecting the insult lately received by the corporation of London, through the ministers of the crown; the grievances and distresses undergone by the country in general; the criminal deception practised by ministers in carrying on the government by the royal authority during his majesty's incapacity; the restrictions laid upon his royal highness by the regency-bill; and the defects of the representation in parliament. The regent's answer was guarded and general: the feelings suggested by his situation were however expressed, where he assured the addressers, that

"the happiest moment of his life would be when by the blessing of Providence he should be called upon to resign the powers now delegated to him, into the hands of his beloved and revered father and sovereign."

Another proof of the manner in which the regent viewed the temporary authority with which he was invested, was afforded in a communication made to the house of commons, Feb. 21, by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, stating, that his royal highness, on being informed that a motion was intended to be made for some provision for the regent's household, declared that he would not, for his own personal magnificence, add another burthen to those already imposed on the nation. The fact was further explained by Mr. Adam, who said, that the regent put into his hands the letter from Mr. Perceval, mentioning the intended provision, accompanying it with written instructions, that, should any proposition for an establishment, or a grant from the privy purse, be made to the house, he should inform that assembly, that his R. H. declined it; and that, during a *temporary regency*, he would not accept that which ought to belong to the crown.

The commercial distresses of the nation began to be so sensibly felt, that the attention of government was necessarily drawn to them; and, on the 1st of March, the Chancellor of the Exchequer moved for a committee to consider the present state of commercial credit. He said that various applications had for some time been made to him on the subject, which at first did not seem to demand serious attention; but that of late they had become so numerous, and were supported by such authorities, that he thought it expedient to bring the matter before the house. He accordingly proposed the appointment of a committee of twenty-one members, which was then nominated, and comprised the individuals most distinguished for commercial knowledge, taken indifferently from both sides of the house. On the 7th of March, the first report of the committee was brought up. It began with stating three points to which they had thought proper to direct their attention:—1st, the extent of the difficulties and embarrassments at present experienced by the trading part of the community; 2dly, the causes to which the same might be ascribed; 3dly, the expediency, with a view to the present and future interests of the merchants and manufacturers, of affording any assistance by parliament. The committee then refer to memorials presented to the treasury-board from the cotton-manufacturers of Glasgow and Paisley, and to the representation of a meeting held in London on the 12th of February; the statements of which they had found, upon the examination of evidence, to be founded on fact; and whence they drew the conclusion, that the principal part of the distress complained of had arisen out of great and extensive speculations, which commenced upon the opening of the South-American markets in the Brasils and elsewhere. (See p. 164, 170.) The committee also found that great distress occurred in a quarter much connected with this trade, viz. among the importers of produce from the foreign West-India islands, and from South America; a great proportion of the returns for the manufactures exported to those parts of the world coming home in sugars and coffee, which not being entitled to sale in the home-market, there were no immediate means of realizing their value. Another cause which might be considered as connected with and aggravating the existing distress, was the extent to which the system of warehousing the goods of foreigners, as well as of native merchants, for exportation, had been carried. Upon the whole, the committee stated, "that the embarrassments at present experienced are of an extensive nature; and that, though many circumstances create a great difference between the present period and that of 1793, yet that the distress is of such a nature as to render parliamentary relief highly expedient and necessary, and likely to be productive of extensive and important benefit; and, having considered the happy effect of the relief afforded in 1793, they recommend similar provisions to be adopted



in the present case; and that the amount of exchequer-bills to be issued should not be less than, nor exceed, 6,000,000*l.* to be repaid by equal payments from three months to three months, the first not commencing till the middle of January next."—After several speakers had given their opinions on the subject, in which some expressed a doubt whether any good at all would result from the proposed measure, and none regarded it as more than a remedy for some temporary distress, the resolution was agreed to without a division; and a bill founded upon it was finally passed. But its effect appears to have been inconsiderable in relieving the distresses for which it was meant as a remedy. The sums applied for were even to a less amount than the provision made; for not many of those in embarrassed circumstances were able to furnish the required security; and the radical cause of the evil was of a nature which such relief was not at all calculated to remove. In fact, the commercial distresses went on increasing during the whole year, displaying themselves by frightful lists of bankrupts in every Gazette, amounting to an aggregate to which no former year exhibits a parallel.

Ever alive and most eager to purify and correct our code of criminal laws, sir Samuel Romilly rose on the 21st of February to renew his exertions relative to the subject, (see p. 174.) and moved for leave to bring in a bill to repeal so much of the act of the 10th and 11th of William III. as takes away the benefit of clergy from persons privately stealing from ships, warehouses, coach-houses, and stables. This motion was agreed to, and also a similar one for a bill to repeal the capital part of the punishment for stealing privately on navigable rivers and canals. These and other bills brought in by sir Samuel Romilly, were all passed in the commons. Three of the bills sent up to the house of lords were thrown out; but the two relating to stealing from bleaching-grounds in Ireland and England, passed without opposition. See the article LARCENY, vol. xii. p. 241, 2.

The severity and disgracefulness of the punishment by flogging in the British army had frequently been a subject of animadversion as well in parliament as from the press; and, though government had shown itself very sore on the subject,—though Cobbett, Hunt, and Drakard, had been prosecuted for the manner in which they had exposed this practice in their addresses to the public,—yet an impression had been made which it was apparently thought unsafe to disregard. When, therefore, the mutiny-bill was passing through the house of commons, on the 11th of March, Mr. Manners Sutton proposed an amendment to give a power to courts-martial to inflict the punishment of imprisonment in the place of corporal punishment, when they should judge proper. The clause was adopted with general concurrence; and this acquisition to the interests of humanity may fairly be numbered among the benefits resulting from public discussion by means of the press, however reluctant persons in power may be to listen to such a monitor.

The closing of the foreign markets against us having caused a vast quantity of sugar to remain on hand, the Chancellor of the Exchequer declared his purpose of making the distillery productive of some relief to the colonial planters; and on May the 9th he obtained leave to bring in a bill for exonerating the distillers of spirits from sugar from the excess of duties to which they were liable, in consequence of the expiration of the act of the 48th of Geo. III. above the duties imposed by the said act. This bill was brought in, and read for the first time, and ordered to be read again on the following day. The minister then gave notice, that on the morrow he should move for a bill to lay a duty on the distillation on grain, in the same manner as if this bill had passed. It was also his intention, in correspondence with these duties, to propose a remission of duty on spirits made at home, in order to put them on a level with foreign spirits; and also, an alteration in the spirit-intercourse between this country

and Ireland, and a countervailing duty on the spirits of the latter country. These proposals he introduced on the 10th, the house being in a committee of ways and means; and, after some conversation on the subject, his resolutions were agreed to. Bills were at length passed by both houses relative to these objects.

A message from the prince-regent on the subject of granting additional relief to Portugal having been sent to parliament, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, on March 18th, the house of commons being in a committee of supply, rose to introduce it to the attention of the members. He said, that, although the proposition which he had brought forward last year on the same subject had incurred some opposition, and though the grant he now meant to submit to the committee amounted to a considerable increase beyond the sum then voted, he conceived, that under the present circumstances it was not likely that his motion should be objected to. He then proceeded to advert to the happy effects which had ensued from the employment of Portuguese troops in British pay, and under British officers and discipline, and to show that it had not relaxed the exertions of the Portuguese government. He dwelt at large on the advantages which had accrued from carrying on the campaign in Portugal; on the frustration of the enemy's confident expectations of expelling the British army from that country; and on the hopes for the future that might be entertained from a vigorous persistence in the same plan; and concluded with moving, "That a sum not exceeding two millions be granted to the prince-regent, to enable him to take a certain number of Portuguese troops into British pay, and to afford such further assistance to the Portuguese nation as the circumstances of the campaign may render necessary."—Mr. Ponsonby opposed the motion; but, after a short debate, it was carried without a division. The same success awaited the motion in the house of lords.

Among the various measures by which, during the progress of the French revolution, the dissemination of principles considered as dangerous to the British constitution had been repressed, one was an act of parliament obliging all printers to put their name and place of abode at the beginning, and, if more than one leaf, at the end, of every paper or book, of whatever kind, that they should print. On failure, they were subjected to a penalty of twenty pounds for every single copy of such paper or book. That this bill was passed in the haste and precipitation of alarm, was manifest from the enormity of the penalty imposed upon defaulters, which might arise to a sum absolutely ruinous even to a considerable property, and that when the crime might be nothing more than mere negligence. The body of printers had submitted in silence to this hardship, thinking themselves secure in the intention of not offending; till some instances had occurred of prosecutions instituted by informers on the most trifling deviations from the provisions of the act, and where traps had been purposely laid for producing those negligencies. A petition was therefore at length agreed upon from the printers, book-sellers, and publishers, of the united kingdom, which was presented by Mr. Henry Martin to the house of commons, on the 4th of March. It stated, in strong but respectful terms, the grievances to which the important business of printing and publishing was exposed by the injunctions of the bill, and prayed for such relief as the house might think expedient. The penalties which might be possibly incurred by a printer, through the carelessness or malice of a servant, were calculated at 100,000*l.* and the remarkable circumstance was mentioned, that, "in every instance of prosecution that had hitherto occurred, the publication was of an innocent, or even useful, nature." The petition was ordered to be laid upon the table; and Mr. Martin gave notice of his intention to move for leave to bring in a bill to explain and amend the act of the 39th of the king relative to this subject.

On the 19th of March, Mr. Martin made his promised motion. In his introductory speech he enumerated all the provisions



provisions of the act, and dwelt upon the evils which might result, and had actually resulted, from it. Some of the cases stated were curious exemplifications of the detestable artifices practised in that trade of informing, which is too much encouraged by the imposition of heavy penalties, of which a moiety goes to the informer. In one instance, persons had gone about to different printers to procure an impression of title-pages to an Elzevir edition of Cicero's Works; many copies of which were defective in that particular; and, as the printer could not consistently put his own name instead of Elzevir's, penalties were incurred to a vast amount. In another, a printer who was employed to print proposals for a military work had, in specifying his place of abode, inadvertently omitted the word London, after that of Paternoster-row; and he was summoned to Guildhall to show cause why he should not be fined 20,000*l.* for this omission. In these and other cases, the magistrates had indeed ventured to dispense with the injunctions of the act; but it would be obviously better to give them a discretionary power by law, or grant to the parties aggrieved a right to appeal to the quarter-sessions. He concluded with moving to bring in the announced bill, in which he was seconded by Lord Folkestone; and, after a few farther observations on the subject, leave was granted.

The committal of the bill was moved for on April 5th, when the attorney-general objected to a clause in it, by which the magistrate was confined to the levying of one penalty only for every publication, however numerous the copies; asserting that, if this were to pass, the end of the law would be entirely defeated, since no man wishing to circulate a mischievous paper would be deterred by such a consideration.—Mr. Martin, in reply, observed, that all the penalties to which printers had been liable before the passing of the act in question would be still in force after this proposed amendment. He recalled to the recollection of the house the circumstance under which the act had been originally framed, which was that of the existence of seditious societies who circulated a vast number of papers, of which it was scarcely possible to discover the printers. Such societies no longer existed; the exigence therefore being at an end, it was reasonable that the bill should be repealed, or at least modified. The attorney-general himself, he believed, had found it necessary to bring in a bill to indemnify some who had violated it; and was it fitting that such a bill should be left standing on the statute-books *in terrorem*? His wish was not to innovate, but to restore the law to what it was before, with the exception of the single penalty of 20*l.* for a whole impression, if without the printer's name.—After some further discussion, the attorney-general, "in order to show how willing he was to go along with his honourable and learned friend as far as he could," proposed that the magistrate should in no case have the power of imposing more than twenty-five penalties of 20*l.* or 50*l.* It was next agreed that the magistrate should be allowed to mitigate the fine to 5*l.* that an appeal to the quarter-sessions might be entered within twenty days from the time of conviction; and that six days notice should be given to the prosecutor.—The bill thus modified was reported, and afterwards passed into a law.

On the 21st of March, lord A. Hamilton introduced a motion in the house of commons, relative to the state of the press in India. He began with saying, that his object was not to find fault with the regulations to which his motion referred, but merely that an opportunity might be afforded of knowing what were the laws in existence upon this subject, and also upon what authority they had been established. It might be urged, that, though there might be no positive law, yet long practice might be sufficient to establish an usage, and give it the efficacy of law. He could not, however, admit that any such usage could justify such regulations of the press as appeared now to exist in India, and had never received the sanction of that house. By those, as he understood, no newspaper could

be published in India which had not previously received the sanction of government, on the penalty of immediate embarkation for Europe. They also contained rules for the guidance of the secretary of the government in revising newspapers. He was to prevent all observations respecting the public revenues and finances of the country—all observations respecting the embarkations on-board ships, of stores or expeditions, and their destination, whether they belonged to the company or to Europe—all statements of the probability of war or peace between the company and the native powers—all observations calculated to convey information to the enemy; and the republication of paragraphs from the European papers which might be likely to excite dissatisfaction or discontent in the company's territories. If the press was to be prevented from publishing any thing on all these heads, he was at a loss to know what subject was left open to it. With respect to the administration of justice at Madras, it was considered as pure; yet the courts appeared to be ashamed of their proceedings, since they would not suffer them to be published. And he then stated, that two grand jurors, and three petty jurymen, had been sent away from Madras for their conduct in these courts. He concluded by moving "for copies of all orders, regulations, rules, and directions, promulgated in India since the year 1797, regarding the restraint of the press at the three presidencies of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, whether acted upon by the government there, or sent out by the court of directors, or the board of controul."

Mr. Dundas rose to state his reasons for opposing the motion of the noble lord, not only in its present form, but in any possible shape in which it could be framed. He must say that a wilder scheme never entered into the imagination of man than that of regulating the Indian press similarly to the English. There could be but two descriptions of persons in India; those who went to that country with the license of the company, and those who lived in its actual service; and there could be no doubt whatever that the company had a right to lay any regulation it pleased on those who chose to live under its power.

Sir J. Newport could not concur in the opinions advanced, that the servants of the company were bound to abide by all the regulations of the company, or else return to England. The company might make regulations highly unjust and oppressive; and it was the duty of that house to take care that they did not.

Lord Folkestone did not call in question the right of the East-India company to make rules for their own territory; but that was no reason why the house should be kept in ignorance what these rules were. It was not only proper, but highly expedient, that we should know to what our fellow-subjects in India were subjected.

Sir Thomas Turton spoke in a strain of severe sarcasm on the principles of our government in India. He fully agreed that so delightful a plant as the liberty of the press could never flourish in the sterile soil of despotism. "Why (said he) should you give Indians the advantage of knowledge? You would only thereby be giving them the means of detecting your own injustice. You have ransacked their country, you have despoiled its people, you have murdered their princes; and of course, for your own protection, you must keep them deluded, deceived, and ignorant. You might as well talk of the liberty of the press in Morocco and Algiers, as under your government in India. According to the right honourable gentleman, the people of India are considered as nothing. If such is your principle, to keep them ignorant is as much your policy, as to keep them enslaved has been your crime."

Mr. Wallace opposed the motion, saying, that the liberty of the press was for the preservation of freedom, and that there was no freedom in India to preserve.

Mr. C. Grant observed, that we did not carry despotism to India, but found it there; and he thought the subject under discussion highly dangerous.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer objected to the production



duction of the papers, because granting them would convey an idea that there was *something wrong* in the conduct of the persons concerned, and in his opinion no case had been adduced to warrant such a supposition.

Lord A. Hamilton thought it unnecessary, after the able manner in which his motion had been supported, to trespass further on the time of the house. If, as an honourable gentleman had said, India *must* at all events be governed as it now is, there was an end of his motion, and all of a similar nature: but he thought, if that country must be governed as it now is, the public had much better not have it at all.—A division took place: for the motion, 18; against it, 53.

Scarcely any subject occupied more of the attention of the house of commons, during this session, than the consideration of the report of the committee, appointed in the preceding session, to examine the state of the bullion and currency of the kingdom. Mr. Horner, on the 6th of May, in a committee of the whole house, introduced the subject in an elaborate and very intelligent speech; the general intent of which was to show that the paper-currency of the country had undergone an actual depreciation, and that the only remedy was to provide for the resumption of cash payments at the bank as speedily as possible.—He was replied to by Mr. Rose, who undertook to maintain three points:—that the bank-paper was not depreciated—that it was not in the power of the bank materially to affect the circulation—and that not a guinea more would be seen, even were the bank-restriction taken off to-morrow.—The debate thus commenced was protracted by daily adjournments till the 9th; and was conducted by many of the ablest speakers on both sides of the house. To give any adequate idea of the arguments employed would require the compass of a pamphlet: in general terms it may be observed, that principle was opposed to principle, and fact to fact; and that the very opposite lights, in which the subject was viewed by men of great ability and information, seemed to prove that the theory of this important part of political economy is yet crude and undetermined. When the question was at length put upon the first resolution moved by Mr. Horner, it was rejected by 151 votes against 75. This division decided the fate of all the other resolutions, except the last, the purport of which was to oblige the bank to recommence its cash-payments at the expiration of two years from the present time, instead of six months from the ratification of a definitive peace, as it now stood. A second division took place upon this resolution, which was negatived by 180 against 45.

On May 13th, the house being in a committee on the same subject, Mr. Vanlittart introduced his rival set of resolutions, supported by the ministry. The debates upon them, which were in great measure a recapitulation of those on the topics of the preceding resolutions, continued by adjournment to the 15th; when, after various amendments had been moved and rejected, they all passed. The resolutions thus sanctioned may be regarded as matter of history, and contain many curious particulars: we shall therefore insert them at length.

I. That the right of establishing and regulating the legal money of this kingdom hath at all times been a royal prerogative, vested in the sovereigns thereof, who have from time to time exercised the same as they have seen fit, in changing such legal money, or altering and varying the value, and enforcing or restraining the circulation thereof, by proclamation, or in concurrence with the estates of the realm by act of parliament; and that such legal money cannot lawfully be defaced, melted down, or exported.

II. That the promissory notes of the governor and company of the bank of England are engagements to pay certain sums of money in the legal coin of this kingdom; and that for more than a century past the said governor and company were at all times ready to discharge such promissory notes in legal coin of the realm, until re-

frained from so doing on the 25th of February, 1797, by his majesty's order in council, confirmed by act of parliament.

III. That the promissory notes of the said company have hitherto been, and are at this time held to be, equivalent to the legal coin of the realm, in all pecuniary transactions to which such coin is legally applicable.

IV. That at various periods, as well before as since the said restriction, the exchanges between Great Britain and several other countries have been unfavourable to Great Britain; and that during such periods, the prices of gold and silver bullion, especially of such gold bullion as could be legally exported, have frequently risen above the mint-price; and the coinage of money at the mint has been either wholly suspended, or greatly diminished in amount; and that such circumstances have usually occurred, when expensive naval and military operations have been carried on abroad, and in times of public danger or alarm, or when large importations of grain from foreign parts have taken place.

V. That such unfavourable exchanges, and rise in the price of bullion, occurred to a greater or less degree, during the wars carried on by king William III. and queen Anne, and also during part of the seven-years war, and of the American war; and during the war and scarcity of grain in 1795 and 1796, when the difficulty increased to such a degree, that, on the 25th of February, 1797, the bank of England was refrained from making payments in cash by his majesty's order in council, confirmed and continued to the present time by divers acts of parliament; and the exchanges became afterwards still more unfavourable, and the price of bullion higher, during the scarcity which prevailed for two years previous to the peace of Amiens.

VI. That during the period of seventy-five years, ending with the 1st of January, 1796, and previous to the aforesaid restriction, whereof, with the exception of some small intervals, accounts are before the house, the price of standard gold in bars has been at or under the mint-price thirty-four years and five months, and above the said mint-price thirty-nine years and seven months; and that the price of foreign gold coin has been at or under 3l. 18s. per ounce thirty-one years and two months, and above the said price forty-two years and ten months; and that, during the same period of seventy-five years, the price of standard silver appears to have been at or under the mint-price, three years and two months only.

VII. That the unfavourable state of the exchanges, and the high price of bullion, do not, in any of the instances above referred to, appear to have been produced by the restriction upon cash-payments at the bank of England, or by any excess in the issue of bank-notes; inasmuch as all the said instances, except the last, occurred previously to any restriction on such cash-payments; and because, so far as appears by such information as has been procured, the price of bullion has frequently been highest, and the exchanges most unfavourable, at periods when the issues of bank-notes have been considerably diminished; and to have been afterwards restored to their ordinary rates, although those issues have been increased.

VIII. That, during the latter part and for some time after the close of the American war, during the years 1781, 1782, and 1783, the exchange with Hamburgh fell from 34. 1. to 31. 5. being about 8 per cent. and the price of foreign gold rose from 3l. 17s. 6d. to 4l. 2s. 3d. per ounce, and the price of dollars from 5s. 4½d. per ounce to 5s. 11½d. and that the bank-notes in circulation were reduced, between March 1782, and December 1782, from 9,160,000l. to 5,995,000l. being a diminution of above one-third, and continued (with occasional variations) at such reduced rates until December 1784; and that the exchange with Hamburgh rose to 34. 6. and the price of gold fell to 3l. 17s. 6d. and dollars to 5s. 1½d. per ounce before the 25th of February, 1787, the amount of bank-notes being then increased to 8,688,000l.



IX. That the amount of bank-notes, in February 1787, was 8,688,000*l.* and, in February 1791, 11,699,000*l.* and that during the same period, the sum of 10,704,000*l.* was coined in gold; and that the exchange with Hamburgh rose about 3 per cent.

X. That, between the 25th of February, 1795, and the 25th of February, 1797, the amount of bank-notes was reduced from 13,539,000*l.* to 8,640,000*l.* during which time the exchange with Hamburgh fell from 36 to 35, being about 3 per cent. and the said amount was increased to 11,855,000*l.* exclusive of 1,542,000*l.* in notes of 1*l.* and 2*l.* each, on the 1st of February, 1798, during which time the exchange rose to 38. 2. being about 9 per cent.

XI. That the average price of wheat per quarter in England, in the year 1793, was 50*s.* 3*d.* in 1799, 67*s.* 5*d.* in 1800, 113*s.* 7*d.* in 1801, 118*s.* 3*d.* and in 1802, 67*s.* 5*d.*

Amount of Bank-notes, of 5 <i>l.</i> and upwards.	Under 5 <i>l.</i>	Total.
In 1793 about 11,527,000 <i>l.</i>	1,810,800 <i>l.</i>	13,337,800 <i>l.</i>
In 1799 12,408,500 <i>l.</i>	1,653,800 <i>l.</i>	14,062,300 <i>l.</i>
In 1800 13,421,900 <i>l.</i>	1,831,800 <i>l.</i>	15,253,700 <i>l.</i>
In 1801 13,454,300 <i>l.</i>	2,715,100 <i>l.</i>	16,169,400 <i>l.</i>
In 1802 13,917,900 <i>l.</i>	3,136,400 <i>l.</i>	17,054,300 <i>l.</i>

That the exchange with Hamburgh was, in January 1793, 38*s.* 2*d.* January 1799, 37*s.* 7*d.* January 1800, 32*s.* January 1801, 29*s.* 8*d.* being in the whole a fall of above 22 per cent. In January 1802, 32*s.* 2*d.* and December 1802, 34*s.* being a rise of about 13 per cent.

XII. That, during all the periods above referred to, previous to the commencement of the war with France in 1793, the principal states of Europe preserved their independence, and the trade and correspondence thereof were carried on conformably to the accustomed law of nations; and that, although from the time of the invasion of Holland by the French in 1795, the trade of Great Britain with the continent was in part circumscribed and interrupted, it was carried on freely with several of the most considerable ports, and commercial correspondence was maintained at all times previous to the summer of 1807.

XIII. That, since the month of November 1806, and especially since the summer of 1807, a system of exclusion has been established against the British trade on the continent of Europe, under the influence and terror of the French power, and enforced with a degree of violence and rigour never before attempted; whereby all trade and correspondence between Britain and the continent of Europe has (with some occasional exceptions, chiefly in Sweden, and in certain parts of Spain and Portugal) been hazardous, precarious, and expensive, the trade being loaded with excessive freights to foreign shipping, and other unusual charges; and that the trade of Britain with the United States of America has also been uncertain and interrupted; and that, in addition to these circumstances, which have greatly affected the course of payments between this country and other nations, the naval and military expenditure of the united kingdom in foreign parts has, for three years past, been very great; and the price of grain, owing to a deficiency in the crops, higher than at any time, whereof the accounts appear before parliament, except during the scarcity of 1800 and 1801; and that large quantities thereof have been imported.

XIV. That the amount of currency necessary for carrying on the transactions of the country must bear a proportion to the extent of its trade, and its public revenue and expenditure; and that the annual amount of the exports and imports of Great Britain, on an average of three years, ending 5th January, 1797, was 51,199,141*l.* official value; the average amount of revenue paid into the exchequer, including the profit on the lottery, 19,495,945*l.* and the average amount of the total expenditure of Great Britain, 42,855,111*l.* and that the average amount of bank-notes in circulation (all of which were for 5*l.* or upwards) was about 11,262,000*l.* and that 57,274,617*l.* had been coined in gold during his majesty's reign, of which a large sum was then in circulation.— That the annual amount of the exports and imports of

Great Britain, on an average of three years, ending 5th of January, 1810, was 70,554,719*l.* the average amount of duties paid into the exchequer, 59,960,525*l.* and the average amount of the total expenditure of Great Britain 77,802,674*l.* and that the amount of bank-notes, above 5*l.* on an average of the years 1808 and 1809, was 13,763,000*l.* and of notes under 5*l.* about 4,500,000*l.* and that the amount of gold coin in circulation was greatly diminished.

XV. That the situation of this kingdom, in respect of its political and commercial relations with foreign countries, as above stated, is sufficient, without any change in the internal value of its currency, to account for the unfavourable state of the foreign exchanges, and for the high price of bullion.

XVI. That it is highly important that the restriction on the payments in cash of the bank of England should be removed whenever the political and commercial relations of the country shall render it compatible with the public interest. But,

XVII. That, under the circumstances affecting the political and commercial relations of this kingdom with foreign countries, it would be highly inexpedient and dangerous, now to fix a definite period for the removal of the restriction of cash-payments at the bank of England, prior to the conclusion of a definitive treaty of peace.

In May, the public was surprised with the introduction into parliament of a subject of peculiar delicacy—a proposed alteration in the act of toleration. It may be proper to mention, that for several years past the established clergy had manifested considerable uneasiness at the rapid growth of methodism. The readiness with which licenses for preaching could be obtained, according to the usual interpretation of the toleration-act, had favoured the multiplication of preachers of a kind whose manners and language peculiarly fitted them for acquiring influence over the inferior ranks; and by their means numerous congregations had been formed, to the great diminution of the frequenters of parish-churches. How far the measure now to be mentioned was the result of any clerical consultation is not known; but it is affirmed that the noble mover was warmly encouraged to proceed in his design by letters from persons of eminence in the church.

Lord Sidmouth, a nobleman once at the head of his majesty's councils, on the 9th of May moved in the house of lords for leave to bring in a bill for amending and explaining the acts of William and Mary, and of the 17th of Geo. III. as far as they applied to protestant dissenting ministers. These acts, he said, within the last thirty or forty years had received a novel interpretation. At most of the quarter-sessions where the oaths were taken, and the declarations made, requisite for enabling a person to officiate in a chapel or meeting-house, it was now understood, that any person, however ignorant or profligate, was at liberty to put in his claim to do those acts before the justices, and to demand a certificate which authorised him to preach, and exempted him from the militia, and from many civil burdens to which his fellow-subjects were liable. In some counties, however, the magistrates admitted no person to qualify, unless he showed that he was in holy orders, or pretended holy orders, and the preacher or teacher of a congregation. This he conceived was according to the real meaning of the toleration-act; and it was in this way that the bill he intended to introduce would explain that act. He should propose, that, in order to entitle any person to a qualification as a preacher, he should have the recommendation of at least six reputable householders of the congregation to which he belonged, and that he should actually have a congregation willing to listen to his instructions. With regard to preachers who were not stationary, but itinerant, he would propose that they should be required to bring a testimonial from six householders, stating them to be of sober life and character, together with the belief of such attestors that they were qualified to perform the function of preachers.



When the nature and provisions of this proposed bill became publicly known, an alarm was excited among all those upon whom it was calculated to operate, which produced a more general and zealous association between the several classes of separatists for opposing it, than had perhaps ever been witnessed on a similar occasion. As they could not conceive it to be the real object of the noble mover to add more respectability to the dissenting ministry, they regarded the measure as intended, in effect, to contract the limits of toleration, and subject the licensing of preachers to the control of magistrates; and, although those sects which might be reckoned inferior in rank of life and education would be chiefly affected by the restrictions proposed, yet the others considered it as a matter of common interest to all who dissented from the established church. When, therefore, on the 21st of May, the bill was to be read a second time, such a deluge of petitions was poured in against it, that the mover was left alone in its support. In his speech on the occasion, he began with complaining of the misunderstanding that prevailed respecting the bill, and endeavoured to show that it was intended to effect no real change in the toleration-laws, but merely to give uniformity to the two acts on which the system of toleration was founded. He then went through the several provisions of the bill, and replied to the objections that had been made against them. He asserted his adherence to the principle of the toleration-laws, which, he said, never meant that any person should assume to himself the privilege of a preacher or teacher without some testimonials to his qualification for such an important office.—He was however obliged to yield, and the bill was thrown out.

Soon after this question was put to rest, an interchange of militia between Great Britain and Ireland was proposed.—The purpose of this measure, which has since been extensively carried into effect, is obvious; though, probably from motives of delicacy, it was not touched upon in the debates. By its means a military force will be quartered in Ireland, not influenced by the local interests or prejudices of that country, which will be at hand to assist in the suppression of the disturbances that may arise from the disappointed hopes of the majority of the people respecting their civil or religious privileges. The policy of the measure will not be questioned, provided that of subjecting them to such disappointments be established.

The Irish catholics having agreed upon a petition to be laid before parliament, the same was presented by Mr. Grattan to the house of commons on the 20th of May. On the 31st, that gentleman moved that the petition should be read. This having been done, he rose, and endeavoured to show that there was nothing in the Roman-catholic religion itself which encouraged disaffection; but that the manner in which the catholics had been treated by the government was the cause of their discontents. If, said he, the government should keep any class of its subjects in a state of imperfect privilege, it must occasionally find that class in a state of imperfect allegiance. He assumed as undeniable maxims, that no government has a right to make partial laws; or arbitrary laws, that is, without reason; that no government has a right to establish an inquisition into the thoughts of men, or to punish a man purely on account of his religion. The existing penal laws did not in fact impose any religious creed. An atheist or a deist might take the oath or subscribe the declaration; it was sufficient that he was not a catholic. Did the house then mean to say that an atheist was fitter to make laws than a catholic? No—the catholics had been excluded only on account of a supposed connection with a foreign power; but did such a connection now exist? The government itself had made a league with two catholic sovereigns, and this country more than any other was now exerting itself to support catholic establishments. His inference from these observations was, that the Irish catholics had the same right as any other dissenting sub-

jects to any privileges possessed by any other body of subjects. Many (said Mr. G.) there are who imagine that the Irish catholic is indifferent to the fate of these demands. That, however, is not the question: you have no right to ask them whether they desire, but ask yourselves whether it is justice to grant. The catholics have wisely refrained from stating their grievances in this petition; but what they are excluded from is not a bauble. They are excluded from a seat in this house, from offices in the bank, from the situation of sheriff, from the best places at the bar, from the highest stations in the army, from any participation in the state: they are deprived of their civil liberties, they are galled by tithes, they are oppressed by their landlords; and what remedy do you offer them? Nothing.—Mr. Grattan then noticed the objection drawn from the coronation-oath; and argued that the laws against the catholics were by no means fundamental, but provisional, and capable of repeal as circumstances might occur. He next entered into the consideration of the security that would be derived from the repeal, by uniting the force of the country against the dangers that now threaten it. “I tell you (said he), that, unless you tolerate each other, you must tolerate a conqueror. I know you are a very wise people; but on this one point, the very point of your vitality, you are stupid, stripped by bigotry of every sense; and you must certainly at one stroke be crushed.” He then made an animated reference to the late services of the Irish catholic soldiers in Spain; and concluded a long speech with moving that the petition be referred to a committee of the whole house.

Dr. Duigenan made a speech of great severity against the principles and claims of the catholics. He stated the oath of fidelity to the pope and the church of Rome taken by every catholic bishop and priest; and affirmed that intolerance was an essential part of their religion. He maintained that it was still a doctrine of their belief that oaths taken to heretics were absolutely null and void. He spoke with contempt of the origin of the present petition; and concluded with reading long extracts from the pamphlets and speeches of the catholics, in order to show that they were hostile to the established government of this country.

Mr. Bankes apprehended that the catholics would still be going on with demands; and thought that the present petition was urged on by ambitious men, rather than by the voice of the country.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer, among other remarks, said, that Mr. Grattan's language in speaking of tithes as an oppression, showed the spirit of the motion and of the catholics. Would not this be preliminary to the abolition of tithes, and of the establishment? He loved Christian toleration, not the toleration of philosophy; and thought, that the more great sects were brought to an equality of honours, the nearer they were to a struggle.

The call for the question at length becoming very general, Mr. Grattan rose again to make a few observations on what had fallen from the Chancellor of the Exchequer. After having replied to him in a strain of animated asperity, he concluded; “I have thought proper to say thus much, because I see the right honourable gentleman has assumed a higher tone in bigotry than he has even done in politics; and I must further tell this intolerant minister, that it is not in the declamatory tone of any earthly power to defraud my country of her civil rights, or prevent her from obtaining her religious liberty.”—On the division, there were for the motion, 83; against it, 146.

This subject was introduced in the house of lords on the 18th lord Donoughmore; and, after undergoing a severe discussion, the motion was lost by a majority of 121 against 62.—See LIBERTY OF CONSCIENCE, vol. xii.

Soon after the prince-regent had assumed the power of his high office, the duke of York was restored to the post of commander in chief. The clouds were dispersed, personal and individual follies forgotten, and the excellent state of discipline which the duke had introduced in the army.



army spoke so highly in his favour, that, as it was expected, his royal brother appointed him again to the place which he had spontaneously resigned. It was natural however to expect, that those members in the house of commons who had been most strenuous in bringing charges against him should feel the act of his restoration as an exertion of power conveying an imputation on their conduct on that occasion, as well as a stigma on the house itself. Under this impression, lord Milton, one of the members for Yorkshire, rose on the 6th of June, to submit a motion to the house upon that subject. He observed, that, although the duke had been absolved from the charge of personal corruption and connivance, his royal highness certainly appeared to have been guilty of that criminal negligence, bordering upon connivance, which rendered it impossible for him to continue in office; and there was every reason to believe that the house was then prepared to have come to a resolution which must have led to the resignation of his royal highness; but it was avoided by stating, that, as the duke had resigned, it was unnecessary to proceed any further. This might fairly be understood as an admission, that, if he had not resigned, the house would have found it necessary to adopt some other course of proceeding; and it was upon this ground that he founded the motion which he was about to submit to their consideration. His object was to maintain the dignity of that house, which appeared to him not slightly questioned in the re-appointment of his royal highness. It might be objected, that, though the house did at that period wish for his resignation, it did not intend to exclude him from all chance of return to office, and that the punishment he had already undergone might be considered as fully commensurate to his offence; but, in the first place, deprivation ought not of itself to be considered as a punishment; and, if it were, that did not affect the fact, that his royal highness had been declared by that house unfit for the office in question. Now, if he were unfit for the situation of commander-in-chief in the year 1809, it did not appear how he could be fit for it in 1817. He had voted in the inquiry upon evidence. If nothing had been done to subvert that evidence, with what face did the present ministers come to justify their recommendation of the duke of York to an office the administration of which he had disgraced? Would it be contended that the opinion of that house had not caused his royal highness's resignation? If that had not, he should be glad to know what had; and, if it had caused it, let the ministers state upon what ground they had advised his restoration. He should not enter into the question, whether persons of his exalted rank were the fittest to be selected for offices of such great importance and high responsibility; but he challenged the ministers to say whether they would have recommended a person in all respects circumstanced as the duke of York was, his rank excepted. After various other observations to the same purpose, the noble lord concluded with moving the following resolution: "That, upon a deliberate consideration of the recent circumstances under which his royal highness the duke of York retired from the command of the army in March 1809, it appears to this house, that it has been highly improper and indecorous in the advisers of the prince-regent to have recommended to his royal highness the re-appointment of the duke of York to the office of commander-in-chief."

The Chancellor of the Exchequer began his speech by acknowledging in the fullest manner the responsibility of his majesty's servants for recommending the measure in question. He then stated the circumstances which led to the re-appointment. The gallant officer, he said, who had lately filled the situation of commander-in-chief, after spending near half a century in the service of his country, had contracted an illness which obliged him to apply for liberty to retire from the arduous duties of his office; and there was not the slightest hesitation in his mind and that of his colleagues whom they should recommend for supplying the vacancy. The eminent services rendered to the army

by the duke of York, which were universally acknowledged, left them no choice. But the noble lord argued as if his majesty's ministers could not constitutionally recommend his royal highness to that appointment. Was, however, the resolution of the house on which he laid so much stress meant to be eternal in its operation? The right honourable member then went into an examination of the resolutions; and he contended, that the amendment proposed by Mr. Bathurst, which had been alluded to, was not intended to have had the effect of removing the duke from office. [To this Mr. B. assented.] He denied that the words of the resolution, stating that the duke's resignation rendered further proceedings unnecessary, implied that it was only on that account unnecessary to vote a censure upon him, but merely that it was unnecessary to go farther into the consideration of the minutes of evidence. The house therefore had pledged itself to nothing subsequent; and there was not the most distant idea of lessening its dignity by the advice given to the prince-regent for the nomination of the duke of York as the fittest person to fill the vacancy which had occurred.

It would be of little use to give even a sketch of the arguments used in the remainder of this debate; which, in general, were only recapitulations of those above stated. The supporters of the motion chiefly insisted upon the sense of the house respecting his royal highness's conduct, as implied by the resolution entered on its journals, consequent upon his resignation. They also laboured to show, that there was a mass of undeniable evidence sufficient to establish such instances of misconduct as ought to have precluded his restoration to office. The opposers, on the other hand, dwelt upon the services he had rendered by improving the military discipline, upon the general wish of the army for his re-appointment, upon the severity of the punishment he had undergone, and upon the methods that had been employed to inflame the public mind to his prejudice. Among the latter speakers were some who had originally taken part against him; and who did not hesitate to avow, either that they had formerly been carried away with the current of public opinion, or that they considered the case as it now stood in a different point of view. It is unnecessary here to inquire into the various processes of conviction that might have operated on different minds. That a great change had been wrought in the sentiments of this assembly was apparent on the division; when the votes for the motion were 47, against it 296; majority 249.

On the 24th of June, a conversation (for there was no debate) took place in the house of lords on a topic rather general than political. It related to the doctrine of private assassination, and was introduced in the following manner: Earl Grey rose to call the attention of their lordships to an article which had appeared in a French newspaper, published in London, in which the horrible doctrine of assassination was preached up and recommended in the most direct terms. The article he alluded to purported to be an extract from some English publication; and sorry was he to suppose that there was any Englishman who had a heart to conceive, or a hand to write, such a sentence as that which he referred to. As this paper might have some circulation upon the continent, and might perhaps excite the idea that such infamous doctrines might receive countenance in this country, he felt it necessary that his majesty's government should have an opportunity of expressing their abhorrence of such sentiments; for, were they to circulate in such a shape on the continent without being expressly disclaimed by their lordships and by the government, they might produce effects most injurious to the character, and disastrous to the interests, of the country. The article in question purported to be an extract from a work which recommended an Anti-Corsican Association. Here the noble earl read an extract from it, the substance of which was, "that, however reprehensible might be the general principle of cutting off your enemy by private means, yet it was pos-  
sible.



able to prove, by solid reasons and from weighty example, that in certain cases assassination was justifiable. When a man had been guilty of the most atrocious acts both of individual and national injustice—when he had, in fact, declared himself bound by no law, and utterly beyond its reach—and such was the situation of Bonaparte—before what tribunal could he be brought, and how was vengeance to be inflicted upon him?" The paper then went on, said the noble lord, to enumerate various acts of atrocity ascribed to the ruler of France, such as the murder of the duke d'Enghien, of Pichegru, of captain Wright, Palm, and others; treating the subject in such a way, that no one could understand it but as a direct incitement to assassination. In this view he was most anxious that their lordships and his majesty's government should solemnly and publicly enter their protest against any such doctrines, that it might go abroad to the world, and counteract any false impressions that such doctrines might produce.

Marquis Wellesley observed, that he could truly say, in point of fact, that the paper in question was never seen by him till it was communicated to him by the noble lord opposite. He fully coincided with that noble lord in thinking that such doctrines could not be too strongly reprobated, and that the atrocity of the sentiments could only be equalled by their absurdity. A doctrine more horrid in all respects he could not conceive; and he disavowed it, not only as a minister of the crown, but as a man of common sense. This writer had said, that the ruler of France had placed himself above all law; but he (lord Wellesley) trusted that there still remained a tribunal before which he might be compelled to answer even in this world. The nations of Europe might still call him to account, not by the poniard or the filletto, but (here the marquis seemed to speak prophetically) *by calling forth all their energies, and punishing him in the field for all those acts of perfidious aggression by which his name would ever be rendered odious.* It was lamentable that such a production should have issued from a British press; and he was sorry it had escaped his attention, though for only a few days. He would only add, that there was no way in which government could take an opportunity of reprobating such doctrine that they would not adopt, and if possible bring the author of it to condign punishment.

The duke of Norfolk suggested the propriety of laying the paper on the table; and thought it ought to be burnt by the common hangman. Lord Wellesley objected, that these measures would be giving it greater consequence and circulation; repeated his general agreement with the opinions of the noble earl; and thus the conversation terminated.

The same subject was taken up on the 1st of July, in the house of commons, by Mr. Whitbread, who dwelt at large on the horrid nature and effects of the doctrine of assassination, and the danger of disseminating such doctrines, which might be directed against any potentates whose measures were obnoxious to another country; and he invited the ministers in that house to a disavowal of them.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer declared, that, if such a disavowal was thought necessary, he should most readily make it, though it did not strike him that it was requisite to impress upon the house the conviction that under no possible circumstances could such doctrines be justified. He concluded with declaring the most decided and unqualified disavowal of the horrible doctrines alluded to.

Speculations of individuals, and the publication of their sentiments in newspapers, were they generally brought up to the minister in order to avow or disavow them, would certainly give a great deal of useless trouble to the houses of parliament. However, it was perhaps proper in this case that the English character should be shown in its real worth, in order that private insinuations might not stain, with their noxious breath, the true sense of a whole nation.

The decision of the Berkeley-peerae cause took place

in the house of lords, in a committee of privileges, on the 28th of June. On that day, the lord-chancellor entered at considerable length into the evidence adduced respecting the claims, and concluded by moving a resolution stating, "That the claimant, William Fitzharding Berkeley, had *not* made good his claims to the titles, honours, and dignities, of Earl of Berkeley, Viscount Dursley, &c." This resolution was agreed to *nem. diff.*—By the decision of the committee, the four eldest sons of the late Earl and present Countess of Berkeley are declared illegitimate; and the title devolves upon the fifth son, who is the first born in wedlock, viz. Thomas Morton Fitzharding, now Earl of Berkeley, born Oct. 19, 1796.

Notwithstanding the confident assertions of ministers and their friends, that no depreciation had taken place in bank-notes, the fact of a diminution of their relative value to bullion became at length so glaring that it could no longer be denied, and its effects excited a general alarm. The trade of purchasing guineas for notes at a rate greatly beyond the nominal value of the former was openly carried on, to an extent which threatened the abstraction of all the gold coin in the kingdom; and the difference of a money and a paper price was beginning to take place in commodities. In some parts of Ireland gold had been demanded by landlords from their tenants, instead of bank-notes; and the fact of a similar demand made by a nobleman in England, (lord King,) became a matter of general conversation. The evils which in so many countries had arisen from a depreciated paper-currency seemed to be impending over the British empire, and no remedy was as yet suggested by persons in power. In this emergency, earl Stanhope, a person who, perhaps more than any other individual of his rank, has habitually acted according to his own ideas, and has formed plans for the public, independent of party-considerations, took up the subject, and on June 27th presented to the house of lords a bill of which he had given previous notice. After some introductory observations, relative to the importance and the urgency of the matter, he said, that what he meant to propose was to make it illegal for any body to give more money for guineas, half-guineas, &c. than the value they lawfully bear; and to make it also illegal to take bank of England notes at a value less than they purported to be equal to. He disavowed all private or personal views in the plan he had formed; and concluded with moving the first reading of his bill.

The earl of Liverpool, whilst he did justice to the intentions of the noble mover, was not willing to admit the necessity of his bill, as he thought that the example of the nobleman alluded to, as demanding gold from his tenants, was not likely to be imitated. Although, therefore, he would not oppose the bill in its present stage, he should move for its postponement at the second reading.

On the 2d of July, the order of the day standing for the second reading of the bill, lord Stanhope rose, and expressed his satisfaction at seeing several lords who were not present at the former debate. He then observed, that it had been said that his bill was not necessary, because nobody would follow the example of his noble friend (lord King) in requiring gold from his tenants; but he rather chose to give people the protection of the law than leave them to the understanding or caprice of other men. He then read extracts from several letters he had received; whence it appeared, that the difference between notes and specie was beginning to be acted upon in various parts; and he inferred that the necessity might very speedily arise, and that too when parliament would not be sitting. He gave a caution to the secretary of state not to be too late with the remedy; and concluded with moving the second reading of the bill.

Lord King rose to vindicate himself with respect to the transaction which had been so much alluded to. He had thought it a duty he owed to himself to make a stand now in defence of his property from that constantly progressive depreciation of the currency which proceeded from



from the conduct of the bank of England, and their being protected by the legislature from the necessity of paying their notes in specie. It had been asked, in a manner rather insulting, Had any body ventured to refuse bank-notes in payment? He was the person who did think it advisable in certain cases to refuse bank-notes. The cases in which he had refused them at their nominal value were old contracts, and no other; and, in so doing, he would contend that he had not only acted legally (for of that there was no question), but according to every principle of equity. Could any thing be more equitable than that the payment should be made in currency of the same value as that in which the bargain was made? He had endeavoured to ascertain what that value was, from comparing the price of gold at the time that the contract was made with its present price; and his demand had been, either to be paid in lawful money of the realm, according to the contract, or in Portugal coin of the same weight, or in such a sum in notes as would purchase a quantity of gold equal in weight to that of the legal money covenanted; and he could not see where was the hardship or oppression in this. All productions of the land had risen in price according to the depreciation of the currency; and therefore the tenants on old contracts could not complain of suffering any loss from the demand. To explain the nature of the subject, he would suppose, that what was usually reserved for rent was about a fourth of the produce of the land; and that, for the sake of convenience, this proportion was estimated at a money-price. Was it equitable that the tenant should take advantage of all rises of price, in consequence of depreciation of the currency, upon all the shares he has; and that the landlord should have upon his share neither the rise of price nor the legal money he bargained for? It had been asserted that bank-notes were not depreciated, but that gold had risen in value; but this was not the case; for, if a man had at present any article of real value to exchange against gold, he might procure a greater quantity of gold for it than at any former period; and his lordship instanced in the price of wheat, of which twelve or fourteen quarters would now buy as much gold as eighteen quarters would in the period from 1786 to 1797; so that the farmer had been gaining considerably by the change of times. He declared, that, regardless of the clamour that had been excited against him, he was determined to persevere in what he conceived to be not only legal, but just and equitable.

It now appeared, that, contrary to their declared intention, the ministry were determined to adopt the bill.—The earl of Liverpool said, that, though he had at first thought it would be better to leave the law as it stood, yet, when he attended to the principle of the measure under consideration, and particularly to the principles of those who opposed it, he began to feel that the remedy should be upheld; and concluded with saying, that, considering the consequences which might follow from the example which had been pointed out, it would be unwise to reject the bill.

Earl Stanhope said, that, when he came down to the house, he imagined that ministers would throw out the bill; but the arguments of his noble friends (the opposition) had made converts of them, a task he could not accomplish; he had therefore to return them thanks, right and left. This humorous fallacy occasioned much laughter; and on the division there appeared, for the second reading 36, against it 12.

On the 4th of July, when the order stood for going into a committee on the bill, the marquis of Lansdowne rose to state the necessity of considering more fully the principles on which the bill proceeded. He advanced some further objections against making bank-notes a legal tender; and intimated, that, if the bill were committed, he should at least propose a clause to restrict the bank from issuing a greater number of notes than those in circulation at the time of its passing.

Earl Stanhope said that his noble friend misconceived

his bill if he thought there was any thing in it to make bank-note payments compulsory. There was a difference between the case of offering a man a bank-note, telling him, You shall take it, whether you will or not; and that of one choosing to take it, and at the same time setting his own value upon it. He desired it might be considered, that the public creditor was paid in bank-notes, to whom they were a legal tender; and where was the justice of putting the landlord upon a different footing? He expressed himself with much force respecting the oppression of compelling payments in gold when it was not to be had without great loss, and adduced other instances of this practice. He concluded with saying that he should take no further charge of his bill, but sit in the committee from curiosity. "I am (said he) its father, but I will not undertake to be its nurse."

After some other lords had delivered their sentiments, the house went into a committee on the bill. The earl of Liverpool proposed a clause for taking from landlords the summary mode of distress, if payment should be offered in bank-notes; which was agreed to.

The report of the committee was received on the 5th, when the earl of Liverpool proposed some verbal amendments, which were agreed to. A clause was also added, that the bill should not extend to Ireland; as in that country, previously to the restriction on bank-payments, a difference had existed between money and paper prices.

On the 8th of July the bill passed the house of lords; and on the 9th, was introduced to the house of commons by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, who stated, as the sole reason for its being adopted by the ministry, that the conduct of the noble lord, who had required gold in payment from his tenants, which they had thought not likely to be imitated, was openly defended, and even praised as a patriotic act by many persons of great authority, who claimed for themselves and their friends a monopoly of all the talents and public virtues in the nation. It was therefore become a measure of necessity; for, though he did not mean to question the motives which had induced that noble lord to act as he did, yet he could not conceive of any question which, if extended beyond the sphere of the concerns of the individual, could be attended with more peril to the country at large.—The bill passed on the 19th of July; and, on the 24th, the longest session of any parliament was terminated by a speech from the lord-chancellor.

At the commencement of the year 1811, every British eye was anxiously turned to the capital of Portugal, in the vicinity of which lay two powerful armies, one awaiting every opportunity to attack, the other equally vigilant to defend. The allied army under lord Wellington occupied the strong lines of Torres Vedras, in front of which, at Cartaxo, the commander posted himself with the main body of British. Marshal Massena had his headquarters at Santarem, whilst his troops spread along the Tagus and the Zezere, and his foragers sought subsistence as far as the borders of the Upper Beira.

The two great armies were in very different circumstances with respect to the facility of procuring necessary supplies. Lord Wellington had the capital behind him, with its noble port accessible to all the vessels that the power and wealth of Great Britain could freight; and how burdensome soever the maintenance, not only of the troops, but of a great portion of the population of the country, might be to the finances of England, the commander might rest assured that all his wants would be provided for. Massena, on the other hand, was lying in an already-devastated country, remote from all sources of regular supply, and obliged to the precarious aid of convoys for the transmission of such scanty collections of provision as could be made in the surrounding districts. These difficulties at length compelled the French general, however reluctantly, to abandon his boasted purpose of planting his eagles on the walls of Lisbon, and driving the English into the sea; and, on the night of March the 5th, he quitted his strong



camp at Santarem, leaving behind and destroying some of his heavy artillery and ammunition. The first movements of the French indicated an intention of collecting a force at Thomar; for which reason lord Wellington caused a detachment of marshal Beresford's corps to march in that direction, while he himself put the main army in motion to follow the enemy. The allied army pressed closely upon the retiring French, bringing them to action whenever an opportunity offered, and occasionally killing and taking prisoners a considerable number, though the skill of their commander preserved them from any great disaster. The result of lord Wellington's operations was to save Coimbra and Upper Beira from the enemy's ravages, and oblige them to take the road towards the Spanish frontier, with no other provisions excepting what they acquired by plunder on the spot.—We have read, p. 227, 8. Massena's accusations against lord Wellington on the score of plunder and devastation during his retreat through this very fine country. No one will suppose the French to have been more humane under similar circumstances: "Their conduct, (says lord Wellington,) throughout this retreat, has been marked by a barbarity seldom equalled, and never surpassed. Even in the town of Torres Novas, Thomar, and Pernes, in which the head-quarters of some of the corps had been for four months, and in which the inhabitants had been induced by promises of good treatment to remain, they were plundered, and many of their houses destroyed on the night the enemy withdrew from their position; and they have since burnt every town and village through which they have passed." They facilitated their retreat by abandoning their wounded, and destroying their baggage, and whatever else could encumber their march.

They were successively driven from various strong positions, but retained one upon the Guarda till the close of March, when, upon the advance of the allied main army, they retired, without firing a shot, to Sabugal on the Coa, upon the banks of which river, which flows near and parallel to the Spanish border, they took a new position. Here they were attacked on April 3d, by the allied troops in several divisions, when a sharp action ensued, which terminated in the retreat of the French with a loss of about two hundred killed and three hundred prisoners. They entered Spain on the following day, and continued their retreat across the Agueda. Lord Wellington then made arrangements for the blockade of Almeida; and, active operations in this quarter being for a time suspended, he went to the corps under marshal Beresford in Spanish Estremadura. That general, after the capture of Badajos and Campo Mayor by the French, had advanced upon the enemy with an united force of British and Portuguese, and, on the 26th of March, had routed a French corps with considerable loss, and recovered Campo Mayor. He then threw bridges across the Guadiana, and pushed his advanced posts to the vicinity of Olivença, where the French attacked them on the 7th of April, but were repulsed. He afterwards took a position whence he could invest both Olivença and Badajos, in both which places the enemy had left small garrisons on their retreat from the province. Olivença surrendered at discretion on the 15th; and the marshal met general Wellington at Elvas on the 21st. On the following day they reconnoitred Badajos, the blockade of which was established; and lord Wellington then returned to his army.

During the absence of the general, the enemy had made two unsuccessful attacks upon the British picquets upon the Azava; and had collected a very large force at Ciudad Rodrigo, at which place were Massena's head-quarters. On the 2d of May, the whole French army, consisting of the 2d, 6th, and 8th, corps, with all the cavalry that could be collected in the provinces of Castile and Leon, recrossed the Agueda at Ciudad Rodrigo, and advanced towards the allied army posted between the Coa and the Agueda. The inferiority of the latter in cavalry did not permit lord Wellington to oppose their march, which

they continued the next day towards the river of Duas Casas, along which, and at the sources of the Azava, the allied army was ranged, with their light division at Gallegos and Espeja. This division, with the British cavalry, as the enemy advanced, fell back upon Fuentes d'Honor on the Duas Casas, where three other divisions were posted, while others were guarding the passages of the river, and a corps was left to maintain the blockade of Almeida. On the afternoon of the 3d, the French with a large force attacked the village of Fuentes d'Honor, which was very gallantly defended by some battalions of light infantry. The enemy, by repeated efforts, obtained momentary possession of part of the village, from which they were driven by a charge of the 71st regiment. Other reinforcements were sent by lord Wellington, and the contest, after continuing till night, left the allies in possession of the whole post.—On the morning of the 6th, all the different French corps, with the cavalry, united in a vigorous attempt to cross the Duas Casas, and gain possession of Fuentes d'Honor. After a variety of partial actions and movements, which cannot be made intelligible without a plan, but which seem to have been directed with great judgment by the British general, and executed with equal courage and discipline by his troops, and which in different quarters lasted till evening, the assailants were finally repulsed at all points. During the course of the night of the 7th, they began retiring from the Duas Casas; and on the 8th the whole French army was collected in the woods between Espeja, Gallegos, and Fuentes d'Honor, their superiority in cavalry having protected them from pursuit. They broke up on the following night; and at length crossed the Agueda, leaving Almeida to its fate. The whole loss of the British and their allies on these two days was not much short of 1700 in killed, wounded, and missing, of all descriptions. That of the French, though not known, must have been very considerable; besides a number of prisoners taken from them, they left 400 dead in the village of Fuentes d'Honor, against which their principal efforts were directed.

The garrison of Almeida, commanded by general Brenier, evacuated that place on the night of the 10th, after having blown up a part of the works. They marched in great silence, dexterously winding their way through the several bodies of blockaders, so as not to be perceived till they had nearly reached the bridge over the Agueda. They were, however, pursued as soon as the alarm was given, and incurred a considerable loss; but the remainder were protected by a French division which had not yet quitted the bank of that river. The whole of the French army then continued its retreat towards the river Tormes.

In the mean time, the investment of Badajos by the allied army under marshal Beresford, which had been interrupted by a sudden inundation of the Guadiana, and the consequent destruction of the bridge over that river, was renewed, and the bridge was restored. The preparations for a siege being completed, approaches were made, which produced two sorties from the fort of St. Christoval, attended with considerable loss to the garrison. On the 12th of May, marshal Beresford, being informed that marshal Soult, having quitted Seville, and formed a junction with general Latour-Maubourg, was advancing with the intention of attacking the allied army, and relieving Badajos, suspended his operations against the town, sent his heavy artillery and stores to Elvas, and concentrated his force to withstand the threatened assault. He marched forward to meet the enemy, and took a position near the village of Albuera; and on the morning of the 16th, having been joined by a Spanish force under general Blake, he drew up his troops in two lines parallel to the river of Albuera, on the ridge of ground gradually ascending from it, and covering the roads to Badajos and Valverde. The French did not long delay their attack; in which their principal object seemed to be, to push across the river beyond the right of the allies, and endeavour to turn their

bank,



flank, whilst another attack was directed against the river and bridge of Albuera. The Spanish troops, who were posted on the heights to the right of the line, after a gallant resistance, were driven from their ground, which was occupied by the enemy; and, as this situation enabled them to keep up a raking fire upon the whole position of the allies, it became necessary to attempt its recovery. A vigorous effort for this purpose was made by the division of general Stewart, headed by himself. At the beginning of the action a heavy storm of rain had come on, which, with the smoke from the firing, rendered it impossible to discern any thing distinctly; which circumstance, with the nature of the ground, had greatly favoured the enemy in forming his columns and making his attack. The right brigade of general Stewart's division was bravely charging the enemy with the bayonet, when a body of Polish horse-lancers, coming unperceived, turned their flank, and charged them in the rear. A dreadful carnage ensued, by which some regiments were nearly annihilated; for these ferocious assailants never spare a wounded or fallen foe. One regiment alone escaped the fury of this attack, and kept its ground till the arrival of the third brigade under major-general Houghton, who fell pierced with wounds as he was cheering his men to advance. At length the enemy was forced to abandon the post he had gained, and was driven back with great slaughter across the Albuera. After his main attack was defeated, he relaxed in that of the village, where he had never been able to make any impression; and, the battle having continued without cessation from nine till two, the remainder of the day was spent in cannonading and skirmishing. Soult retired to the ground he had previously occupied; and on the night of the 17th he commenced his retreat towards Seville by the road he had come, leaving Badajos to its own defence, and relinquishing many of his wounded to the care of the victors.

That the action of Albuera was really a victory on the part of the allies, the result rendered undeniable; for the French general was completely foiled in his attempt, and was obliged to quit the purpose he had in view. It was, however, so dearly purchased, that in a sober estimate the day will perhaps rather be reckoned among the disastrous than the triumphant ones; for the loss incurred seems to have exerted a serious influence on subsequent transactions. That of the British alone exceeded 4000 in killed, wounded, and missing—of the latter, however, a great part afterwards found means to rejoin their regiments. The Portuguese loss amounted to about 350; that of the Spaniards is not ascertained, but must have been heavy. It is computed by marshal Beresford that the loss of the French of every kind could scarcely fall short of 9000.

The bravery of the British troops on this memorable occasion drew the warmest encomiums from the commander, and furnished ample matter for the eulogies of the parliamentary orators when thanks were moved in both houses for their services. It was indeed scarcely ever more conspicuous; and the misfortune with which the day commenced only contributed to afford more striking though melancholy examples of firmness and discipline. Thus, the 37th regiment, which particularly suffered from the charge of the Polish lancers, is represented as lying in ranks as they were drawn up, with every wound in the front. The behaviour of the allies also obtained high commendation.

Lord Wellington, who, with his characteristic zeal and activity, had repaired to Elvas immediately after the final retreat of the French from the neighbourhood of Almeida, but was unable to arrive in time for the battle, directed that Badajos should be closely invested upon the right of the Guadiana on the 25th of May, and afterwards renewed the operations of the siege. It had been his lordship's expectation that the reduction of Badajos could be effected before the second week in June, at which time he supposed that the reinforcements for the enemy's southern

army detached from Castile would join marshal Soult. On the 10th, however, he received an intercepted dispatch from Soult to Marmont, announcing the intention of collecting the whole French force in Estremadura; and he had reason to believe that Drouet's corps from Toledo would have joined the southern army by the 10th. Accounts also reached him which left no doubt of the destination of the army of Portugal (as it was called) for the southward. It became therefore absolutely necessary to raise the siege of Badajos, which lord Wellington put in execution, still, however, maintaining a blockade. The advance of the enemy finally determined him to quit the blockade, and to withdraw the allied troops across the Guadiana, which was effected on the 17th, without loss of any kind. On the 20th the French began to appear in the neighbourhood of Badajos, with an army composed of all their force from Castile, except the garrison of Madrid, and all that of Andalusia, with the exception of what was necessary to maintain their position before Cadiz, and the body commanded by Sebastiani in the eastern part of that kingdom. They occupied both banks of the Guadiana, from Badajos to Merida, and made various movements towards the frontiers of Portugal with the intention of cutting off detachments of the allies, but with inconsiderable success. On the 14th of July, the army of Portugal broke up from its position on the Guadiana, and moved towards Truxillo, whence they afterwards marched further northwards. Lord Wellington, who had been strongly posted on the Portuguese border in Alentejo, now moved his army to cantonments in the Lower Beira.

If we now turn our eyes toward Spain, we shall find that Catalonia was the theatre of the most active military operations at the commencement of the present year.

The Spanish cause sustained an afflictive loss by the death of the marquis de la Romana, on Jan. 23d, at Cartaxo, whither he had gone with two divisions of his army to partake the glory and danger of lord Wellington. This illustrious general had distinguished himself on various occasions by the spirited defence of his country against its unprincipled invaders, and had been particularly successful in clearing Estremadura of the enemy. A short time before his death, on hearing of the new movements of the French in that province, he had ordered the troops, with which he had joined the allied army, to march to the frontier. Lord Wellington, in communicating the melancholy intelligence, says, that "in him the Spanish army has lost its brightest ornament; his country their most upright patriot; and the world, the most strenuous defender of the cause in which we are engaged." His remains were temporarily deposited at Lisbon, with distinguished funeral honours. General Castanos succeeded to his command.

On the 10th of March, Gen. Ballasteros surprised Gen. Remon at Palma, dispersed his detachment, and made 500 prisoners. The strong fortress of Figueras in Catalonia was surprised by the Spaniards on the night of April 10th; and the following circumstances are related as attending its capture. Some Catalonian soldiers, whom the French had forced into their service, sent intelligence to colonel Roviras, who was at the head of a body of 1500 Catalonian patriots, that, if he would approach the place at night, they would open one of the sally-ports to his troops. Accordingly, on the night above-mentioned, colonel Roviras with his party entered the citadel of Figueras; and, after putting to death the only sentry who discovered them, so completely surprised the whole garrison in their beds, that not a shot was fired, or the smallest opposition made; and the whole garrison, consisting of 1000 men and 40 officers, were taken prisoners.—The active partisan, Espoz de Mina, obtained a distinguished success on the 25th of May, by his attack, in the province of Alvala in Biscay, upon a strong escort of French infantry and dragoons, who were conducting 1100 Spanish prisoners. All of these were liberated, and a great booty was made by the patriots, with



an inconsiderable loss on their part, while not more than half the French are said to have got back to Vittoria.

On the other hand, marshal Suchet, having succeeded in reducing Tortosa, (see p. 226.) appeared with an army of forty thousand men about the end of April before Tarragona, and began forthwith a course of operations which showed that to preserve the lives of his troops was with him altogether a subordinate consideration. In one of his obstinate efforts to forward his progress by assault, he is said to have lost, in taking the small fort of Olivo, not fewer than 2000 men. This affair occurred on the 29th of May; and two days afterward the Spanish general in chief, withdrawing from the town, ordered marshal Contreras to take the command of the garrison. Nothing could exceed the zeal of the troops and of the inhabitants; a zeal which supplied in a great measure the very deficient fortifications of the place, and required to be frequently restrained, but never stimulated. The defence became more obstinate as the attack advanced; for, being open by sea, it was able to receive succours of every kind by means of the English fleet on the coast. The capture, on June the 16th, of an outwork, gave access to the interior of the lower town. A breaching-battery was immediately transported to the spot by the besiegers; and on the 21st a furious assault was made, by which, after much bloodshed on both sides, the lower town, and its dependencies, were put into the power of the French. Although scarcely any hopes now remained of an effectual resistance, the garrison in the body of the place still held out, and determined to await a final assault. This was given on the afternoon of the 28th, when, a practicable breach being made, the assailants rushed in, and almost immediately carried the town. Suchet, in his former dispatch, had expressed his apprehension of being obliged "to set a terrible example, and intimidate for ever Catalonia and Spain by the destruction of a whole city." He too well verified his menace; and thus he relates the catastrophe: "The fury of the soldiers was increased by the resistance of the garrison, who every moment expected its deliverance, and thought to secure success by a general sortie. The fifth assault, still more vigorous than the preceding, made yesterday in broad day on the fortification, has occasioned a horrible massacre, with but little loss on our side. The terrible example which I foresaw with regret in my last report to your highness, has taken place, and will for a long time be recollected in Spain. Four thousand men have been killed in the city; from 10 to 12,000 men endeavoured to make their escape over the walls into the country: 1000 have been sabred or drowned; nearly 10,000, of whom 500 are officers, have been made prisoners, and are setting off for France; nearly 1000 wounded are in the hospitals of the city, where their lives were respected in the midst of the carnage. Three field-marshal and the governor are among the prisoners: many others among the slain."

When marshal Contreras was brought prisoner to the French camp, Suchet affected to charge him in public with the whole bloodshed consequent on the assault; while, in private, he spared no efforts to detach him from the cause of the Spanish patriots, and enlist him in that of his master. The marshal continuing inflexible, he was carried a close prisoner into France; and, although Bonaparte professed to issue an order to treat him with the attention due to his rank, he was immured in the castle of Bouillon with eleven state-prisoners who had long lost all hope of release, notwithstanding the expiration of their prescribed term of confinement. With one of these, however, he found means to escape, and wandered throughout France, sometimes on foot, sometimes on horseback, during eight months. Part of this period was the time immediately subsequent to the disasters of Bonaparte in Russia. The marshal arrived in England in June 1813; and has since published a Relation of the Siege, from which the above account is partly collected.—Thus fell Tarragona, leaving to the French arms a triumph that perhaps more than compensated all their failures in other quarters. It put the

whole coast of Catalonia in their possession, and enabled them to carry on their designs against the provinces to the southward, without apprehension of any considerable force remaining behind to check their movements.

In the north of Spain, in the mean time, the Guerillas were increasing in numbers, activity, and boldness. General Bonnet had found it expedient to evacuate the Asturias; and a part of his troops withdrew to Leon. On June 19th the French quitted Astorga; and marshal Bessieres marched in that month from Valladolid with all the force he could collect, and bent his course towards Benavente. An alarm given to Valladolid, however, caused him to return to that city. A detail of all the actions which took place in these quarters, and the circumstances and results of which are represented in the most opposite colours by the different parties, would rather embarrass the reader, than afford him a clear conception of the general state of affairs. On the whole, the occupation of the principal towns and districts in these parts appears to have remained nearly the same as at the commencement of the campaign. The Spanish army of Galicia, which had pushed forward to Astorga, was finally compelled to retire to its own province, and rendered unable to act offensively.

General Blak, who, after separating from lord Wellington's army, had made an unsuccessful attempt, on June 30th, to obtain possession of Niebla, embarked his forces for Cadiz, which city he immediately left, and sailed to join the Spanish army under general Freyre, in Granada. This united force, which had taken a position in the beginning of August, near Baza, was attacked by different divisions of the French army under marshal Soult; and in a series of actions on the 9th and 10th was entirely broken up with great loss, and obliged to return to Murcia.

We now return to lord Wellington's army, which, from its cantonments in Beira, had proceeded to march upon the Spanish frontier, between the Coa and the Agueda, and had threatened Ciudad Rodrigo. This movement produced the effect of collecting the enemy's troops from the army of the north, where an attack had been commenced on the Spaniards in Galicia, and also from that which on the frontiers of Navarre had been employed in operations against Mina, together with a great part of the army called of Portugal—all composing a force of not less than 60,000 men. The French appeared in the plain near Ciudad Rodrigo on Sept. 23d, and on the 25th they made a general attack on the posts of the allied army on the heights of Bodon, which, after much sharp skirmishing, terminated in an orderly retreat of the allies to a more favourable position. Another, but inferior, action took place on the 27th at Aldea de Ponte. The result of the whole was, that lord Wellington found it necessary to quit the blockade of Ciudad Rodrigo, which place was of course relieved. The French army, having effected this purpose, withdrew, each part returning to its former quarters. A singular accident happened on Oct. 15th to general Regnaud, the governor of Ciudad Rodrigo. An ambuscade having been placed near the town for the purpose of intercepting the cattle of the garrison, the governor, who had crossed the Agueda with some staff-officers and an escort, was surrounded by the Spanish cavalry, and taken prisoner.

The French army of Portugal was cantoned, in the middle of October, beyond Placentia, in the northern part of Estremadura, having one division at that town, with their advanced posts on the Allagon. A division of the 5th corps, with a considerable body of cavalry under general Girard, having crossed the Guadiana at Merida, and advanced upon Caceres, lord Wellington directed general Hill to move into Estremadura. That officer in consequence broke up from Portalegre on the 23d of October, and marched to Albuquerque; and thence, on the 26th, to Mal Partida. Girard fell back on his approach, and was retreating to Merida, when Hill, having made a forced march, surprised him on the 28th at Arroyo del Molino;



Moliao; by which Girard, after a gallant defence, was finally obliged to take to the mountains, suffering a loss which, in slain and prisoners, amounted to at least 2000 men, a general and colonel of cavalry being among the captives: all the enemy's artillery, baggage, commissariat, and some magazines of corn, also fell into the hands of the victors; and no action during the campaign was attended with more brilliant success.

It was, however, on the side of Valencia that the most important events in the autumnal campaign took place.—Suchet entered that province about the middle of September, and on the 27th took possession of the town of Murviedro, against the fortrefs of which, trenches were opened on the 29th. Three attempts which he made to take it by escalade were repulsed with loss. The siege of this fort of Murviedro, or Saguntum, proved a difficult task, on account of the nature of the ground, and the vigour of the defenders. A breach, supposed practicable, was made on the 18th of October, when a column of the besiegers advanced to the assault, and some of the most adventurous mounted to the top; but they were soon driven down, and their fate determined the rest to retreat after having undergone a considerable loss. As, however, it was evident that the place could not hold out much longer without being succoured, Gen. Blake, being joined by Gen. Mahi, the commander in Murcia, and all the other disposable force in that quarter, advanced on the 24th to the heights of Puch, overlooking the besieging army. He was there attacked on the 25th by Suchet; and, after a well-contested battle, in which the French commander himself asserts that he found he had far different troops to contend with than those of Valencia, was defeated with a loss, according to the French statement, of 6500 men in killed, wounded, and prisoners: of the latter alone more than 4600 are numbered. On the following day the fortrefs of Murviedro capitulated, and a garrison of nearly 2600 remained prisoners of war.

While the French forces on the eastern side of Spain were thus occupied in carrying one important point, according to their usual and successful mode of operation, their antagonists were not wanting in efforts to improve the opportunity in other parts. The enterprising and indefatigable Mina, who had passed the summer in the vicissitudes of good and bad fortune, having received advice that Gen. Duran and the Empecinado were moving from Castile upon Calatayud in Arragon, determined to co-operate with them; and, entering that province from Navarre, he marched to Ayerve with the intention of laying siege to that place. Its danger being known at Saragossa, a body of 1100 infantry and 60 cavalry was sent from thence for its relief. These came to action with Mina; and though, when obliged to retreat, they defended themselves with great resolution, formed into a hollow square, the result was their total destruction; 640 were made prisoners, and the rest put to the sword, three only (according to Mina's relation) making their escape to Saragossa. The Empecinado and Duran, in the mean time, succeeded in obtaining possession of Calatayud on the 4th of October, and making prisoners of the French garrison. They had some other petty successes; but a want of cordial agreement, as it is said, prevented any important results from their irruption into Arragon.

The southern point of Andalusia was the scene of some active service.—To oppose the Spanish general Ballasteros, who was at the head of some troops in the vicinity of San Roque, Gen. Godinot assembled a force of 10,000 men, which obliged Ballasteros to retreat. An application was then made to major-general Cooke, the English commander in Cadiz, to land a British force at Tariffa for the purpose of co-operating with the Spaniards. This request was complied with; and, on the 18th of October, a body of 1000 British infantry, with a detachment of artillery, under the command of Col. Skerret, landed and proceeded to Tariffa. The French army, unable to effect its design against Tariffa, marched back, followed by Bal-

lasteros, who, on the 22d, obtained a considerable advantage over the rear-guard. The French afterwards receiving a reinforcement from Granada, Ballasteros was again forced to retire. The design against Tariffa was then resumed by the French, who had a powerful force in that quarter under Gen. Victor; and by the 20th of December the town was completely invested. Approaches were made, and a breach in the wall was effected before the end of the year. This circumstance was reported by the brave commander, Col. Skerret, on the 30th of December, when an assault was expected. On the evening of the 31st, a strong column was seen rapidly advancing to the breach, and suitable preparations were made to receive the attack. The intrepid resistance of the defenders was crowned with success. In less than an hour, victory declared for them: the boldest of the assailants fell at the foot of the breach, and the mass of the column made a precipitate retreat. A very pleasing instance of humanity succeeded this exertion of valour. The ground between the town and the enemy's battery was strewed with their wounded, who must have perished had they remained there. Colonel Skerret therefore hoisted a flag of truce, in token of permission to carry them off; and this humane act was very feelingly acknowledged by the French commander. From that time the enemy kept up a partial fire, by which the breach was widened, and another assault was expected; when, on the morning of January 5, 1812, the columns of the enemy were descried already at a distance, having left behind them their artillery, ammunition, and stores. A detachment of the garrison was sent out to take possession of them, which rescued from the flames the articles that had been set on fire. A number of dead was found on the place, indicating the great loss which the besiegers must have suffered during the whole period. "Thus we have seen (says Col. Skerret, with allowable exultation) the utmost effort of the French has been frustrated by 1800 British and Spanish troops, with only the defence of a paltry wall; and an army of 10,000 men, conducted by a marshal of France, retreating from them silently in the night, after having been repulsed and defeated, leaving behind all their artillery and stores, collected at a great expense, and by immense exertions."

After the defeat of Blake, and capture of Murviedro, marshal Suchet advanced with his centre to the suburbs of Valencia, and was employed nearly a month in waiting for the arrival of the reinforcements and artillery, and collecting the requisites for a siege. On the 26th of November, an attack was made on the line of Blake's protecting army; and, his cavalry being routed, the infantry took shelter in its intrenched camp. This was afterwards forced; the artillery and baggage were all taken; and the fugitives, being cut off from the road to Murcia, were obliged to throw themselves into the city of Valencia. The victors then attacked and carried a number of small intrenched camps of the Spaniards; and, on the 25th of December, Valencia was invested on all sides. The French trenches were opened in the nights of the 1st and 2d of January, 1812, within seventy or eighty toises of the Spanish works; and in four days the engineers pushed mines within fifty toises of the fosse. Batteries were erected at sixty toises distance; and the effects of these operations caused the Spaniards to abandon their lines, and take possession in the suburbs. On the 5th, a bombardment was begun, and a capitulation was offered to the town by Suchet, which was rejected by Blake. The bombardment was recommenced, and in three days and nights 2700 bombs were thrown into the city, causing many fires and explosions. The engineers by that time had made a lodgment in the suburbs, and had placed mines under two of the principal gates. The horrors of an assault were impending over this populous city; and, in order to avert them, general Blake now consented to a capitulation. By its terms, Valencia was put into the power of the French, with about 18,000 troops of the line made prisoners of war, 374 pieces of artillery, and a great quantity of mi-



linary flores. As a reward for this signal success, the title of duke of Albufera was conferred upon marshal Suchet.

While these things were going on in the peninsula, we find Napoleon contriving to enforce his blockade of the British islands by annexing Hamburg to the French territory; a measure which, political in itself according to the plans and views of the French emperor, was still seen with an eye of jealousy by his northern allies; but, from a want of understanding among themselves, they had not yet strength enough to resist these peremptory decrees; and the free town of Hamburg was formally declared annexed to the French empire.

An event of great probable importance, and highly gratifying to the mind of Napoleon, took place on April the 20th: the empress was safely delivered of a son. For in the young prince has been revived the title, so many centuries dormant, of King of Rome; and displays of public adulation not inferior to those of the ages most sunk in the degradation of political servitude, were made to welcome "the venerable infant," to use an expression of our own Dryden. That this prospect of establishing a dynasty of his direct descendants must be highly gratifying to the ruler of France, cannot be doubted; but a long continuance of a prosperous reign in his own person will be obviously requisite for the peaceable transmission of his power to an hereditary successor.

The exposé of the state of the empire, presented to the legislative body by the minister of the interior on the 29th of June, though doubtless a flattering representation, contains matter of fact well deserving of attention. It commences with a splendid view of the late extensions of the French territory: "Since your last session, the empire has received an addition of sixteen departments, five millions of people, a territory yielding a revenue of one hundred millions (livres), three hundred leagues of coast, with all their maritime means. The mouths of the Rhine, the Meuse, and the Scheldt, were not then French; the circulation of the interior of the empire was circumscribed; the productions of its central departments could not reach the sea without being submitted to the inspection of foreign custom-houses. Those inconveniences have for ever disappeared. The mouths of the Ems, the Weser, and the Elbe, place in our hands all the timber that Germany furnishes. The frontiers of the empire lean on the Baltic; and thus, having a direct communication with the north, it will be easy for us thence to draw masts, hemp, iron, and such other naval stores as we may want. We at this moment unite all that France, Germany, and Italy, produce as materials for the construction of ships." It goes on to touch upon topics, the delicacy of which is a proof how firmly based that authority appeared to be, which ventured thus to agitate them before the nation. After remarking on the advantage afforded by the union of Rome, as removing the interposition between the armies in the north and south of Italy, it proceeds, "This union also brings with it the double advantage, that the popes are no longer sovereign princes, and in the relation of strangers to France. To bring to our recollection all the evils which religion has sustained by the confounding of temporal with spiritual power, we have only to look into history. The popes have invariably sacrificed eternal interests to temporal ones. If it be advantageous to the state and to religion that the pope should not continue to be a temporal prince, it is equally desirable that the bishop of Rome, the head of our religion, should not be a stranger to us, but that he should unite in his heart, with the love of religion, that love for this country which characterises elevated minds. Besides, it is the only means whereby that influence which the pope ought to possess over spiritual concerns can be rendered compatible with the principles of the empire, which cannot suffer any foreign bishop to exercise an authority therein." What follows under the head of religion is not less observable: "Twenty-seven bishoprics having been for a long time vacant, and the pope having refused at two different periods, from

1805 to 1807, and from 1808 up to the present moment, to execute the clauses of the concordat which bind him to institute the bishops nominated by the emperor; this refusal has nullified the concordat—it no longer exists. The emperor has therefore been obliged to convoke all the bishops of the empire, in order that they may deliberate about the means of supplying the vacant sees, and of nominating to those that may become vacant in future, conformably to what was done under Charlemagne, under St. Louis, and in all the ages which preceded the concordat between Francis I. and Leo X. for it is of the essence of the catholic religion not to be able to dispense with the ministry and the mission of bishops. Thus has ceased to exist that famous transaction between Francis I. and Leo X. against which the church, the university, and the supreme courts, so long protested, and which made the publicists and magistrates of that period say, that the king and the pope had mutually ceded what belonged neither to the one nor the other. Henceforward it is to the deliberations of the council of Paris that the fate of episcopacy is attached, which will have so much influence upon religion itself."

As there existed no other limitation to the extension of the territory denominated France, beyond its former confines, than the will of its present ruler, no surprise will be excited by the further annexations of districts in Italy, declared in an imperial decree of August the 5th. By this decree, the territories belonging to the kingdom of Italy situated on the left bank of the Enza (a river flowing between Parma and Modena) were united to France; and its course, from its mouth to its source, declared to be the future boundary between France and Italy; the boundary then proceeding along the Appenines to the present frontier of Tuscany. Other alterations were also announced of the boundaries between the kingdom of Italy and the Illyrian provinces of the French empire.

Further severities with respect to commercial intercourse with England were put in practice in the north of Germany, by an order of the marshal duke of Auerstadt, governor-general of the Hanseatic departments, dated Hamburg, August 6. In pursuance of a decree of the emperor, which enjoins every individual with whom is deposited, in whatever way, any merchandize, capital, or funds in money, appertaining to English commerce, to make declaration of the same to the imperial treasury; it directs that every holder of funds belonging to the enemy do make declaration of the same before the 10th of August in Hamburg, and before the 25th in all other parts of the 3d military division; and announces that every individual who after the above periods shall be found to possess enemy's property undeclared, shall, besides giving it up, be bound to furnish triple security for its value, in order to answer for the penalties incurred.

With a view probably to conciliate the affections of his new subjects in Holland, and to hasten his naval preparations, the French emperor set out from Compeigne on September 19th, on a tour to the coast. He arrived at Boulogne on the 20th; at which place an incident occurred which must have afforded him a mortifying proof of the insufficiency of his boasted armament in that place to cope with even the minor force of the British navy. Captain Carteret, of the Naiad frigate, anchored off that port, writes, that on the morning of the 20th he observed much bustle among the enemy's flotilla, moored along-shore under their batteries, which seemed to indicate that some great affair was in agitation. About noon, Bonaparte, in a barge accompanied by several officers, was seen to proceed along their line to the centre ship, which immediately hoisted the imperial standard at the main, and lowered it at his departure, substituting for it a vice-admiral's flag. By his express orders, as was afterwards learned, seven praams, each carrying twelve long 24-pounders and 120 men, and commanded by rear-admiral Balte, stood out with the flood-tide towards the Naiad, which awaited the attack at anchor, with springs on her cables.



cables. The praams, which had the option of choosing their distance, came up successively within gun-shot, gave their broadsides, and tacked, and continued this mode of engaging, joined afterwards by ten brigs, for upwards of two hours without intermission. The Naiad, which had returned their fire, and had not a single man hurt, then weighed and stood off, partly to repair some small damages, but principally to endeavour to get to windward, that she might be enabled to close with the enemy. After a time she tacked and made all sail towards them; but, it falling calm, the flotilla anchored under the batteries eastward of Boulogne, and the Naiad resumed her former anchorage. On the following morning, the enemy's flotilla of 7 praams and 15 smaller vessels weighed and stood out, apparently to renew their former distant cannonade. The Naiad weighed, and, getting well to windward, joined the armed brigs Rinaldo, Redpole, and Castilian, with the Viper cutter, which had come in the night to her support. They all lay to on the larboard tack, gradually drawing off-shore, in order to entice the enemy farther from the protection of his batteries. At the moment when the French admiral, having reached his utmost distance, tacked in-shore, the English Squadron bore up with the greatest rapidity in the midst of a shower of shot and shells, without returning any till within pistol-shot, when their firing threw the enemy into inextricable confusion. The French admiral's praam was the Naiad's chief object; but he pushed too fast for the batteries, that it was impossible to reach him without too great hazard. The Naiad, however, succeeded in separating one praam which had gallantly attempted to succour her chief, and, running her on-board, after an obstinate resistance obliged her to surrender. She carried 112 men, of whom 60 were soldiers of the line. The remainder of the flotilla was completely defeated, but escaped capture on account of the proximity of the formidable batteries. The loss on the English side was inconsiderable; and the whole affair was only important as a kind of experiment of what might be expected in a more serious encounter of the same nature.

Bonaparte next proceeded to Ostend, and afterwards minutely surveyed the new forts erected on the isle of Cadzand. He made such a kind of review of the Squadron of men-of-war lying at the mouth of the Scheldt as might be expected from a sovereign and a landman; and sailed in his yacht to Flushing, the repairs of which port he inspected. At Antwerp he received the different authorities at nine in the morning; and then visited the fortifications, the arsenal, the docks, and all the works of art and industry, which are described as having renewed, and even surpassed, all the wonders presented by that city in its most flourishing periods. But it was at Amsterdam, "proud of the title of third city of the empire," that the expected presence of the great visitant excited, according to the French accounts, the most enthusiastic emotions; and it is certain that the festive preparations publicly enjoined by the magistrates could not be well exceeded. He arrived there, in company of the empress, on October the 9th, and was received, it is said, with general acclamations, and all the tokens of joy and satisfaction. In the speech of M. Van Scholten, president of the tribunal of the first order, the people of Amsterdam are said to be "Frenchmen more in heart than in consequence of the union;" and to "feel all the honour of forming part of the empire of Charlemagne, restored by a monarch who is superior to him in all respects."

Napoleon returned to Paris on the 11th of November, after a tour which appears to have had no other important objects than such as regarded his Dutch dominions. There is no doubt, however, that he was during this period carrying on active negotiations with the northern powers of Europe, especially with the court of Russia, the effects of which will be mentioned presently. At the conclusion of the year, the waste of the past and the demands of the coming season were manifested by an order for the immediate call of 120,000 conscripts of the year 1812.

The impolitic war in which Russia had for some time past been engaged with Turkey, continued to be a drain upon the finances and population of both countries; doubtless to the secret satisfaction of that ambitious potentate, who, in his distant projects, probably meditated the reduction of one of these empires to a state of subserviency, and the spoliation of the other. For the progress of this war, we must refer to the articles *RUSSIA* and *TURKEY*.

Had the court of Petersburg encountered no other difficulties than those proceeding from a war which it unnecessarily provoked, and which a little moderation on its part might speedily terminate, its deliberations would have been attended with little anxiety; but it was at the same time pressed by that overwhelming weight of unbalanced power which was lying so heavy upon all the other states of the European continent. Napoleon's favourite plan of ruining the finances of England by cutting off her commercial intercourse with the countries of Europe, required an universal agreement among its potentates; and he had succeeded, by intrigue or intimidation, in causing his measures to be adopted, at least in appearance, in every part not actually occupied by the British arms. Russia, however, from the remoteness of its situation, and the degree of unbroken power and independence which it still possessed, exercised a will of its own on the subject, and was occasionally disposed to consult its private interest and convenience, rather than the views of the French emperor. Hence, English goods had never been committed to the flames in that country, as in Denmark and Germany; and British colonial produce was admitted into her ports in neutral bottoms.

The trade with Great Britain had been highly advantageous to the Russians, and many of the nobility derived a great share of their incomes from the sale of products of which this island was the principal market. The state of hostility which existed between the two countries was therefore generally unpopular in Russia, and the derangement of its finances in consequence of the Turkish war rendered the suspension of a lucrative commerce more severely felt. The presence of an English fleet in the Baltic during the summer, though it produced no declared change in the political system of Russia, could not fail of affording some opportunities of relaxing the rigour of commercial exclusion, and of giving umbrage to the French ruler. Other occasions of difference arose between the courts of Peterburgh and Paris. The former is said to have refused the demand of the latter, that Finland should be restored to Sweden; and, in other points, the arbitrary interference of Napoleon in the politics of the north could not but prove galling to the power which knew no equal in that part of Europe. From these causes, the whole year 1811 passed in discussions and negotiations between Russia and France, the aspect of which appeared at times so hostile, that an immediate declaration of war between them was confidently expected by the northern politicians. Such a change was supposed to have taken place in the Russian cabinet with respect to this country, that a quantity of ammunition and warlike stores was sent by our government in four transports, under convoy of a fleet of war, to the port of Revel, with the expectation that they would be received. They were, indeed, greeted on their arrival by the public authorities, as well as by the people, with a hearty welcome; but the Russian government was not prepared to take a step so decidedly hostile to the wishes of France, and the vessels were obliged to return without landing their cargoes. Upon the whole, it could not be questioned that the inclination of the court of Russia, at the close of this year, was more friendly towards England than towards France; but the same dread of the overbearing power of the latter country, which rendered her an object of aversion, also operated to inspire great caution in adopting measures which might afford a pretext for converting her into an open enemy. All confidence, however, was at an end



between the two courts; and a cloud was manifestly gathering which was soon to involve the north in the horrors of blood and devastation.

The humiliated court of Vienna had been principally occupied in the restoration of its impaired finances. The rest of Germany, in part annexed to France, and the remainder in close league with it, or under slavish dependence on the French emperor, contributed little of importance to the political history of the year. If sympathy could be excited for the degradation of a power which had itself risen by usurpation, the condition of Prussia was such as to call forth the emotions both of compassion and indignation. Its trade nearly annihilated, its public offices under the direction of Frenchmen, its finances overburdened to pay the exacted contributions, every political motion an object of suspicion to one of the two great powers by which it was encompassed; it had lost its prosperity and independence without obtaining the compensation of security. Its sovereign, who had been unwillingly accessory to the fall of his country, preserved the affection of his subjects by his readiness to undergo personal privations for the public welfare; but melancholy preyed on his mind, and of all the humbled monarchs he was probably the most deserving of pity. His inclination led him to a family-connection with the Russian emperor; but superior power obliged him to submit to the political interests of France. After much reluctant delay, he was compelled to join the Confederation of the Rhine, and to place a considerable body of his troops under the orders of general Rappe, the French commander on the southern coast of the Baltic.

Of the other northern states, Sweden has been the principal object of political interest, on account of the peculiarities of her situation. Under the nominal rule of a native king, but declining in years and constitution, she was really governed by an adopted successor, a Frenchman, formerly one of Napoleon's officers, and generally supposed to have been elected to the station of crown-prince through his influence. It was therefore natural to expect that Sweden through his means would be wholly devoted to the French interest; and the declaration of war against England, with the exclusion of its commerce, were apparent proofs of this subserviency. But these measures were manifestly unpopular with the Swedish nation; and Bernadotte, the crown-prince, soon began to exhibit symptoms of looking more to the honour and security of a crown which he was destined to wear, than to the gratification of a former master—in short, to be changed from a Frenchman to a Swede. A jealousy on the part of the French of an intercourse between the Swedes and the English appeared early in the year, from a complaint transmitted to Stockholm by the French consul at Gottenburgh, importing that the governor of that town connived at a clandestine communication with the British shipping; and, although upon an inquiry the allegations were declared to be unfounded, it was thought proper to remove the governor. The English fleet under sir J. Saumarez being in the Baltic in the month of June, a negotiation took place between him and the Swedish government respecting some detained ships with colonial produce; and the taking possession of the ships was explained as being merely a measure of retaliation against Prussia, which had detained Swedish ships in her ports. The conduct of the English admiral toward the Swedes was highly satisfactory to that nation, as he not only suffered their coasting vessels to pass unmolested, but even gave them all the protection in his power.

Denmark retained too strong a feeling of indignation against England, and was too apprehensive of the power of France, now become a close neighbour in consequence of the annexation of the northern coast of Germany, to make any change in its political system. Having lost its navy, and suffered a great part of its seamen to enter the French service, its maritime exertions were limited to attacks upon the English trade by privateers and gun-boats, in which it obtained success enough to be a troublesome

adversary. With the view of avoiding occasions of quarrel with Sweden, the Danish court issued a decree early in February, containing several immunities from detention or capture to Swedish ships which had been engaged in communication with England; as it is, however, difficult in all countries to restrain the predatory habits of corsairs, the Swedes had reason during the course of the year to complain of the hostilities practised upon their commerce by the armed vessels of Denmark.

The most considerable enterprise undertaken by the Danes in this year, was their attempt to recover the island of Anholt, which had been captured by the English, and rendered a station whence they were much incommoded. On March the 27th, a Danish flotilla with troops on-board, constituting a force of near 4000 men, arrived off the isle of Anholt, garrisoned by no more than 350, and, effecting a landing without opposition, made an attack upon the English works and batteries. Though their efforts were vigorous and frequently repeated, they were repulsed in every point, with the loss of their commander, and a number of men killed and wounded; and a body of 500, unable to get back to their boats, was obliged to surrender prisoners.

Of much more probable importance to Great Britain than the political state of the remote countries of Europe, is that of the United States of North America, which, though separated from us by a wide ocean, already exert a powerful influence upon our commercial prosperity, and must progressively become of greater weight in our public system in proportion to their advance in wealth and population. The year 1811 passed in a broken intercourse with this people, and in disputes with its government continually tending to widen the breaches made in the amity which ought to subsist between nations so nearly allied in origin, manners, and sentiments.

About the close of the year 1810, discussions took place in the senate of the United States respecting the occupation of West Florida. The opponents of the bill for its annexation maintained that the title by which they claimed it was insufficient, and that the president had not authority to cause it to be forcibly occupied; they also urged that, in the present state of Spain, and of her relations with Great Britain, there would be danger that such a measure might involve them in a war with those powers. The advocates of the measure dwelt upon the justice of the claim, and the obligation of asserting a national right under any circumstances whatsoever. The occupation was, however, carried into effect without resistance.

On the 22d of January, 1811, the president laid before congress copies of a dispatch from Mr. Pinckney, minister-plenipotentiary from the United States to the court of London, relative to his correspondence with the marquis Wellesley on the subject of the orders in council. In his enclosed letter to the marquis, dated Nov. 3, 1810, he refers to a notification he had made of the repeal of the Berlin and Milan decrees by the court of France; and reminds his lordship, that the day was now past on which that repeal was to take effect; and that therefore, according to the repeated pledges of the British government, its relinquishment of the system adopted in consequence of those decrees was indispensable. Mr. Pinckney then informs the American secretary of state, that no steps had been taken, or apparently thought of, towards the revocation of the British orders. On the 1st of March, Mr. Pinckney had his audience of leave from the prince-regent. When this circumstance was mentioned in parliament, as implying that all negotiations were at an end with the United States, the minister attempted to soften the inference by saying that a chargé d'affaires would be left, through whom any new proposals might be transmitted. It is certain, however, that Mr. Pinckney considered his mission as quite concluded. He thus expresses himself in a letter to Mr. Smith, secretary of state:—"I had my audience of leave at Carlton-house yesterday. In the course of the short address which the occasion required, I stated



to the prince-regent the grounds upon which it had become my duty to take my leave, and to commit the business of the legation to a chargé d'affaires; and I concluded by expressing my regret, that my humble efforts in the execution of the instructions of my government, to set to rights the embarrassed and disjointed relations of the two countries, had wholly failed; and that I saw no reason to expect that the great work of their reconciliation was likely to be accomplished through any other agency. The prince's reply was of course general; but I ought to say, that (exclusively of phrases of courtesy) it contained explicit declarations of the most amicable views and feelings towards the United States."

From this time the Americans acted as if the French edicts were revoked, and the English orders in council still enforced; whence the ships of the former power were admitted into its ports, while those of the latter were excluded. The ships under French colours, frequenting the ports of the United States, were almost all privateers, eager to make prize of all vessels to which they could lay the most dubious claim; whence complaints soon arose of their capturing American ships bound to Spain or Portugal, choosing to regard them as enemies' countries. The Americans had likewise much cause of displeasure with the Danes, whose privateers took many of their ships laden with colonial produce for the northern ports of Europe.

Whilst a suspension of amity, or rather an alienation, was thus subsisting between England and the United States, an incident occurred which appeared likely to have involved the two nations in immediate hostility. The American frigate *President*, having fallen in with the British sloop of war *Little Belt*, on the American coast, an action was brought on which terminated in a severe loss of men to the latter vessel. The circumstances in which both parties agree are the following: The ships coming in sight of each other on the forenoon of May 16th, about fourteen or fifteen leagues from Cape Henry, captain Bingham, of the *Little Belt*, gave chase, and soon discovered the other ship to be a man-of-war, which, upon desecring him, bore down towards him. Captain Bingham made all sail southwards, and was followed in chase by commodore Rodgers in the *President*, who evidently gained upon the other. At half past six, captain Bingham, who had discerned the stars in the *President's* broad pendant, brought to, hoisted his colours, had his guns double-shotted, and every preparation made against a surprise. Commodore Rodgers, who affirms that he had not been able to make out what nation the chase was of, took a position to windward of her, and about a quarter past eight got within hail. Now come the variances in the narratives of the two commanders. Captain Bingham thus states the matter: "I hailed, and asked what ship it was. He repeated my question. I again hailed, and asked what ship it was. He again repeated my words, and fired a broadside, which I immediately returned." Commodore Rodgers, on the other hand, says, "I hailed, What ship is that? To this inquiry no answer was given; but I was hailed by her commander, What ship is that? After a pause of fifteen or twenty seconds, I reiterated my first inquiry; and, before I had time to take the trumpet from my mouth, was answered by a shot that went into our mainmast." He goes on to state, that, while he was in the act of giving an order to fire a shot in return, a shot was fired by the second division of his ship, which was instantly answered by three others in quick succession from his antagonist, and soon after by his whole broadside. The action, however brought on, thenceforth became general, and lasted about three quarters of an hour, when, a suspension ensuing, the hailing was repeated, the ships recognized each other, and parted for the night. In the morning the *President* sent a boat on-board the *Little Belt*, with a message lamenting the unfortunate occurrence, and offering every necessary assistance, which captain Bingham declined. His spirit in maintaining a contest with a force so superior (the disparity being 18 guns

to 44) was worthy of his station; but was attended with the loss of 32 men killed and wounded, and great damage to the vessel. The American loss was very trifling. In the official inquiries relative to this encounter, the important fact of the first shot is (as usual in such cases) oppositely sworn to, ship against ship. If, however, the case be judged according to probabilities, the circumstance of the superior force of the American ship, together with an irritation which may be supposed to have dwelt on the mind of the commander relative to the dishonour sustained by the flag of his country in the case of the *Cheapeake*, will leave a presumption that a quarrel was fought on his part.

The English government manifested its desire of terminating the misunderstanding subsisting with the United States, by sending out in the spring Mr. Foster, as envoy-extraordinary and plenipotentiary. On his arrival he entered into the business of his mission; and it appears, from letters between him and Mr. Monroe in November, that the affair of the *Cheapeake* frigate was amicably adjusted by the disavowal and redress offered by our court, and accepted by the president. Mr. Monroe, at the same time, in his correspondence respecting the *President* and *Little Belt*, assures Mr. Foster that commodore Rodgers had no orders from his government to search for, and obtain by force, Americans impressed on-board British armed vessels, but merely to protect the coast and commerce of the United States; and he places his justification on the fact that the *Little Belt* fired first.—With respect to the occupation of West Florida, against which a solemn protest had been made in the name of the prince-regent, Mr. Monroe declares that no satisfaction had been made by Spain for spoliation on the commerce of the United States in 1798-9, nor for denying them the right of deposit at New Orleans; that West Florida is a part of Louisiana, to which they had a fair right by purchase; that no advantage was taken of the situation of Spain, but the seizure was made in consequence of an intention of the inhabitants, neither governed nor protected by Spain, to make themselves independent. He adds, that this measure will be no obstruction to a future discussion of title, when the government of Spain shall be established.

The most important part of the correspondence between the two negotiators related to the orders in council; and it was evident that nothing but their repeal could satisfy the American government, and restore an amicable intercourse between the two countries. Mr. Foster, not having authority to afford the expectation of any compliance in this respect, (as, indeed, our ministry were strenuous supporters of the justice and policy of those orders,) when congress assembled, after a shorter recess than usual, the president delivered to them an address, on the 4th of November, of which the refusal of Great Britain to repeal its orders in council was the leading topic, and was represented as directly tending to hostilities.

The West-India islands, of which the sole possessors are now the English and Spaniards, with the exception of the negro state of Hayti, or St. Domingo, afforded some particulars which must not be passed over.—The most remarkable event was the trial and execution of the Hon. A. W. Hodge, a member of his majesty's council in the island of Tortola, for the murder of one of his own negroes named Prosper.

The prisoner on his trial pleaded Not guilty. The first witness was a free woman of colour, named Paren Georges. She stated that she was in the habit of attending at Mr. Hodge's estate to wash linen; that one day Prosper came to her to borrow six shillings, being the sum that his master required of him, because a mango had fallen from a tree which he (Prosper) was set to watch. He told the witness that he must either find the 6s. or be flogged; that the witness had only 3s. which she gave him, but that it did not appease Mr. Hodge; that Prosper was flogged for upwards of an hour, receiving more than 100 lashes, and threatened by his master, that, if he did



not bring the remaining 3s. on the next day, the flogging should be repeated; that the next day he was tied to a tree, and flogged for such a length of time, with the thong of the whip doubled, that his head fell back, and he could bawl no more. From thence he was carried to the sick-house, and chained to two other negroes; that he remained in this confinement during five days, at the end of which time his companions broke away, and thereby released him; that he was unable to run away; that he went to the negro-houses, and shut himself up; that he was found there dead, in a state of putrefaction, some days afterwards; that crawlers were in his wounds, and not a piece of black flesh was to be seen on the hinder part of his body where he had been flogged.

Stephen M'Keogh, a white man, who had lived as manager on Mr. Hodge's estate, deposed, that he saw the deceased Proper after he had been so severely flogged; that he could put his finger in his side; he saw him some days before his death in a cruel state; he could not go near him for the blue flies. Mr. Hodge had told the witnesses, whilst he was in his employ, that, if the work of the estate was not done, he was satisfied if he heard the whip.

The prisoner's counsel, in their attempt to impeach the veracity of the witnesses, called evidence as to his general character, which disclosed instances of still greater barbarity on the part of Mr. Hodge. Among other examples, Pateen Georges swore that he had occasioned the death of his cook, by pouring boiling water down her throat. The jury brought in a verdict of *Guilty*; but recommended him to mercy. There were six other indictments on similar charges against the prisoner.

To the last moment of his life Mr. Hodge persisted in his innocence of the crime for which he was about to suffer. He acknowledged that he had been a cruel master; that he had repeatedly flogged his negroes; that they had then run away, when, by their own neglect and the consequent exposure of their wounds, the death of some of them had possibly ensued.

The recommendation of the murderer to mercy by the jury, and the necessity of proclaiming martial law in order to enforce his execution, were proofs of the difficulty which will always be experienced in establishing a system of equal justice, where society is composed of classes so radically different in their civil condition as masters and slaves. It was doubtless the conviction of this truth that produced a refusal of the British constitution to the newly-acquired island of Trinidad, on the ground that its white inhabitants were not to be trusted with the power which the formation of juries, and other prerogatives of magistracy, limited to themselves, would give them over the people of colour.

Some papers were printed, by order of the house of commons, consisting of a correspondence relating to punishments inflicted on certain negro-slaves in the island of Nevis, and to a prosecution instituted in consequence, wherein the defendant was acquitted. The circumstances which led to this proceeding are detailed in the following extract of a letter to governor Elliot, dated 7th September: "Your excellency will doubtless be told, that they who have exerted themselves in bringing to punishment the authors of such crimes, have been actuated by a spirit of party. Of that you will be well able to judge, when acquainted with all the circumstances. When I arrived a twelvemonth since in this country, Mr. Cottle, the president, made me an offer of a seat in the council, which I declined on the ground of ill health, and want of sight; nor should I have thought of meddling in public affairs, but for the horrid outrages lately committed in this island, and the open violation of law and justice which have followed them. Mr. Huggins, the author of these evils, when I was here sixteen years ago, was then as distinguished for his cruelty as in the present day, and his conduct held in abhorrence by every good man in the community, and by no one more than by Mr. Cottle, since become his son-in-law, himself deficient neither in under-

standing nor humanity. Mr. John Stanley, late attorney-general for these islands, some years since assured my father, that he was examined before a committee of the house of commons respecting a murder committed by Mr. Huggins, who has not scrupled to acknowledge to a friend that he shot a negro. It was understood at the time, that the body had been thrown into a negro-hut, and burnt with it. An inquest was taken on the body of another negro, who died shortly after a most inhuman flogging; but the overseer, who is still in the island, refused to give any satisfactory evidence to the grand jury who examined him. Two wretched suicides, weary of life, and the sufferings they endured, were taken out of a cistern, with their chains about them. Not whips and chains alone, but iron collars armed with spikes, have been used, and I believe still are, as instruments of punishment by this man. Ignorant and brutal as he is, he has amassed an immense fortune, and still is grasping at the possession of more land and more negroes. His doctrine was, that it was cheaper to buy negroes than to breed them. He has publicly boasted of five attempts against his life by poison; and there are medical men who well know the facts. In the first six months after he took possession of the estate called Pinnings, nine negroes died without any epidemical disease. A wretched old woman came to me a few days ago, to tell me she was compelled to work in the field. She was a favourite house-negro in her former master's family, and had nursed one of his children. Being ordered to throw a mixture of gunpowder and salt water on the mangled bodies of the negroes whipped in the market-place, she refused, and incurred the displeasure of her master; and her intellects have since been evidently disordered. An English groom, who had been witness to many of these shocking scenes, quitted the estate with horror, and returned to England, where his testimony will have some weight, as he bears a very good character. The negro Fanny, who died, had not been accustomed to hard work for many years before Mr. Huggins got possession of the estate; but he put her into the field, and she was one of those ordered to carry out dung by night. She never worked with the hoe again after the whipping; and died of an atrophy. J. W. TOBIN."

In the month of September, there was an insurrection in the island of Martinique, of which the following narrative has been published. On the 17th of September, information was sent to the *procureur du roi* (king's attorney), that an insurrection of the free people of colour and the negroes was to take place on the ensuing evening, when the town of St. Pierre was to be set on fire in several places; and, on the alarm given, the stores containing cutlasses and bill-hooks were to be broken open, and a general massacre to be made of all the white men who should appear in the streets. In case this plan did not meet with all the desired success, they were to storm St. Martin's battery, and turn its guns upon the town. On the disclosure of this plot, measures were immediately taken to prevent its execution. Some of the chiefs were seized, and others left the town. In the evening, people were seen on the heights which overlook St. Pierre; and an inhabitant brought the intelligence that from 70 to 80 of the conspirators, armed with swords, pistols, and other weapons, were assembled at his house, and that the number was fast increasing. The commandant, lieutenant-colonel Mackie, instantly sent a detachment to surround them, at whose approach they fired, and then ran away: they were pursued, but only three or four could be apprehended: on the following morning, however, several of the ringleaders were taken up; and parties from the garrison and militia were sent out to scour the country. On the 21st, the town was alarmed by the attempt of a body of 4 or 500 slaves to enter the town, where they expected to be joined by the domestic slaves; but, by the exertions of the commandant, the negroes were dispersed, and three of their chiefs taken. The head of the conspiracy, a free man of colour named Moliere, privately entered



entered the town by night, and endeavoured to make his escape on-board a small vessel; not succeeding, he blew out his brains. This man was a native of Martinique, and had been some time at St. Domingo, whence he returned with the title of viscount. The whole number of insurgents apprehended was about 130; of whom twenty-six were brought to trial, and of these fifteen were condemned and executed on the 10th of October. The governor of the island, major-general Charles Wale, issued a proclamation on the 15th, relative to this conspiracy, in which he observes, that "the object of this plot is inexplicable; for among the conspirators were some persons who, having the rank of freemen from the effect of colonial beneficence, might be expected to have nothing left to wish for but the prosperity of the country." He goes on to remark, that "these men paved the way for the seduction of the inferior classes, by throwing out opinions that have been repeated upwards of half a century by revolutionary writers;" and he further explains himself by saying, that "some individuals from bad intentions, and others from imprudence, have of late made it their particular business to comment upon the contents of the public papers, to discuss the opinions of journalists, and therefrom to deduce conclusions alarming to that system which has for two hundred years secured the prosperity of this Archipelago."

That a state of society in which a great majority of the people are slaves, and many more are excluded from the rights of citizens, is not one in which free discussion can be safely allowed, is very evident; and the tenure of the West-India islands has been rendered more insecure since the success of the men of colour at St. Domingo in establishing an independent government. For, although that island has since been a prey to the most sanguinary contests, it has presented an image of liberty and equality highly captivating to men groaning under degradation and bondage. To other attractions is now added that of a semblance of European honours and dignities, open to the ambition of the sable race. Christophe, the most powerful of the competitors, whom we mentioned at p. 166, under the title of President of Hayti, caused himself and his wife to be solemnly crowned at Cape François as King and Queen of Hayti, by a titular archbishop, on the 2d of June, 1811; after which he gave a splendid entertainment, at which were present two English captains and all the English and American merchants. His majesty drank the health of *his brother* the king of Great Britain, and wished for his success against the French tyrant. He has created various ranks of nobility, and has issued edicts for the establishment of a royal guard, an order of knighthood, and an ecclesiastical hierarchy. A body of 250 infantry, and a company of light horse, are to take care of the personal safety of his sable majesty, and two companies of light horse are to attend upon the queen and prince royal. The military order of the negro legion of honour is denominated the Order of St. Henry: it consists of the king, the prince royal, 16 grand crosses, and 32 commanders. A fund of 300,000 livres constitutes the endowment of the order, all the members of which must profess the catholic faith. King Henry has also his Royal Gazette. The motto to this publication is a quotation from Voltaire:

Le premier qui fut roi fut un soldat heureux;  
Qui sert bien son pays n'a pas besoin d'aieux.

The transactions in the peninsula of India, during the last and present years, have not been very important.—An event of some consequence to the powers in the northern part of Hindoostan, and which exemplifies the practice of Hindoo policy, was that of the death of the princess of Oudipore, by poison. This lady was the daughter of the rana of Oudipore, whose family being accounted more ancient and honourable than that of any other Hindoo prince, his alliance was sought by the neighbouring rajahs of Jaypore and Joudpore, both of whom as-

pired to the hand of the princess. Their rivalry produced a war, in which Scindia, Holkar, Ameer Khan, and all the other native chieftains in that quarter, have at one time or another taken a part. To terminate this scene of contention, the poor princess was sacrificed, poison being administered to her by her own aunt, with the knowledge of her father. It is said that the scheme was secretly contrived by Ameer Khan, who, finding the rana of Oudipore (now entirely in his power) was too far engaged to the Jaypore rajah to retract, and resolved that his own ally, the rajah of Joudpore, should not be disgraced by the triumph of his rival, suggested this expedient as the only method of settling their opposite pretensions.

In the south of India, a revolution took place which illustrates the *British* mode of interference in the affairs of that part of the world. The misconduct of the new rajah of Travancore, and his ill treatment of some of the branches of the deceased rajah's family, attracted the notice of Col. Munro, the British resident at that court; and, an investigation of his right to the throne being set on foot, it appeared that by the laws of the state his title was invalid, and that the rana Letchma Amah, in her 18th year, was the rightful successor. The interest of the British government made it expedient that the rajah should be dethroned, and a notification was made to him to that effect; but, as he attempted some resistance, he was placed under an escort of the 17th regiment, and marched from Trivanderum to Tellicherry. On the next day, March 17th, the princess Letchma Amah was proclaimed, and invested with the khalut, jewels, and sword of state. She was crowned at an adjacent pagoda by the principal brahmins, the British troops being drawn up on the occasion, to each corps of which she made a donation of 500 rupees: she was also honoured with a royal salute from the fort. On her return to the palace she ascended the throne, where she received the congratulations of Col. Munro, the officers of government, &c. and was presented with some valuable jewels, and other articles, in the name of the British government. An attempt on her life was made by the adherents of the deposed rajah, but was frustrated. This revolution, said to have been "rendered necessary by certain political considerations," was happily free from the guilt of bloodshed. The new female sovereign promoted to places of high trust several brahmins attached to the British interest. All foreigners in her military service were dismissed; various arrangements were made at the suggestion of the British resident; and pains were taken to reconcile the minds of the people to the new order of things. No attempt was made, as was apprehended, to rescue the ex-rajah; and a handsome establishment has been formed for him at Tellicherry.

The province of Vellore was afflicted, in 1810, with a drought and famine, in consequence of which 6000 people perished, together with a great number of cattle.

From Bombay, news was received of the capture by storm, and the restoration to its lawful chieftain, of the fortresses of Chya, a dependency of the rajah of Poorbunder, who had fought and obtained the protection of the East-India company. It had been usurped from him by his son. The English force employed on this occasion consisted of the 47th regiment.

While the events, passing on the continent of India, have been thus limited to a few comparatively minute transactions, its islands have afforded scenes of extraordinary interest.—The most splendid acquisition made by the British arms in the course of the year 1811, was that of the capital of the Dutch settlements in the East-Indies, Batavia, with the rich island in which it is situated. After the reduction of the islands of Amboyna and Banda, with the French isles of Bourbon and Mauritius, (see p. 37.) the governor-general of India, lord Minto, resolved to complete the British dominion in that quarter of the world by the conquest of the island of Java. In the month of March, a body of troops destined for this expedition was encamped at Madras, consisting of his majesty's 14th, 59th,  
and



and 69th, regiments of foot, four squadrons of the 22d dragoons, two squadrons of horse, and a party of foot-artillery. The 78th regiment was to sail from Bengal. The chief command was vested in Sir Samuel Auchmuty, and Gen. Weatherall was nominated second in command. Lord Minto himself determined to accompany the armament, which was appointed to sail in April. It was understood that Gen. Daendels, the governor of Java, was making every possible preparation for a formidable resistance to the expected attack. He had successfully terminated a destructive war against the people of Bantam, who had rebelled (as it was termed) against the Dutch authority; and his government, under the influence of French direction, was conducted with unusual vigour and intelligence.

On the 4th of August, Sir S. Auchmuty effected a landing without opposition at the village of Chillingching, twelve miles to the east of Batavia. As the enemy's chief force, commanded by Gen. Jansens (who had succeeded Gen. Daendels in the government) lay at Cornelis, some distance up the country, it was resolved first to explore the road leading to Batavia; and the troops on the 6th approached the Anjol river, the bridge over which had been broken. A great fire being then perceived in Batavia, it was concluded that the garrison intended to evacuate the city, for which reason Col. Gillespie was sent with a detachment to take possession of the suburbs. On the 8th the burghers applied for protection, and surrendered the city without opposition; and, although large store-houses of public property were consumed in the conflagration, yet some valuable granaries and other stores were preserved. On the 10th, Col. Gillespie moved with his corps to the enemy's cantonment at Weltevrede, which he found abandoned; but a strong position had been taken a little beyond, and two miles in advance of the works at Cornelis, defended by an abatis, and 3000 of the enemy's best troops. This was attacked with the bayonet by the British, and carried, with considerable loss to the defenders. A column that came to their assistance was driven back on the arrival of the British line. There still remained the main body of the enemy, in the works of Cornelis, greatly superior in numbers to the assailants, and strongly intrenched in a favourable position, guarded by redoubts and a numerous artillery. For some days a cannonade was carried on, by which several of the enemy's batteries were silenced; and at the dawn of day, on the 26th, a general assault was made. Col. Gillespie led the attack against an advanced redoubt, which was carried with the greatest rapidity, the victors passing a bridge on the other side along with the fugitives, and at the bayonet's point storming a second redoubt. Col. Gibbs, on the right, carried another redoubt; but an explosion of the magazine of that work destroyed a number of officers and men who were crowded on the rampart. The lines in front of fort Cornelis were then forced, the fort itself taken, and at length the whole enemy's army was killed, taken, or dispersed. The slaughter in the action and pursuit was immense; and near 5000 prisoners, among whom were three general officers, with all the artillery, attested the extent of the victory. Gen. Jansens with difficulty escaped during the engagement, and reached the distance of 30 miles with a few cavalry, the sole relics of an army of 10,000 men. The loss of the conquerors, though considerable, might be regarded as moderate, compared to the obstacles they had to overcome; and never, perhaps, did a more complete success confer honour on the courage and discipline of British troops.

General Jansens, notwithstanding the decisive blow he had received, showed no intention of giving up the contest, but employed himself in collecting what remained of European and native force for the defence of the rest of the island. Sir S. Auchmuty therefore prepared to push his success with vigour, as neither the climate nor the season admitted of delay in the military operations. At the beginning of September, the fort of Cheribon was oc-

cupied by the seamen and marines of three frigates detached for this service. A body of troops was embarked on-board the ships of the fleet under rear-admiral Stopford, which were ordered to proceed to Samarang, where they were joined by Sir S. A. and the admiral. Gen. Jansens, who had retired to that town, upon a summons to surrender the island, professed a determination to persevere in his resistance, on which account preparations were made to attack Samarang; but it was discovered on the 12th that he had evacuated the place, and had occupied a position on the road to Solo, the residence of the emperor of Java. Samarang was therefore taken possession of without opposition; and the admiral sailed with some ships to occupy the harbour of Sourabaya. The general then directed Col. Gibbs, with the few troops that were there assembled, to attack the enemy's position, which was performed on the 16th with success, and on the next day a flag of truce was sent in, and an armistice was agreed upon. After some attempt by Gen. Jansens to procure better terms than were offered, the firm tone assumed by the English general induced him to comply; and the European troops surrendered at discretion. The terms of capitulation, putting the whole island of Java in the possession of Great Britain, were highly advantageous to this country, and at the same time reflected great honour on the British character.—The small adjacent island of Madura, which had been occupied by the French, also submitted at the same time; and thus, to that overgrown power of which Holland now composed an integral part, not a vestige of oriental dominion was left.

On the last day of April, early in the morning, Mohee Oodheen, the second legitimate son of the late Tippoo Sultan, put a period to his existence, in the ground-floor of his own apartments at Russapuglah. He effected his purpose by discharging a fowling-piece, loaded with small shot, into his chest: the shot entered in one compact body between the sixth and seventh rib, on the left side, near the breast-bone, passed in the direction of the heart and left lung, and issued at the upper part of the shoulder-blade on the same side. On examining the premises, the shot was found to have lodged in the adjoining wall, at the height of between five and six feet from the ground. No person was near when the act was perpetrated; but the report of the piece was heard about four in the morning, when the family and attendants instantly rushed into the room. From the direction of the wound, it is conceived that the deceased had planted the butt-end of the piece on the floor; and, pointing the muzzle to his breast, had drawn the trigger with his toe. When discovered, he was lying on his back across a cot, in the agonies of death, with the gun resting on his body. He expired almost immediately. The prince, we understand, since his arrival in Bengal, had distinguished himself above the others by the regularity and correctness of his conduct, and, on that account, had been permitted to enjoy a larger share of liberty. His behaviour, however, it is said, had lately altered; and, immediately before his death, he had privately stationed three horses in a stable on the Chitpure-road; and by other indications betrayed an intention to attempt his escape.

A very extraordinary conspiracy was detected about this time at Bombay. Mr. Osborne, sub-treasurer of the settlement, suspecting the native clerks in the treasury of malversation, gave notice, that on a particular day he would investigate their accounts, and expect to find their balances accurate. The clerks, native Indians, borrowed the necessary sums of the money-changers to make their balances complete while passing examination, and engaged to return the sums so borrowed next day, they having not the least doubt that these sums would be again intrusted to their custody; but Mr. Osborne, on finding the balances accurate, clapped locks upon the whole of the treasure every night, thus in effect keeping it in his own possession. The native clerks, astonished and driven to despair, their ruin being inevitable, formed a conspiracy against the life



of Mr. Osborne. They were betrayed, apprehended, and carried before the superintendent of police, who dismissed them on the ground of want of sufficient evidence; but they were apprehended again, and committed. The grand jury having found a true bill against four of the native clerks, for a conspiracy to take away the life of George Cumming Osborne, esq. sub-treasurer at Bombay, they were put on their trial on the 12th of November, and pleaded Not guilty. Mr. Macklin, counsel for the prosecution, stated, that a conspiracy existed among the servants of the treasury, and their friends in the bazar, to cheat the public; and that a system of peculation of enormous extent was to be supported by murder. Several witnesses, native Indians, were examined, to prove that they had been tampered with by the native clerks in the treasury to procure the death of Mr. Osborne, by conjuration or any other means; and that 1200 rupees was to be the reward of success.

George Cumming Osborne, esq. being examined, said, he is sub-treasurer; he took possession in July 1809. He soon heard of the native officers, now at the bar, having equipages and handsome houses, living in a sumptuous manner much beyond their scanty pay; that the two head throffs had emerged from obscurity to elegant houses, &c. sometimes they had ten lacs, sometimes half a million sterling, in their possession. Witness gave notice of his design to inspect the balances; he found them correct, and ever afterwards kept the keys, contrary to custom.—Other witnesses were examined, showing that false receipts had been given to make an appearance of balances, &c.

The recorder, in his charge on this trial, remarked, that conjuration or incantation failing, as every European believed it would, the dagger and the bowl must be resorted to, to effect murder. That it was remarkable the chief throffs, having only half a guinea a-week, and no other means of emolument, lived in great splendour, had great wealth and credit. To support this, they wished to dispose of Mr. Osborne, that they might again have the keys of the treasury in their power. The recorder declared his thorough conviction of the guilt of the prisoners; and the jury, after retiring a few minutes, pronounced them *guilty*.—At twelve o'clock at night, the recorder pronounced sentence as follows on the three chief criminals: "This court doth order and adjudge, that you be imprisoned for five-years in the prison of Bombay; that you be placed once a-year in the pillory, with labels descriptive of your offence; that, during your imprisonment, you be twice publicly whipped through the bazar; that you be fined 10,000 rupees each, and that you be further imprisoned till you pay the fine. And, in order to extinguish at once those hopes of impunity that appear to have been so audaciously spread on this occasion, the court directs the sheriff, that the first pillory and whipping be inflicted to-morrow morning." The punishment was accordingly inflicted next day, in the presence of 20 or 30,000 spectators.

The allusion in the above sentence of the court to "hopes of impunity," was fully explained on the 23d of November following, upon the trial of C. T. Briscoe, esq. which lasted three days. He was indicted for corruptly and wilfully conspiring, with others, to obstruct and impede the course of justice, by preventing the trial and conviction of the above conspirators to murder Mr. Osborne. The jury found him guilty, but most strongly recommended him to mercy. He was sentenced to be imprisoned in the gaol of Bombay for twelve months.

While we were thus successful in preserving tranquillity in both Indies, and while our land-forces were gathering laurels in the well-fought fields of the peninsula, our navy, finding no adequate antagonist, was reduced to such minor exploits as occasion presented, in which, however, it sufficiently manifested the superiority of its discipline and enterprise.

The first of these gallant actions which occurred in the order of time, was that of a merchant-ship, the Cumberland, Barrett master, from Quebec. This ves-

sel arrived in the Downs on Sunday night the 13th of January, under a jury foremast and bowsprit, having pitched her bowsprit and foremast away in a heavy gale of wind off the banks of Newfoundland. From seven till eight o'clock on that morning, she was attacked by four French lugger-privateers, between Dover and Folkestone, the first of which hailed to know if he wanted a pilot; Capt. B. having suspicion of her, replied in the negative; immediately after, another privateer ordered him to lay back his mainyard, and the whole of them commenced a fire of musketry, and two of them ran alongside and boarded; previous to which captain B. had ordered all the ship's crew into the cabin, they being armed with their boarding-pikes. As soon as about twenty men got on-board, the captain ordered the ship to be fired off from the privateers, leaving the Frenchmen no retreat; and, on the ship being boarded, the privateers ceased firing; then the ship's company rushed forward, and cleared the deck; the greatest part of the boarders being killed, and the remainder jumping overboard. Immediately after, another of the privateers came alongside, and told the captain they would give no quarter. On hearing this, the ship's company cheered them; and they were boarded, and cleared in like manner. This was repeated three times afterwards, with the like success on the part of the ship's crew. Immediately after this, captain Barret discharged three of his carronades, loaded with round and canister shot; the first was seen to carry away the mainmast of one of the privateers, and the second carried away the bowsprit of another, and it was supposed destroyed many of the men, as they were heard to cry out, and the throts were heard to strike the vessel. They then made off, and the Cumberland proceeded for the Downs. Mr. Coward, chief mate of the Cumberland, was wounded in the shoulder; and one man died of his wounds. The loss on the part of the enemy was supposed to be about sixty. Capt. B. killed three himself, one of which he was obliged to put his foot on to extricate his pike. This is supposed to be the most gallant defence made by any merchant-ship during the war; as her crew consisted only of 26 men, and those of the privateers, according to the prisoners' statement, amounted to 270 men. The lords of the admiralty, as a mark of their satisfaction at the gallantry exhibited on this occasion, granted each of the crew of the Cumberland a protection from the impress for the space of three years.

The next bold exploit we shall notice, was the defeat of a combined French and Italian squadron off the Isle of Lissa, on the Dalmatian coast, by an English squadron under the command of Capt. Hoste, acting as commodore. The enemy's force, consisting of five frigates and six smaller armed vessels, sailed from Ancona, with 500 troops on-board, for the purpose of fortifying and garrisoning the Isle of Lissa. They were defeated, on the 13th of March, lying to off the north-point of the island, by the English squadron of four frigates, the Amphion, Active, Cerberus, and Volage. The French commodore, Monf. Dubordieu, a man of distinguished courage, confiding in the superiority of his force, bore down in two divisions under full sail to attack the English, which was formed in one close line to receive him. The action commenced at nine A. M. when the French commodore, falling in his attempt to break the English line, endeavoured to round the van-ship, and thus place the English between two fires; but was so roughly handled in the attempt, that his ship became unmanageable, and went on-shore on the rocks of Lissa. The action was still maintained with great fury, till two more of the enemy's ships struck. The remainder to windward then endeavoured to make off; but, being pursued as well as the crippled state of the English would permit, the sternmost was compelled to surrender. Two of the frigates crowded sail for the port of Lessina, and the small craft dispersed in various directions. The result of this very gallant action, in which the superior skill and steadiness of the English marine was strikingly exemplified, was, that the French commodore's ship,



*La Favorite*, of 44 guns, was burnt, himself being killed in the engagement; the *Corona* of 44, and the *Bellona* of 32, were taken; the *Flora* of 44, after having struck her colours and ceased firing, taking advantage of the impossibility of being occupied during the heat of the action, stole away and escaped, captain Holte in vain afterwards claiming her as a lawful prize. The surviving crew and troops of *La Favorite* were obliged to surrender at Lissa after the action. The loss of the English on this occasion amounted, in officers and seamen, to 50 killed and 150 wounded.

The capture of a whole flotilla on the coast of Calabria, by an English frigate and a sloop, deserves recording, on account of the masterly manner in which it was effected, though the trifling resistance encountered on the occasion gave but little scope for the display of the habitual courage of British seamen.—Capt. Napier, of the *Thames*, in a dispatch, dated July 21st, relates, that, being informed by Capt. Clifford, of the *Cephalus*, of a convoy of twenty-two sail which he had compelled to take shelter in Porto del Infreschi, as they were attempting to proceed round Cape Palinuro for Naples, the two ships made sail for that port, where they arrived at five in that evening. They directly steered in, and anchored; and, having soon silenced a line of gun-boats moored across for the protection of the merchantmen, they landed a body of marines, which gained possession of a tower and 80 men of its garrison, though the adjacent hills were lined with musketeers. The boats at the same time took possession of the whole convoy; all of which were alongside, and the ships under weigh, in less than two hours, without a man killed, and only five wounded. The capture consisted of eleven French gun-boats, one armed felucca, fourteen merchant-vessels, and four rafts of large spars for the Neapolitan navy.

At the latter end of October, a brilliant exploit of the army and navy combined took place on the coast of Naples. Two hundred and fifty soldiers of the 62d regiment, commanded by major Darley, were disembarked from the *Thames* and *Imperieuse* frigates, with fifty marines under lieutenant Pison, in the face of 900 of the enemy posted at Palinura, whom they attacked with fixed bayonets, and drove from their position. They then destroyed the enemy's batteries and cannon, and three gun-boats; captured six more, with twenty merchantmen; and, after staying two days on-shore, re-embarked and returned with their prizes to Melazzo.

The capture and destruction of an entire convoy, in the Adriatic, is related by Capt. Gordon of the *Active*, in a dispatch, dated off Ragofniza, July 27th. He states, that upon anchoring there he detached the boats of his ship, with the small-arm men and marines, under the command of Lieut. Henderson, to attack an enemy's convoy which had run above the island on which the town of Ragofniza stands, and had taken shelter in a creek on the main. As the entrance was narrow, and protected by three gun-boats, the lieutenant landed his armed men to take possession of a hill which appeared to command the creek, leaving orders with the boats to push for the gun-boats the moment a signal should be made from the hill. The attack thus concerted was executed with so much spirit and precision, that the enemy was presently put to flight, leaving a number of killed and wounded; and the whole convoy was seized, of which, eighteen vessels with the gun-boats were brought away, and ten were burnt. They were chiefly laden with grain for the garrison of Ragufa, and were defended on shore by 300 armed men, who, however, were so panic-struck, that the whole loss sustained by the assailants was four men wounded in the boats.

An enterprise in which both courage and stratagem were successfully employed was undertaken by his majesty's ships *Diana*, Capt. Ferris, and *Semiramis*, Capt. Richardson, lying off the mouth of the Gironde. Perceiving four sail of vessels, under convoy of a national brig of war, on the inside of the shoals at the mouth of

that river, Capt. Ferris, disguising the English ships so well that pilots were sent to their assistance on the supposition that they were French, brought them to anchor between the Corduan lighthouse and Royan, on the evening of August 24, and dispatched armed boats to capture or destroy the convoy then lying about four miles distant up the river. At day-light he determined to attack the national brig, and another stationed for the protection of the river, still having kept up the deception so well, that the port-captain, who commanded one of the brigs, came on-board the *Diana* to offer his services, and did not discover his mistake till he was ascending the quarter-deck. Capt. Ferris then laid the outer brig on-board, and succeeded in taking her without loss on either side. She proved to be the late English gun-brig *Teazer*, mounting twelve eighteen-pound carronades, and two long eighteen-pounders, with eighty-five men. In the mean-time the *Semiramis* drove on-shore, and burnt under the guns of the Royan battery, *Le Pluvier*, of sixteen guns and 136 men. The captured merchant-vessels were then brought out; and the business was terminated with complete success.

These were the principal naval actions of the year within the European seas; the capture of single privateers, and small armed vessels, being almost the only other successes recorded in the Gazette. Of the latter, however, that of the famous fast-sailing privateer, *Le Vice-amiral Martin* of eighteen guns and 140 men, from Bayonne, by the frigates *Fortunée* and *Saldanha*, in October, is worth mentioning as an example of a well-conducted chase. Such was the privateer's rate of sailing, and dexterity of management, that the English captains were convinced neither of their ships could have taken her singly.

The Indian sea, off Madagascar, was the scene of a severe action between an English and French squadron in the month of May. Three French frigates, with troops on-board, having appeared off Mauritius on May 7th, and borne away on discovering the capture of that island, it was conjectured, by Capt. Schomberg of the *Astræa*, that they would push for Tamatave. He accordingly sailed thither, accompanied by the *Phœbe* and *Galatée* frigates, and the *Racehorse* sloop; and, the enemy being discovered on the 20th near Foul Point, Madagascar, the signal to chase was made from the *Astræa*. Variable winds and calms rendered it impossible for the English ships to get up together to close action; and, while the *Astræa* was lying almost immovable on the water, the enemy succeeded in rounding the two other frigates, and raking them with considerable effect. Night came on before any thing decisive was effected, but the *Galatée* had suffered so much in her masts, that she could not be brought again to action. In the morning the *Astræa* led towards the enemy, followed by the *Phœbe* and *Racehorse*; and, bringing the commodore's ship to close action, in twenty-five minutes she struck. Another frigate also struck, but afterwards attempted to escape; and was chased without success. One, which had been worked by the *Phœbe* on the preceding night, also got off. The captured ship proved to be *la Renommée* of 44 guns and 470 men, of whom 200 were picked troops. She was reduced to a wreck, with 145 killed and wounded, among the former of whom was the gallant captain.

After this action, the English squadron proceeded to Tamatave, then repossessed by the French, and brought the fort to surrender, with all the vessels in the harbour, among which was the *Nereide* of 44 guns, one of the ships in the preceding engagement, and which had been taken by the French in the preceding year; (see p. 237, 8.)—It was agreed that the garrison, and the crew of the *Nereide*, should be sent to France without being considered as prisoners of war.

The domestic affairs of the city of London were not in general highly interesting during the present year.—The commercial distresses, indicated by lists of bankrupts more numerous than were ever before known, induced among



the middle classes of society a kind of desponding apathy, adapted to damp that political ardour which, in a free country, is continually exciting to action men of disengaged minds. At the same time the uncertain state of his majesty's health, and of the consequent duration of the regency, and the system of government likely to be pursued under it, kept persons in the superior ranks in a state of dubious expectation. With the exception, therefore, of some feeble attempts to awaken the public attention to the cause of parliamentary reform, and some of the usual party-contests in the city of London, scarcely any occasions occurred to set in motion considerable bodies on a political account, in this part of the united kingdom.

At the beginning of January 1811, a very severe frost was felt in the whole of the island. On the 8th, the Thames was so much frozen, that there was only a narrow channel in the centre free from ice. The banks of the river were so set with ice and snow, that people could walk upon it from Battersea-bridge to Hungerford-stairs. The fall of snow had been so great, that the northern roads were almost impassable; the mail-coaches were much impeded in their way to and from London; and many persons in the country perished through the severity of the weather. Yet the cold was by no means so severe, nor of so long duration, as that under which we are smarting at this moment. (March 1814.)

The danger attending the burning of charcoal in confined places is exemplified by the following accident.—A poor woman, who resided at Baywater, was brought to bed; and, not having money sufficient to supply a nurse, a neighbour tendered her services; but the husband declined the offer, saying that he could attend on her himself. The next morning some-acquaintances called to see them, and knocked several times; but, no one answering, the doors were broken open; when the man and his wife were both found dead, and the infant sucking at the breast of the woman. The cause is attributed to their having burnt some charcoal to air the room, which suffocated them.

On the 5th of February, the ceremony of swearing in the Prince of Wales as Regent took place. About twelve o'clock a party of the flank-companies of the grenadiers, with their colours and the band of the 1st regiment, marched into the court-yard of Carlton-house, where the colours were pitched in the centre of the grand entrance. The band struck up "God save the king;" and continued playing that piece, alternately with martial airs, till near five o'clock. At a quarter before two o'clock, the duke of Montrose arrived, being the first of the privy-counsellors who attended; he was followed by all the royal dukes, and a very numerous assemblage of privy-counsellors, who had all arrived by a quarter before three. The whole of the magnificent suite of state-apartments were thrown open, which for taste and splendour surpass any thing of the kind in this country. About half-past two o'clock, the lord-president of the council obtained a private audience of the prince, to prepare his royal highness for the business that was about to be proceeded upon, in the same manner as the proceedings of a council about to be held used to be laid before the king. This being done, the president retired to the state or levee room, where the noble personages assembled were so extremely numerous, that many retired to the anti-room. Soon after three, the approach of the prince to the state-room was announced; and, immediately after, his royal highness entered, escorted by lord Keith, colonels Bloomfield and M'Mahon, and two other attendants. His royal highness was dressed in full regimentals: he took his stand under the throne, when those assembled made their obeisance to him; afterwards the prince went round the room, and spoke to those assembled with his usual condescension. The levee being over, the prince signified his readiness to attend the council, when the procession to the grand saloon, appointed for holding the council, began to move in the following order:

The Great Chamberlain of England (Lord Gwydir), with his wand of office.

The Vice-Chamberlain (Lord John Thynne), with his wand of office.

The Duke of Montrose, Master of the Horse.

The Lord Steward of the Household (Earl of Aylesford), with his wand of office.

The Treasurer of the Household (Earl of Courtown), with his wand of office.

Comptroller of the Household (Lord George Thynne).  
Gold Stick (Lord Heathfield). Silver Stick.

His Royal Highness's Attendants.

The REGENT.

The Royal Dukes.

The Archbishops of Canterbury and York.

The Lord Chancellor.

The Lord President of the Council.

The other Ministers and Privy Counsellors.

On their entrance into the grand saloon, a long table was prepared, covered with crimson velvet, with many silver ink-stands, which originally belonged to queen Anne. The different oaths directed to be taken and signed by the regent were separately laid at the head of the table, written on vellum. His royal highness took his seat at the head of the table, the lord-president on his right, and the lord-chancellor on his left hand: the other privy-counsellors being seated, the lord-president briefly stated the indisposition and incapacity of the king, and the proceedings that had taken place in parliament to appoint a regent; and then read the oaths required by the act for the prince to take, to enable him to fill that high office; and, his royal highness signifying his willingness to take them, the lord-president proceeded to administer the oaths, and the prince signed the different pieces of vellum upon which they were inscribed, in the presence of the privy-counsellors, who signed as witnesses to the prince's signature.—The proceedings upon swearing in the prince-regent being ended, his royal highness retired, and commenced his office by transacting business with the ministers of state.

In the night between the 15th and 16th of this month, his majesty's frigate *Amethyst*, of 36 guns, Capt. Walton, drove from her anchorage in Plymouth Sound, and was wrecked on a reef of rocks near Mount Batten Bay, near the place where the *Pallas* frigate was lost some years before. The greater part of her crew perished, as six boats were discovered wrecks on the shore at day-light. A boat from one of the men of war in the Sound, proceeding to the relief of the crew, was overfet on nearing the ship, and all hands perished, consisting of an officer and sixteen men; two other boats, from outward-bound transports lying in Catwater, also proceeding to the relief of the distressed, were upset, and their crews perished. The *Amethyst* was riding at single anchor, ready to start for the squadron off Brest. The guns that were fired from her, as signals of distress, unfortunately were shotted, which prevented the timely assistance that would otherwise have been rendered.

A very few days after, his majesty's ship *Franchise*, while in the act of wearing, unfortunately ran down the transport brig *John and Jane*, near Falmouth, with 219 of the eleventh regiment on-board, 14 of her crew, 15 women, and 6 children, making in the whole 254 souls; out of which were saved, only ensign Duff and 22 of the troops, Mr. Wilhart master, his mate, and 6 of the crew; making in the whole 31 saved, and 223 drowned. Captain Allen, his officers, and ship's company, exerted themselves to the utmost in preserving as many as possible from the wreck. The *Franchise* could not be going at less than the rate of eight or nine knots, as they were obliged to run a little before the wind to clear another vessel: she struck the brig with her cut-water right on the beam, which stove her to pieces, and she filled instantly; no boats could be used, the sea ran so high.



We cannot refrain from introducing the following remarkable instance of resolution, intrepidity, and prowess, in an Irish gentleman of 70 years of age.—John Purcel, esq. of Highfort, near Charleville, in the county of Cork, had retired to rest at a late hour on the 11th (or 12th) of March, in the same room where he had supped. He conceives he had been two hours in bed, when his attention was engaged by an unusual noise outside his house. The room in which he had supped and slept was inside his parlour; the windows of which latter, after a short interval, were beat in; and scarcely an instant elapsed before he heard several persons, he believes twelve or thirteen, leap into the room in rapid succession. He had but a moment to deliberate; and, although he found himself unprovided with any other weapon except the knife which he recollected lay on the table, he resolved on defence. The bedroom-door was presently thrown in by a violent blow of a sledge-hammer. Mr. P. now put his back close against the wall, immediately contiguous to the door. Although the darkness of the inner room rendered him invisible to those without, yet the moon shining brightly through the windows which had been broken, and through which the party entered, gave him an imperfect view of his assailants; and he discovered two men abreast, approaching him by the door. Mr. Purcel at this moment only hesitated to decide whether a back-hand or a right-forward blow would be most powerful; and, on preferring the former, he plunged his knife far into the breast of the nearest man, who immediately fell back with a horrible scream, and expired. The captain of the party gave orders to fire, and a musket was thereupon presented at Mr. P. and actually lay against his stomach; but as, from its oblique position, Mr. P. saw it could not injure him, he pressed against the barrel, in order to induce a belief that it would prove mortal, and permitted it to be fired. He then gave this ruffian also a terrible wound, with which he retreated. A third fellow, undeterred by these examples, had the temerity to attempt an entrance, but met with the like repulse. The expulsion of the entire gang from the house, it was imagined, was by this effected, with the exception of one powerfully-strong villain; who, more successful than his comrades, forced his way into the bed-chamber, which the ruffian presently notified in the loudest and most exulting tone. During the whole of this most terrific proceeding, Mr. P. had not felt the influence of apprehension until now. He closed, however, on his assailant, and a very fierce struggle ensued. Mr. P. finding that, although he frequently stabbed the fellow in the side, he nevertheless persisted in repeating a demand of Mr. P.'s money, feared that the point of his knife had been turned and blunted; and such, on feeling it, he found to be the case. He was thus bereft of his only weapon; however, in the encounter, he discovered a sword suspended to his opponent, which he now strove to gain, but, during the exertion, the wretched man expired in his arms; and thus Mr. Purcel found that his knife had not failed him until, guided by providential interposition, it had miraculously and faithfully secured his deliverance. The remainder of the party were now contented to depart, carrying off the dead and wounded; and Mr. P. dreading the renewal of the attempt with increased numbers, prudently concealed himself between two heaps of culm in an adjoining yard, from whence he issued in the morning completely coated with blood, and whatever else this clammy matter caused to adhere to his body and limbs. It seems another fellow named Joy, who composed one of the party, died at Newcastle, in the county of Limeric, his wounds not having permitted him to escape farther.

On the 19th of March, a rise of ten per cent. in the current value of the stamped dollars in circulation took place. The increase in the price of silver had become so great, that the dollars or tokens issued by the bank could be sold for more as bullion than they were current at as coin. The directors therefore gave notice, that they would in

future receive in payment all bank dollar-tokens at the rate of 5s. 6d. each, instead of 5s. as heretofore. All such tokens are henceforth to be issued at the same increased rate. The object of this regulation was to prevent this species of currency from being withdrawn from circulation, which was rapidly effecting, in consequence of the disproportion between the real and circulating value of the article.

On the 26th of March came on the election for Chancellor of the University of Cambridge, that high office having become vacant by the death of the duke of Grafton. The candidates were but two: his grace the Duke of Rutland, who was understood to have the support of the prime-minister, and the greater part of the royal family; and his highness the Duke of Gloucester, who stood upon his own merits. The duke of Rutland arrived at Cambridge several days before the election: his illustrious antagonist perhaps better consulted the dignity of the senate and his own by abstaining from a personal canvass; but his friends were energetic in his support. The prince-regent was likewise said to have pledged his services upon this express condition, that his royal relative should decline a canvass. It was understood, by communication from the committee in London, that four hundred and seventy votes had been actually promised to the duke of Gloucester; and, as no one anticipated the presence of a greater number than nine hundred voters, this was deemed a pretty strong assurance of ultimate success. On the contrary, his most noble antagonist was deemed to possess no ordinary strength; the support of the prime-minister, and the conformity of his grace's politics with those of the people in power, were circumstances of great weight; and many who were not swayed by political motives, were biased by fox-hunting ones, to give him their votes; his grace's hounds being, as is supposed, among the best packs in the kingdom. The poll continued until twelve o'clock at night, when, no more votes being tendered, the boxes were closed; in half an hour after, the numbers for each candidate were declared to be as follows:

For the Duke of Gloucester	- - - -	470
The Duke of Rutland	- - - -	356
Majority for the Duke of Gloucester		114

When the result of the contest was announced, the gownsmen in the gallery of the senate-house rose from their seats, and gave three cheers.

The longevity of the chancellors of Cambridge has been remarkable; there having been only three since 1688, a period of 122 years. The duke of Somerset held the office 60 years; the duke of Newcastle, 20; and the duke of Grafton, 42 years. There have been seven chancellors of Oxford during the same period.

The ceremony of the installation took place on the 29th of June.—About half past ten, the side-doors of the senate-house were opened for the admission of the undergraduates, and bachelors of arts, not fellow-commoners, who had been previously furnished with personal tickets; they occupied the gallery, the front rows of which were filled by ladies, introduced by members of the senate, noblemen, and doctors. The front-doors were opened for the admission of members of the senate, &c. and their visitors, into the pit of the senate-house, which was in a very short time crowded, with the exception of those seats which were reserved for the chancellor, vice-chancellor, and their friends. About half past eleven, a deputation, consisting of six doctors (two in each faculty), six non-regents, and six regents, were sent from the senate-house to the chancellor-elect at Trinity-lodge; whence, preceded by a beadle, and attended by the deputation, he came to the senate-house; at the steps of which he was met by Dr. Douglas, vice-chancellor, who walked up the senate house at his highness's left hand, when they ascended the chair of state; his highness standing at the left hand of the chair, and the vice-chancellor on the right.



right. The band of music, immediately upon his highness's entering the senate-house, performed the coronation-anthem. Previously to his highness's entering the senate-house, the proctors had issued a proclamation, forbidding all expression of approbation or disapprobation "in that house." The moment the duke entered, however, he was greeted with thunders of applause from the under-graduates, who were immediately joined in chorus by the masters of arts, &c. The overture being ended, the vice-chancellor read a speech in English, and then presented to his highness the patent of office, which was read aloud by the senior proctor, the Rev. J. Aspland, of Pembroke. He presented also to his highness the book of statutes. After this, the vice-chancellor taking his highness's right hand in his own, the senior proctor administered the oath of office; his highness then was seated by the vice-chancellor in the chair of state; and was thereby installed.

The vice-chancellor's speech first complimented the duke on his military distinction; and afterwards on his strenuous exertions on behalf of the abolition of the slave-trade; and on his regularity, while an under-graduate in the university; besides other general topics. The speech, which was neatly drawn up, was received with great applause. After a pause, the public orator, the Rev. R. Tatham, of St. John's, delivered a Latin oration, his highness the chancellor sitting in his chair; the rest of the company sitting uncovered. The orator having finished, his highness, rising from his seat, and taking off his cap, replied in a very elegant English speech to the vice-chancellor and public orator, the company standing uncovered during the whole time. The speech was delivered with good emphasis and action, without notes; and it is no compliment to the duke to say, that he was the best public orator of the day. His speech was frequently interrupted, and finally followed, by unbounded applause. The installation-ode, written by professor Smyth, and composed by professor Hague, was then performed; in which Mr. Braham and Mrs. Ashe, but particularly the former, acquitted themselves with complete success. The business of the morning concluded by a procession in the usual order to the lodge of Trinity-college. When the head of the procession arrived at Trinity-lodge, they opened to the right and left, and formed a lane, through which the chancellor, accompanied by his friends, passed. His highness was dressed in a blue silk gown, (the Trinity-colour,) adorned with a profusion of rich gold lace; and was covered, during the whole time of his sitting at the ceremony, by a trencher-cap with a gold tassel.

The senate-house, the scene of this grand ceremony, had been fitted up with great ingenuity; and the accommodations were quite as convenient as so large an assembly could have expected. The ladies made a most brilliant show. The royal duke was ushered in and out of the senate-house by the firing of cannon, the ringing of bells, &c. After the installation, the chancellor gave his grand dinner in the Cloisters of Nevill's court, Trinity-college, which were fitted up for the reception of about a thousand persons. Of the entertainment it is but justice to say, that never was one upon so large and liberal a scale conducted with more comfort and regularity. Bands of music were stationed under an elegant marquée in the centre of the grass-plot of the court.—To this account of the proper ceremony of installation, we shall only add, that festivities on the occasion continued till Wednesday the 3d of July, ending with the ascent of Mr. Sadler in a balloon; and that, upon the whole, the university of Cambridge seems to have honoured her chancellor in a manner not less dignified and appropriate than that of her sister Oxford in the installation of lord Grenville. It is somewhat singular, that in both these elections the ministerial candidate proved unsuccessful.

On the 22d of April, between the hours of two and three in the morning, a fire broke out at Goullee's pork-shop, the corner of Half-Moon-street, Bishopsgate-street, which occasioned the loss of eight lives. The moment the

flames burst forth in the lower apartments, the alarm was given from without by some passengers; but such progress had the fire made, that it was too late to save the lives of most of the inhabitants. The family consisted of Mr. Goullee, his wife, three children, the nurse, a maid-servant, and a shop-boy; also a waiter of the London-tavern, and his wife, who were lodgers in the first floor. The two latter only were awakened by the noise; and they had the good fortune to escape to the window of the first floor with their bed, which they threw on the pavement for the purpose of throwing themselves upon it. The wife made a leap, and, falling on the bed, did not receive the slightest injury; her husband, who instantly followed, was not so fortunate; he came in contact with a hook, which tore his leg in a dreadful manner, but from bruises he suffered no material injury. Of the rest of the family nothing was seen, but the populace heard at intervals their cries; and this was but for a short time, for, the floor giving way, the whole of this unfortunate family perished in the burning ruins. The youngest child was only a month old.

On the 18th of May, twelve standards and colours taken from the enemy on different occasions, including the French eagle taken by the 87th regiment at the battle of Barrosa, were carried with military ceremonies; from the Parade in St. James's Park, to Whitehall Chapel, and deposited on each side of the altar. The spectacle, which was one of the finest ever witnessed, was attended by the dukes of York, Cambridge, and Gloucester, sir D. Dundas, generals Hope, Doyle, &c. and the Spanish and Portuguese ministers; besides a number of ladies of distinction.

On the 10th of June, the volunteers of the metropolis, about 20,000 in number, were reviewed on Wimbledon-common by the prince-regent. The troops from the west end of the town began to move towards the ground about six o'clock. Some of them went in the new military cars, which contain each twelve men, and convey troops with great rapidity. Most of the city-corps embarked in large boats, provided for the occasion, at so early an hour as three o'clock; and, taking advantage of the tide, went up the river as far as Putney, whence they marched to their stations. About half-past ten the general line was ordered to be formed. Then was seen one of the finest sights possible: the extent of the heath, the beauty of the day, the fineness of the different regiments, the steadiness of their discipline, the exactness of their manœuvres, the assembled crowds reaching from one end of the common to the other, all made the spectacle such an one as can scarcely be described in adequate terms. The whole of the troops were under the immediate command of the duke of Cambridge, as commander of the home-district. They were drawn up in two lines of at least a mile and an half in extent. The right rested on Wimbledon-green, whence the line was continued the full length of the common to the south-east; and the left touched the road that leads across the common from London to Portsmouth, earl Spencer's park-wall being full in their front. The prince arrived on the ground about twelve, accompanied by the duke of York, who, on reaching the centre of the line, immediately took the command of the field, as commander-in-chief. The review then commenced, and was over about five o'clock. The day was remarkably fine, and the spectators were numerous beyond all former example. It was supposed, that, including the troops, there were at least 200,000 persons on the ground.

A great national calamity having deprived the fashionable and the elevated of the annual celebration at St. James's of their sovereign's birth-day, his royal highness the prince-regent thought it his duty to provide a substitution, greatly exceeding, in brilliancy at least, all former displays of cordial hospitality on the part of the sovereign, and affectionate loyalty on that of his subjects, from the commencement of his reign to the present day. On the evening of the 19th of June this grand entertainment took place, to which there had been previously invited upwards of two thousand of the nobility and gentry of the coun-



try, the foreign ambassadors, the French princes and nobility, and other distinguished foreigners.—The doors of Carlton-house, and the other avenues of admission, were opened at nine o'clock to the company. Those who went in carriages were admitted under the grand portico; those in sedans at a private entrance at the east end of the colonnade. The ministers and household of the regent entered at the west door of the palace, in the inner court-yard. The state-rooms on the principal floor were thrown open for the reception of the company, wherein the furniture was displayed in all its varied magnificence. The company descended the great staircase from the inner hall to the range of apartments on the level of the garden. The whole of this long range, comprehending the library, and the beautiful conservatory at the west end, with the intervening apartments, was allotted to the supper-tables of the prince-regent, the royal dukes, the chief of the nobility, and the most illustrious of the foreign visitors.

It was totally impossible, capacious as the mansion of the prince is, to accommodate such a number of persons in the rooms of the mansion itself. From the central apartment of the lower range, which we have mentioned, on the fourth or garden-front, proceeded a broad and lofty walk, towards the southern wall of the garden, adjoining St. James's Park, which was crossed by three similar walks, from east to west, lengthwise in the garden. All these walks were closed in by walls, and covered by awnings made for the occasion. In each of these cross-walks were placed long supper-tables, and at the end of each walk were communications to circular marquees, in which were tables containing all the necessary refreshments for the company, with space for the numerous servants and assistants in attendance. The great walk from the house southward had in it six tables, leaving those spaces quite open where the other walks crossed it. The intermediate spaces between these were lawns, which communicated to the walks by suitable openings. The interior sides of the walls of all these grand walks were lined with festoons of flowers, yielding the most odoriferous perfumes, and relieved by the verdant and softer beauties that more towering plants and shrubs could bestow. The arched roofs were ornamented in the liveliest manner, and from them were suspended thousands of lights, in all the different forms and fashions by which illumination can be produced. The *coup d'œil* of the whole, especially from the central south entrance to the garden, was inexpressibly delightful, and even magically impressive. The entrance was under an illuminated arch; and the southern end of the walk was filled by an immense mirror, and ornamented at the top and sides with a superb drapery, and with artificial flowers and costly candelabres; particularly the long range of supper-rooms on the garden level, at the head of which the regent sat, at the west end of the conservatory, inspired the highest ideas of regal magnificence. This range, beginning from the east end, comprised the new Gothic rooms, not then entirely finished, but temporarily hung with crimson, and the library beautifully ornamented with marbles. In these apartments there were two rows of tables, elegantly adorned. The centre-room was left open. To the west, the eating-room, &c. and the conservatory, had one long table running through both. The appearance of the conservatory was truly striking and brilliant. The architecture of it is of the most delicate Gothic. The upper end was a kind of circular buffet, surmounted by a medallion, with the initials G. P. R. lined with festoons and antique draperies of pink and silver, and partly filled with mirrors, before which, on ornamented shelves, stood a variety of vases, candlesticks, &c. of the most gorgeous gold plate. Supplied, as indeed all the tables were, with every attainable delicacy and luxury, which wealth and rank could command, or ingenuity could suggest, and embellished by all the art and skill of the confectioner with emblematical devices of every conceivable appropriate description, this table displayed a still more splendid exuberance. In the front of the regent's seat

there was a circular basin of water, with an enriched temple in the centre of it, from whence there was a meandering stream to the bottom of the table, between the guests, bordered with green banks. Three or four fantastic bridges were thrown over it; one of them with a small tower upon it, which gave the little stream a picturesque appearance. It contained also a number of gold and silver fish. The excellence of design and exquisite-ness of workmanship could not be exceeded; it exhibited a grandeur beyond description; while the many and various purposes for which gold and silver materials were used, were equally beautiful and superb in all their minute details. The surprising lustre thrown upon the whole by the brilliancy of the illumination, seemed to realize all that fancy has feigned of the magnificent wonders of oriental creation.

The company, who continued to arrive from nine till half past twelve, were ushered into the state-rooms, and soon filled the house. The hall was crowded with peers and peeresses, and was made the same use of as the apartments of state. Under the grand arched door-way between the halls, was a most elegant scarlet-and-gold drapery, after the antique. The male part of the nobility and gentry were habited in court-suits, many richly embroidered, or in military and naval uniforms. The waving plumage—the elegant variegated dresses—the sparkling diamonds, and, still more, the native beauty and grace of the ladies, gave a sort of enchanting perfection to the whole of this brilliant courtly exhibition. *La vieille cour de Versailles*, with all its proud pretensions, could never have more attractively set forth the elegant fascinations of fashionable life and exalted rank. The upper servants of his royal highness's household wore a rich costume of dark blue, trimmed with very broad gold lace; the others wore their state-liveries. A considerable number of the yeomen of the guard attended in different parts. The assistants out of livery were dressed uniformly, in black suits with white vests. Two of the bands of the guards, in state-uniforms, played various airs throughout the night. Parties of the foot-guards protected all the immediate avenues; and the horse-guards were stationed in Pall Mall, St. James's-street, St. James's-square, Piccadilly, &c.

The prince-regent entered his state-apartments about a quarter past nine, dressed in a scarlet coat, most richly and elegantly ornamented, in a very novel style, with gold lace, and a brilliant star of the order of the garter. The duke of York wore a similar coat; the pattern and ornamental part were said to be like one worn by that great warrior, the duke of Cumberland. His royal highness the prince-regent came into his state-apartments just at the time the French king and princes arrived; he received them most graciously. His royal highness afterwards, during the night, passed from one room to another without any attendants or ceremony, conversing in the most affable manner with his numerous guests. The company found an abundance of amusement in perambulating this celebrated mansion. Dancing commenced about twelve in the grand council-chamber; and about two supper was announced. The ball-room, after supper, was surrounded with a gradation of conversation-seats, for the accommodation of those who chose to be calm spectators of the scene. The duchess of York, princess Sophia of Gloucester, and all the royal dukes, attended this splendid fête. Upon no previous occasion, and at no court in Europe, was ever the experiment made to set down 2000 of the principal nobility and gentry of a kingdom to a regular supper, as was the case at this fête. The largest entertainment, at the most brilliant period of the French monarchy, was that given by the prince of Condé, at Chantilly, to the king of Sweden; when 400 covers were laid. Here covers were laid for 1600 under canvas, and for 400 in the house.

In order to gratify a vast number of persons who had no pretensions to be admitted to the fête, the prince-regent was pleased to order that the rooms and gardens of



Carlton-house, in all their splendour, should be open for public inspection during the space of eight days. On each of those days great numbers were admitted, and departed highly gratified; but, on the 27th, being the day on which the permission was to expire, the crowd, from an early hour in the morning, was immense; and, as the day advanced, the scene excited additional interest. Every precaution had been adopted to facilitate the entrance of the visitors. The horse-guards paraded in front of the house, and were stationed at both ends of Pall Mall, and the various streets leading from it. The pressure to gain admittance was so great, that early in the day several females fainted away; many lost their shoes, and endeavoured to extricate themselves from the crowd; but this was quite impossible. The gates were opened only at certain intervals; and, when this was the case, the torrent was so rapid, that many people were taken off their feet, some with their backs towards the entrance, screaming to get out. The scene at last began to wear a still more serious aspect; when it was deemed expedient that some measure should be resorted to, to prevent farther mischief. Lord Yarmouth and the duke of Gloucester appeared, and announced to the public, that the gates would not be again opened; and that, for the sake of preventing the loss of any lives, they had to express the strongest wish that the persons assembled would cease from endeavouring to gain admittance. This, however, had not the desired effect; as many, who probably were ignorant of what had happened, remained in the anxious hope of being admitted at last. The greatest pressure to obtain admittance took place about half-past two o'clock. About one, the crowd in the inside of Carlton-house had accumulated so much, that it was found necessary to shut the gates. The line of carriages now extended the whole length of Pall Mall, up to the very top of St. James's street; and, as there had been a complete stoppage for above half an hour, hundreds of ladies left their carriages, and hastened on-foot towards the gates of Carlton-house. At this time you might see ladies and gentlemen coming out of the crowd covered with perspiration, and unable any longer to bear the pressure. Those who thus made their retreat in time had to congratulate themselves on their superior prudence. Hitherto all was comparatively well; and the scene rather afforded amusement than excited alarm. But the case was most materially altered when the gate of entrance was next opened. It became exactly like some of those rushes at our theatres, which have sometimes produced such melancholy consequences. Those behind irresistibly pushed on those before; and, of the number of delicate and helpless females who were present, some were thrown down, and trod upon by those behind, without the possibility of being extricated. When at last the crowd got on the inside of Carlton-house gates, four females were found in a state of insensibility, lying on their backs on the ground, with their clothes almost completely torn off. One young lady, elegantly attired, or rather who had been so, presented a shocking spectacle; she had been trodden on until her face was quite black from strangulation, and every part of her body bruised to such a degree, as to leave little hopes of her recovery. An elderly lady had her leg broken, and was carried away in a chair; and two others were also seriously hurt; but, on being bled, were restored to animation. One of them was able to walk home; the other was led by two men. The situation of almost all the ladies who were involved in this terrible rush was truly deplorable. Very few of them could leave Carlton-house until furnished with a fresh supply of clothes. They were to be seen all round the gardens, most of them without shoes or gowns; and many almost completely undressed, and their hair hanging about their shoulders. The crowd on the outside at one time made the horse-guards recede several paces, when the animals became restive to an alarming degree, rearing on their hind legs, and beating down all within their reach with their fore ones; several women were trodden under

foot, and received considerable injury; and five or six men were so overcome, that they fainted, and were carried off.

At the latter end of July arrived at Liverpool, from Sierra Leone, a brig called the Traveller, perhaps the first vessel that ever reached Europe entirely owned and navigated by negroes. This brig is owned and commanded by Paul Cuffee, the son of a negro-slave imported into America. Her mate, and all her crew, are negroes, or the immediate descendants of negroes. Captain Cuffee is about fifty-six years of age; has a wife (a negress), and six children, living at New Bedford, Massachusetts, of which state he is a citizen. When captain Cuffee's father (who had acquired his freedom) died, he left a family almost unprovided for; but he laboured hard to support them. He began trade in a small boat, and, after a while, almost by himself, built a larger vessel, in which he worked some years with assiduity. Having met a person wishing to impart some knowledge of navigation, his ideas were enlarged, and with his prospects he enlarged his efforts to succeed. Happily for him and his family, his mind received religious instruction from the society of friends, and he attached himself to that respectable body, adopted their dress and language, and is now a very respectable member of that community. When Clarkson's History of the Abolition of the Slave Trade fell into his hands, it awakened all the powers of his mind to a consideration of his origin, and the duties he owed to his people. With the view of benefiting the Africans, he made a voyage to Sierra Leone, and with the same object came to England. Capt. Cuffee is of an agreeable countenance, and his physiognomy truly interesting; he is both tall and stout, speaks English well, dresses in the quaker-style, with a large flapped white hat. He came to London, to confer on his favourite topic with the directors of the African Institution; and soon after returned to America with a cargo.

A reward of one hundred pounds having been offered for the discovery of a theft committed on-board the Archduke Charles, recently arrived in the river from Lima, with a quantity of silver bullion, indigo, &c. a publican, who had been accustomed to serve beer in the London Docks, came forward on the 3d of August, and offered to discover his accomplices in the robbery in question, provided he should be admitted king's evidence, and be entitled to the reward. Some doubts being suggested as to his knowledge of the fact, he proposed to take the gentleman, broker to the ship, to the several places where the stolen silver was secreted. He accordingly took him to the coal-hole of the ship, where was concealed a bag of silver weighing 47lb. Under a watch-box in the docks, and amongst some flax, he pointed out further quantities, all of which were to be conveyed out of the docks the first convenient opportunity. Besides these, a quantity was traced to Uther-street, Water-lane, Fleet-street, which had been conveyed from the docks in the inside of porters' knots, without the least suspicion. The publican, having discovered the property to the parties concerned, next directed the Thames-police officers to the thieves, who turned out to be labourers in the London Docks, and a watchman, one of our faithful guardians of the night, besides himself.—They were all secured the same night; and were afterwards brought to trial and convicted, and the greatest part of the property recovered.

A comet, which had been observed for some months previously in France, became visible to the naked eye in England at the beginning of September, and continued to be a splendid and striking object during all the clear weather of the autumn.—The following observations on this comet were made at Gottingen, and published the 20th of September.

“The comet which is now visible on the horizon in the northern part of the heavens, is one of the most remarkable that has ever been observed. None has ever been so long visible; and, consequently, none has ever afforded such certain means of information with respect to its orbit.

Accordingly,



Accordingly, since the 25th of March last, when it was first perceived by M. Flauguergues, at Viviers, in the south of France, its course has been regularly traced; nor shall we lose sight of it till the month of January, 1812. Its train, which occupies a space of 12 degrees, exhibits several curious phenomena. It is not immediately connected with the comet, as if it were an emanation from it; but forms, at a distance from the nucleus, a wide belt, the lower part of which girds, without coming in contact with, it, much in the same manner as the ring of Saturn; and this belt extends itself in two long luminous fascies, one of which is usually rectilinear, while the other, at about the third of its length, shoots forth its rays with a slight curve like the branch of a palm-tree; nevertheless this configuration is subject to change. It has been observed, that the space between the body of the comet and its train is occasionally filled; and of the two fascies, that which is generally rectilinear sometimes arches its rays, while those of the other assume the form of right lines. Finally, rays, or as it were plumes, of ignited matter, have been seen to issue from the lower extremities of the fascies, or flakes, and again unite.

"As to the nucleus, or the comet itself, it has been found impossible, even with the aid of the best telescopes, to make observations on its disk, as on that of a solid body and of determinate circumference. We can only discern a vague circular mass, more luminous than the train, particularly towards the centre; but the verge of which is doubtful, furnishing to the eye no fixed outline of demarcation. This mass is without doubt composed of a very subtle substance, as is probably that of all comets. This hypothesis receives much support from the fact, that one of these stars, of very considerable magnitude, (the first comet in 1770,) passed and re-passed through the very middle of the satellites of Jupiter without occasioning amongst them the slightest disorder. There is every reason to believe, that the nucleus of the present comet is nothing more than a conglomeration of vapours of very little density, so little perhaps as to be transparent. Whether this be the case or not, might be easily ascertained, if those who are in the habit of observing it would watch the moment of its transit athwart the disk of some star, the rays of which would have sufficient power to perforate it, if transparent. Such a body might very possibly be an incipient world, just passed its gaseous state, and which was to derive solidity from the precipitation and condensation of the matter surrounding it. The successive observation of some comets, in which it may be possible to distinguish the different stages of chaos and progressive formation, can alone furnish any knowledge with respect to this point."

The following observations were made by a gentleman at Epping, and dated Oct. 16.—"The comet was in its ascending node on the 11th of July, at a distance of 138,117,270 miles from the sun; its motion retrograde, its orbit passing close (within 39 minutes) to the north pole of the heavens. It was nearest the sun on the 12th of September, and to the earth on the 11th of October, when its distance from the latter body was 113,630,450 miles. On the 22d it will be equidistant from the earth and sun; and, in about three days after, its distance from the earth will begin to increase very rapidly, and therefore we must expect its brilliancy, its apparent size, and length of tail, to diminish in a similar ratio.

October 11, it was 113,630,450 Miles from the Earth.

12, - - -	113,948,225	=====
22, - - -	116,205,900	=====
25, - - -	118,306,540	=====
Nov. 1, - - -	126,616,000	=====
19, - - -	214,730,400	=====

Had this comet made its appearance about five months earlier, the position of the earth would have been such as to have rendered their *minimum* distance from each other much less than at present; and, instead of a tail of 12 degrees, it would have appeared to extend over more than

30 degrees of the heavens; its nearest distance from the earth would have been no more than 44,405,850 miles, and its apparent diameter would have been increased nearly in the inverse ratio of its distance. This comet is certainly much larger than the moon, but it is difficult to measure its diameter, owing to the dense atmosphere that surrounds it; yet, from its distance, and the apparent size of its nucleus, it must be a body of considerable magnitude: its tail is not less than 49,401,900 miles in length."

According to Mr. Starck, an astronomer at Augsburgh, the comet was, October 16, at the distance of 32 millions of geographical miles (15 to a degree) from the earth: this is the nearest approach of these two celestial bodies. The tail of the comet was 800,000 miles in length, and the diameter of the nucleus about 860 miles.—For a complete view of the theories relative to comets, and their tails, see the article ASTRONOMY, vol. ii. p. 400-406.

On the 11th of September, it was discovered, that the several presses in Buckingham-house, which contained her majesty's court and other most valuable dresses, had been opened, and the contents, amounting in value to 2000l. stolen. Her majesty's wardrobe had been kept in St. James's palace previously to the late fire, in Jan. 1809, at which time it was removed to Buckingham-house. It was usual for the female domestic who had the care of the contents of the presses to inspect them once a-year; but, from the king's illness, these "youthful hose well-fav'd" had not been wanted, and, consequently, they were not opened until that day, when it was found the dresses were gone; but the papers which contained them were left, and a baize which covers the whole was carefully placed over the papers, &c. No injury had been done to the locks on the several presses; and no one could have committed the robbery without being well acquainted with the premises. According to the statement of Mr. Hanson, locksmith to the royal family, the locks could have been opened only by a duplicate or a skeleton key; and a duplicate key could not have been made without taking off the lock. In either case, none but a skilful lockman could have opened the locks, as they were of the best kind. So much had been purloined, that, according to the statement of sir William Parsons, half a dozen men could not have carried away the stolen property at once.

In the month of October, a very interesting discovery was made in Cornwall. A regular vein of silver was found just on the Cornish side of the river Tamar. Although small quantities of this precious metal have frequently been got in cross-veins in the mines of Cornwall, yet no regular silver lode had ever before been met with. This vein was found, and traced from the surface; and is now regularly worked as a silver-mine. The ore yields 60 per cent. of metal.

The public tranquillity had been little disturbed, notwithstanding the pressure of the times, during the greatest part of the year; but, before its termination, a series of disorders broke out, which soon put on a serious aspect, and were the prelude of a riotous and mischievous disposition in a large tract of the manufacturing districts. Their commencement was in the neighbourhood of Nottingham, the holders of which town having been obliged, from the decrease of demand for their manufactures, to discharge many of their workmen, much distress necessarily ensued for want of employment. This was enhanced by the new application of a certain wide frame in the weaving of stockings; whereby a considerable saving of manual labour was produced, and a consequent further diminution of hands. On the 10th of November, a number of weavers, assembling near Nottingham, began forcibly to enter houses in which were frames of this kind, and destroy them. On the 11th they appeared before the house of a manufacturer at Bullwell, which was barricaded by the owner, who had also armed his men in its defence. On attempting to break in, the mob was fired at, and one person killed. This roused them to fury; and in increased numbers they renewed their attack, made an entry, (the family having



having escaped to save their lives,) and burnt every thing in the house. This act seemed a signal for more extensive outrages, which spread over the circumjacent towns and villages. Though the obnoxious frames were the chief object of their hostility, they began to declare enmity against millers, corn-dealers, and all whom they supposed instrumental in raising the price of provisions. The magistrates at length found it necessary to call in the aid of the military; but, before any number of them could be collected, much further mischief was done. And, even after a sufficient force was stationed at Nottingham to suppress any open violations of the peace in that vicinity, the destruction of frames still continued, as it could be easily effected by small parties, which finished their business, and dispersed, before notice was given of their assembling. Their proceedings appeared to be directed by a spirit of system that rendered them the more dangerous. The rioters assumed the name of *Luddites*, and acted under the authority of an imaginary *Captain Ludd*; which name seems to have signified, not one individual, but a secret committee of management. The spirit of tumult spread into the neighbouring counties of Derby and Leicester, in the manufacturing parts of which many frames were destroyed during the month of December, though Nottinghamshire still continued the principal scene of mischief; and an advance of pay to the workmen had not the desired effect of restoring order. The disturbances at length became so serious as to excite the attention of government, and were by no means suppressed at the close of the year. The rioters, whose great object seems to have been the demolition of frames detrimental to their usual course of employ, proceeded with a caution and regularity that denoted a systematic plan, and rendered ineffectual the exertions of power to defeat their measures, and bring them to justice.

On the 22d of November, a new-invented vessel, named the *Constellation*, intended to sail against wind and tide, arrived above Blackfriars-bridge, from Bristol. The vessel is about fifty feet in length, with only one mast made of iron, and an upright windlass affixed to it; there are twelve horizontal sails, similar to the shape of window-shutters, which are extended or shortened in an instant; on any occasion, the mast, with all its appendages, is also as quickly struck. It has neither blocks, nor any running rigging, except a fore and aft stay and cable; the guns, which are of curious mechanism, will keep their own elevation.

On the morning of the 27th, the city was thrown into considerable agitation by the report of two explosions, which were heard at an interval of little more than a second, and which were attributed to an earthquake. It was afterwards ascertained that they were occasioned by the powder-mills in the vicinity of Waltham-Abbey taking fire. Seven of the workmen lost their lives; and another was shockingly scorched and bruised. The consternation that prevailed in the neighbourhood was such as language could not describe: the people fled terrified from their habitations, imagining that the explosion was an earthquake. At Stepney a mirror of plate-glass was broken by the shock; at Hackney several panes of glass were forced in; and at Blackwall the windows of a whole street were shattered.

On the 31st, at about twenty minutes before three in the morning, a shock, resembling that of an earthquake, was felt very generally in the towns of Portsmouth, Portsea, and Gosport, and their vicinity. It was instantaneous, and caused such a tremendous motion in many houses, that as many as twenty families were awakened by it, and sprang out of bed to ascertain its cause. To many persons whom it awoke, it appeared as though some heavy body had been moved in the lower part of the house, and shook its whole fabric; to others, it was a sudden motion of the bed, as though caused by the main strength of a person standing near it; the furniture in the rooms cracked, and the handles of drawers moved, as by

an electric shock. It appeared to have lasted near a minute. Similar effects were felt at Ryde in the Isle of Wight, at Arundel, Midhurst, and Petworth; but chiefly along the coast, at Bosham, Siddleham, Selsea, Pagham, Bognor, Havant, Emsworth, &c.

The pen of the historian recoils when it falls to his lot to record bloody deeds, and to ensanguine the pages of his annals with acts of foul murder and unprovoked assassination. Yet he must be faithful to his duty; and, whilst he writes with heartfelt horror, impose silence, if possible, on his offended feelings. We thank most gratefully that Providence who watches over the security of our lives, that we have not oftener to relate such horrid transactions as the following; and grieve at the same time, that the suicide of one of the perpetrators has, for the present, cast a veil of mystery over the cause and particulars of these abominable deeds. But, although the secret proceedings of the infallible tribunal of Eternal Justice are slow, yet they are sure, and will, sooner or later, bring forth the concealed authors of the crime:

*Raro antecedentem scelusum*

*Deferuit pede pana claudo.* Hor. iii. 2.

Yet with sure steps, though lame and slow,  
Vengeance o'ertakes the trembling villain's speed. *Francis.*

Indeed the time which elapses between the commission of the crime and the execution of the criminal, seems often to have been purposely lengthened by Providence, in order to add the unavoidable tortures of a guilty conscience to the chastisement prescribed by the law; in such a way, that death becomes often rather a release than a punishment inflicted upon the wretch.

About twelve o'clock at night, on Saturday the 7th of December, Mr. Marr, mercer, at N<sup>o</sup> 29, Ratchiff-highway, sent out his female servant to buy some oysters for supper, whilst he was shutting up the shop-windows. On her return, in about a quarter of an hour, she rang the bell repeatedly without being let in. This alarmed her; and she communicated her fears to Mr. Parker, the adjoining neighbour, who obtained admission by the back way. On entering the warehouse, he beheld a spectacle which so petrified him with horror, that it was with difficulty he could make known the sad catastrophe which had befallen the whole of this unfortunate family. Mr. Marr was found lying near the window, dead, with his skull broken. His wife, who, it would seem, had come to his relief from below on hearing a scuffle, had been met by the villains at the top of the stairs, where she was found deprived of life; her head was too shockingly mangled for description. The shop-boy, to all appearance, had made more resistance than the rest, or else they had not made so sure of their blow; for the counter, which extends the whole length of the warehouse, was found bespattered with his blood and brains from one end to the other; and the body of the unfortunate youth lay prostrate on the floor, weltering in his gore. Nor did the work of the blood-thirsty villains stop here: even a child in the cradle, only four months old, found, in its infancy, innocence, and incapacity of impeaching them, no protection from their barbarous hands: it was discovered with its throat cut from ear to ear. Such refined cruelty is hardly surpassed in the annals of human depravity. With such silence were these murders committed, that not the least noise was heard by the neighbours during the absence of the servant-girl for the oysters. The watchman on that beat, we understand, had on all occasions shown himself both attentive and faithful to the neighbours; and it was every night his custom to examine Mr. Marr's window-shutters. On this occasion he reports, that a little after twelve o'clock he found some of the window-shutters not fastened, and called to those he heard within to acquaint them with it; and received for answer, "We know it." It was no doubt the murderers who answered, after the accomplishment of their work of death! The repeated ringing of the bell induced them



to suppose they had been discovered, as they made off without taking any of the property; and in their hurry they left behind them the instrument with which they had perpetrated the fatal deeds. It is described as an iron-headed mallet, such as is used by carpenters. It remains a matter of conjecture, whether the villains rushed in at the door while Mr. Marr was shutting up the shop, or got in the back way. At any rate, it seems evident, that their object, in the first instance, was to destroy the whole of the family; and that the servant owed her life entirely to the accident of being out on an errand. Mr. and Mrs. Marr were a young couple, had been married about eighteen months, and were respected by the neighbourhood.

On the 19th of the same month, (while the above murders were fresh in the minds of the neighbours, and while patrols and police-officers were more than usual on the alert,) between eleven and twelve o'clock at night, another scene of sanguinary atrocity was acted near the same place, in Ratcliff-highway, equalling in barbarity the murders of Mr. Marr and family. Three persons, all considerably upwards of fifty years of age, were butchered by some ruffians yet unknown. The following particulars are the substance of what has transpired with respect to this fresh instance of ferocity. Mr. Williamson and his wife kept the King's Arms public-house, in New Gravel-lane; and the inmates of their house consisted of an old woman, who collected pots and waited in the tap-room; a little girl about fourteen years old, their grand-daughter; and a man named John Turner, their lodger. A little before eleven at night, Turner came home; and, after wishing his landlord and landlady a good night, went up stairs to bed. Mr. Williamson was then preparing to shut up his house. Turner, almost immediately after he got into bed, fell into a sound sleep, in which he continued for about half an hour, when he was awakened by a noise below stairs. He listened a few moments, and heard the servant-maid crying out "We are all murdered." He stole down stairs undressed, and cautiously looked through the taproom-door, which had a glass window in it. The first object that he saw, was a man dressed in a drab shaggy bear-skin coat, stooping over the body of Mrs. Williamson, which was lying at the fire-side. He could not see what the man was doing, but he heard the jingling of money, and supposed he was rifling her pockets. His ears were then assailed by the deep sighs of a person in the agonies of death. Terrified beyond description, he ran up stairs to the top of the house, with a view to make his escape. In his fright he could not find the trap-door in the roof; he therefore returned to his own room, threw up the window, and, tying the sheets of his bed together, and fastening them to the bed-posts, he descended safely to the ground, with the assistance of the watchman, who, happening to pass at that instant by the house, received him in his arms. The neighbourhood was then immediately alarmed. It was yet an early hour, not twelve, and several people soon assembled round the house. The door was knocked at, but, no answer being made, was broke open with an iron crow. Upon entering the tap-room, the bodies of Mrs. Williamson and the maid (Bridget Harrington) were found besmeared with blood, with their heads towards the fire-place. The head of the latter was almost severed from her body, and the skull itself fractured in the most frightful manner, the brains protruding. Mrs. Williamson had also her throat cut, and her head very much shattered. Those who entered then went down stairs, and just in the cellar they found the body of Mr. Williamson lying lifeless, with a long iron bar under his body: his throat was dreadfully cut on the right side: the wound appeared to have been made in the front of the neck by some stabbing-instrument, and afterwards enlarged whilst the instrument remained in the first incision. His hands appeared to be dreadfully hacked and cut, one of his thumbs being completely severed from his left hand; his right leg received a compound fracture, the bones of it being to be seen through the stock-

ing. From his general appearance, it was evident that he had made a vigorous resistance. The iron bar, found under his body, was stained with blood; and it appeared to have been wrenched from a window in the cellar. The watchman, accompanied by the others, then went up stairs to ascertain whether any other person had fallen a victim of the assassins; but they found no one except the grand-daughter of Mr. Williamson, who had been in a profound sleep all the time that the murders were committing.

We have to add to this narrative, that the horror and alarm excited throughout the metropolis by this butchery, so soon following that of Mr. Marr's family, were beyond description, every house almost dreading the approach of night, lest it should bring a murderer with it. The discovery of the perpetrators engaged all the activity of the police; and at length one Williams was apprehended upon strong suspicion, which he confirmed by hanging himself in prison. No other discovery was made; but reason was found to conclude that the savages were not more than two or three in number, and that Williams was undoubtedly one of them. In consequence of this idea, it was thought proper to make a public spectacle of this self-convicted, self-executed, culprit. On the 30th of December, therefore, at midnight, the body of this wretch was removed from the house of correction, Cold-Bath-fields, to the watch-house, near Ratcliff-highway; and next morning, at about ten o'clock, he was placed on a platform, erected six feet above a very high cart, drawn by one horse. The platform was composed of rough deals battened together, raised considerably at the head, which elevated the corpse: a board was fixed across the lower end, standing up about six inches, to prevent the body from slipping off. On this platform the body was laid; it had on a clean white shirt, very neatly frilled, quite open at the neck, and without a neckkerchief or hat, but the hair neatly combed, and the face clean washed. The countenance looked healthful and ruddy; but the hands and the lower part of the arms were of a deep purple, nearly black. The arms were quite exposed, the shirt being tacked up to the shoulders: the lower part of the body was covered with a pair of clean blue trowsers, and brown worsted stockings, but no shoes. The feet were towards the horse; on the right leg was fixed the iron Williams had on when he was committed to prison. The fatal mallet was placed upright by the left side of his head, and the ripping-chisel, or crow-bar, about three feet long, on the other side. About ten o'clock the procession, attended by the head constable and headboroughs of the district, and about 300 constables and extra-constables, most of them with drawn cutlasses, began to move, and continued at a very slow pace until they came opposite the house of the unfortunate Marr, in Ratcliff-highway, where they stopped for about a quarter of an hour. By the shaking of the cart the head of Williams had got turned to one side, and looked from the house where the murder was committed; but, before the cart left the place, a person ascended the platform, and placed the face of the corpse directly opposite the scene of atrocity. The procession went down Old Gravel-lane, along Wapping High-street, entered New Gravel-lane by Wapping-wall, and continued slowly to approach the spot where the second murder was perpetrated; on reaching which, it stood for another quarter of an hour, and then proceeded, again entering Ratcliff-highway, and passing along it until it came to Cannon-street, where it turned up; and, on reaching the top, where the New Road crosses, and the Cannon-street road begins, a large hole being prepared, the cart stopped. After a pause of about ten minutes, the body was thrown into its infamous grave, amidst the acclamations of thousands of spectators. The stake which the law requires to be driven through the corpse had been placed, in the procession, under the head of Williams, by way of pillow; and, after he was consigned to the earth, it was handed down from the platform, and was driven through the body by means of the mallet with which the murders



murders had been committed. The grave was then filled with quick-lime, and the spectators very quietly dispersed. During the whole procession all ranks of persons who were present conducted themselves with a solemnity rarely witnessed in the east part of the town; and, until the body was lowering into the earth, hardly a whisper was to be heard in the street. Not a single accident happened, though the crowd was immensely great. Williams is buried close to the turnpike-gate in the Cannon-street road.

The close of the year was unfortunately distinguished by disasters at sea arising from storms, of which the royal navy partook in a full proportion. On the night of Dec. 4th, the Saldanha frigate of 32 guns, the Hon. Capt. Pakenham, was lost off Lough Swilley on the northern coast of Ireland, and every soul on-board perished. One man alone got to land, but in so exhausted a state that he soon expired.

A dreadful gale in the German Ocean, on the 24th of December, was the occasion of a much more serious loss. The Hero, of 74 guns, Capt. Newman, with the Grafshopper sloop, Capt. Fanshawe, which had sailed on the 18th from Wingo Sound, with the Egeria and the Prince William armed ship, and a convoy of 120 sail, encountered tremendous weather after leaving the Sleeve; and, being separated from the rest of the fleet, were in company on the 23d, together with about eighteen of the convoy steering to the south-west. A heavy squall of snow and sleet coming on, the Grafshopper lost sight of the rest, and got upon a sand-bank, whence she shifted into deeper water and anchored. In the night the Hero was perceived firing guns, and burning blue lights; but when day broke she was totally dismasted, on her beam-ends, lying upon the Haak-sand, off the Texel-land, the crew all crowded together on the poop and fore-castle. She hoisted a flag of truce, and fired a gun, and soon after some small vessels were seen plying out of the Texel to her assistance; but the violence of the wind, and a flood-tide, rendered all their

exertions ineffectual; and she went to pieces, not a single person escaping to tell her tale! The Grafshopper, after encountering much danger, was carried into the Texel, and her crew made prisoners to the squadron of Adm. de Winter, who treated them with great humanity. Several ships of the convoy shared the fate of the unfortunate Hero.

The Baltic convoy had previously, in the month of November, undergone some severe storms while yet in and near the Belt, by which several were driven on-shore, and came into the hands of the Danes. The convoy was under the care of admiral Reynolds, on-board the St. George of 98 guns, which suffered so much that she was obliged to cut away all her masts. She finally left the Baltic, with the Defence, of 74 guns, Capt. Atkins, and was proceeding homewards; when, on the morning of the fatal 24th of December, they were both stranded on the western coast of North Jutland. The Defence first took ground, and in half an hour went entirely to pieces, all her crew being drowned with the exception of five seamen and a marine, who got to shore upon pieces of the wreck. The St. George immediately let go her anchor; but, in bringing up, took the ground abaft. It was impossible to assist them from the shore; and all the boats that were hoisted out were driven from the ship, one excepted, in which about twenty men attempted to save themselves; but it upset by the ship's side, and all were drowned. Eleven of the crew only got on-shore on pieces of the wreck; and, when the last of them left the St. George, on the afternoon of the 25th, the admiral, and captain Guion, commander of the ship, were lying dead beside each other on the quarter-deck, as were also more than five hundred of the crew. Only about fifty remained alive, whose cries were heard till it was dark; the ensuing night terminated their sufferings. With these ships were lost nearly 1400 men, who, added to those lost in the Hero and Saldanha, form a greater diminution of British seamen than has occurred in some of the most glorious naval battles.

Comparative Statement of the Population of Great Britain in the Years 1801 and 1811; ordered by the House of Commons to be printed, Jan. 17, 1812.

	Males.	Females.	Total, 1801.	Males.	Females.	Total, 1811.	Increase.
England - - - -	3,987,935	4,343,499	8,331,434	4,555,257	4,944,143	9,499,400	1,167,966
Wales - - - -	257,178	284,308	541,546	289,414	317,966	607,380	65,834
Scotland - - - -	734,581	864,487	1,599,088	825,377	979,487	1,804,864	208,180
Army, Navy, &c. -	470,598	-	470,598	640,500	-	640,500	169,902
<b>Totals</b>	<b>5,450,292</b>	<b>5,492,354</b>	<b>10,942,646</b>	<b>6,310,548</b>	<b>6,241,596</b>	<b>12,352,144</b>	<b>1,611,882</b>

Of London in particular.

	Males.	Females.	Total, 1801.	Males.	Females.	Total, 1811.	Increase.
London (City) - -	-	-	-	57,062	59,693	116,755	-
Westminster - -	70,986	82,286	153,272	74,530	87,543	162,077	8,805
Borough - - - -	26,761	29,924	56,685	28,579	32,590	61,169	4,484
Holborn District -	79,035	101,787	180,822	96,264	127,815	224,079	44,257
Finsbury District -	33,585	39,683	73,268	44,262	52,383	96,645	23,377
Tower Division - -	77,366	94,619	171,985	86,748	125,121	211,869	39,884
Surry Division - -	47,199	59,831	107,330	64,219	81,346	145,563	38,233
Middlesex Division	27,364	35,191	62,555	34,177	46,770	80,947	18,392
<b>Totals</b>	<b>362,296</b>	<b>443,321</b>	<b>805,617</b>	<b>483,781</b>	<b>615,323</b>	<b>1,099,104</b>	<b>177,432</b>

The above statement for the city of London includes the whole of the 105 parishes within the boundaries. The population of the city has not increased within the last ten years, because its limits are fixed, and a great number of houses are yearly converted into warehouses, &c.

In the estimate for the Surry-district, twelve parishes are included, viz. Christchurch, Lambeth, Newington, Camberwell, Putney, Clapham, Wandsworth, Rotherhithe, Streatham, Battersea, Bermondsey, and Richmond.—The Middlesex parishes are Kensington, Chelsea, Fulham, Hammersmith, Chiswick, Ealing, Edmonton, Tottenham, Enfield, Harrow, Twickenham, Staines, and Uxbridge. This account, therefore, will be observed to take in many places remote from the metropolis. The population of

the latter alone, reckoning the connected buildings called London, may be estimated at 945,068.—By the return of population for Scotland, it appears that Glasgow now contains 108,830 inhabitants, and consequently is, in point of population, the second city in Great Britain. Edinburgh contains 103,143; and is the third; after which come Manchester and Liverpool, the former 98,573, and the latter 98,371.—The figures given above in the column of Increase are not to be fully relied on, because in the year 1801 the returns were very defective, owing to the apprehension of a poll-tax.

According to the tables published in the Almanac of the French Board of Longitude, the population of the French empire amounted at this time to 43,937,144 souls.



Of this number, it is supposed that 28 millions speak the French language, 6,453,000 the Italian, 4,063,000 the Dutch or Flemish, 967,000 the Breton, and 108,000 the Basque.—We have copied this list the rather, because, from the present aspect of things, whether for war or peace, these numbers will probably appear greatly diminished when another census shall be taken.—The population of the states connected with the system of France, including Italy, Switzerland, Spain, the Confederation of the Rhine, &c. was estimated at 38,141,541 souls.

1812. This year will certainly afford to our readers sufficient matter for interest, on account of the variety and importance of its events. Of these, the most prominent in magnitude and interest was undoubtedly the invasion of one great empire by the collected force of the still greater empire, which in its spread had left itself no other adequate antagonist. The conflagration of a capital, the horrid carnage consequent upon well-fought battles between countless hosts, the still more lavish and lamentable waste of lives occasioned by the rigours of winter combining with the distresses of retreat, and the inglorious flight of a leader who scarcely ever before returned without fame and conquest from his daring expeditions, form scenes of tragic grandeur which the drama of human affairs has rarely presented in modern times on the civilized parts of the globe.

In domestic history, the present year is distinguished as that which, by uniting all the powers of the crown in the person of the prince-regent, has made an actual commencement of a new reign, and afforded a sufficient criterion of the spirit in which it is likely to be conducted. It has also put to the test the strength of the different political parties; and, by weighing them all in the balance, has demonstratively proved the existence of a preponderating mass of power which reduces them to comparative insignificance. After all the complaints of the want of "a strong and effective administration," that ministry has been continued which gave rise to these complaints; and no want of strength or efficacy has appeared in carrying through the measures determined upon by the government. The intestine disorders which had pervaded a considerable tract of the manufacturing districts, and which assumed a character of daring and ferocity unprecedented among the lower classes in this country, were at length happily quelled by a firm but lenient exertion of authority; and the record of them may serve to exemplify the dangers attending a population forced by prosperous trade greatly beyond its natural level, whenever the sources of employment are cut off, or maintenance is rendered unusually difficult by the exorbitant price of the necessaries of life. This last cause prevailed during this year to a degree almost beyond all former example; and nothing but a solid and durable peace can be expected to prevent its recurrence.

The session of parliament opened as early as the 7th of January, with the regent's speech delivered by commission. It contained nothing of a very striking nature; and was therefore echoed, as usual, by an address from both houses, which met with but little opposition. In the house of lords it was moved by the earl of Shaftesbury, and seconded by lord Brownlow. The opposite party, of which lords Grenville and Grey were the loudest organs, reprobated the conduct of ministers; the earl of Liverpool defended the address, and it was agreed to *nem. diss.*

The proceedings respecting the speech in the lower house were rendered remarkable by an unusual circumstance. After it had been read by the Speaker, and lord Jocelyn was rising to move the accustomed complimentary address, sir Francis Burdett rose at the same time; and, having first caught the Speaker's eye, it was decided that he was in possession of the house. The baronet then, after a speech of warm and desultory invective against the principles of the war, the defects of the representation, and a variety of other matters of grievance, moved an address to the

prince-regent, intended, he said, "to embrace every point which his own sense of duty to his constituents, and to the country in general, suggested to him as essential." Accordingly, the proposed address was framed in the style of a memorial or remonstrance, laying before his royal highness all the instances of misgovernment and oppression, of infringement of the public liberty, and accumulation of abuses, which, in the opinion of the mover, a series of past years had afforded. After it had been read, lord Cochrane rose to second the motion; and in his speech particularly dwelt upon the misconduct of the war, and the little hope of final success.—Lord Jocelyn then moved the address which he had prepared, by way of amendment to that proposed by the honourable baronet, and was seconded by Mr. Vyle. Of the debate which followed, it is scarcely necessary to record the particulars; since the members in opposition, who agreed with sir Francis Burdett in parts of his statement of public evils, could not concur with him in all points, and thought that many of the topics introduced would have been better reserved for future discussion. They made however, and of course, some objections to the ministerial address, similar to those which were advanced in the house of lords, which were replied to in a similar manner. The house then divided on sir F. Burdett's address, which had only one vote in its favour besides the two tellers, against 238. Lord Jocelyn's amendment was carried without a division.

The near approach of the period in which the regency-act was to expire, rendered necessary a particular and formal inquiry into the state of his majesty's bodily and mental health; and committees were appointed by both houses for the examination of the king's physicians on these points. The medical gentlemen examined were, Drs. Heberden, Baillie, Halford, Monro, Simmons, and John and Darling Willis. They all agreed respecting his majesty's present incapacity of attending public business; and also that his bodily health was either good or little impaired. With respect to the chance of recovery; they concurred in thinking such an event improbable; but, as to the degree of improbability, there was some difference, at least in their language; some representing it as bordering upon hopelessness, others as only a preponderance of improbability. On the whole, however, it was evident that the sum of opinion was such as to exclude any reasonable expectation of a recovery; and that little more was meant by the cautious terms employed, than to avoid a positive declaration that it was absolutely despaired of. The public at large had anticipated the physicians in a similar judgment; and that that judgment was correct, melancholy experience has fully convinced.

On the motion for a supply to his majesty, made in the house of commons on the 9th of January, Mr. Creevey rose; and, after observing that it was the duty of that house to examine the several subjects connected with the revenue before they entered into the consideration of the supply, adverted to an office lately bestowed on the regent's confidential servant, colonel M'Mahon. Twenty-nine years ago it had been stated, in the 10th Report of the Commissioners for Public Accounts, that the office of pay-master of widows' pensions was a perfect sinecure, and ought to be abolished; and in one of the reports of the commissioners of military inquiry, presented to the house four years ago, the same opinion had been confirmed; and it was added, that, on the decease of the then patentee, general Fox, they presumed that the office would be suppressed; yet, in the face of these two reports, the ministers of the crown had advised his royal highness the regent to confer the office on colonel M'Mahon. He concluded with moving an amendment, that the house would to-morrow fortnight resolve itself into a committee of supply, in order to give an opportunity in the interim for the consideration he had suggested.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer corrected the honourable gentleman's supposition, that the place in question was held by patent for life; and asserted that it had been distinctly



distinctly communicated to the colonel, by his royal highness's command, that, considering the circumstances under which the office stood, he was to hold it as subject to any view that the parliament might take of it.—After some other members had given their remarks on subject, the house divided: for Mr. Creevey's amendment, 11; against it, 54.

The same subject was afterwards taken up by Mr. Banks, in a debate on the army estimates; and, a motion being made, the house divided upon it, when the ministers were supported by a majority of 54 to 38. Mr. Banks, however, renewed the attack in a different motion on another day, and in a fuller house; when the arguments against the appointment, with its extreme unpopularity in the nation, outweighed the efforts of government; and a resolution passed for the abolition of colonel M'Mahon's sinecure by 115 votes against 112.

Several resolutions were passed at this period concerning the distilleries; but, as their effect was limited to a certain lapse of time, and made no standing part of the constitutional laws, we shall not enter into them.

The next objects which engrossed the attention of the house of commons, were bills relative to the king's household; but the debates upon them will not be interesting at the present day. The whole arrangement was finally distributed into three bills, viz. the king's-household bill, the household-officers' bill, and the regency-expences bill. At the third reading, January 31, Mr. Bennet proposed a clause for incapacitating such officers as held places in the household from sitting in parliament, which was negatived, and the bill was passed. On its third reading in the house of lords, February the 7th, some observations were made upon it by lord Grenville, but no debate ensued; and the royal assent was soon after given.

The horror impressed by the murders committed in the metropolis at the close of the last year, had occasioned many voluntary associations for improving the nocturnal security of the inhabitants, which in general appeared to be inadequately provided for by the existing regulations of the police; and government at length thought it expedient to take up the matter. On January 18th, Mr. Secretary Ryder rose in the house of commons to move for a committee "to examine into the state of the nightly watch of the metropolis." After adverting to the alarming fact of the late murders, and to the unprecedented multiplication of offences of a less horrid description during the last three or four months, he observed, that in former times each parish provided for its own watch; and it was not till the year 1774 that an act passed, which applied only to fifteen of the most populous parishes, and which appointed directors and trustees under whose controul the watch, patrols, and beaules, were placed. It could be no wonder that this was found insufficient since the vast increase of the metropolis; and many instances might likewise be mentioned in which the provisions of the act were evaded or neglected. If the house should agree to the appointment of the committee, it would be for that to decide whether it were advisable to alter the system entirely, or whether it would be sufficient to enforce the present act. For his own part, he rather inclined to enforcing the present system by adequate provisions, than to establishing a new one. He concluded with making the motion above stated.

Sir Samuel Romilly expressed himself much surprised at the confined terms of the motion. Considering the great alarm that had been excited, he should have thought that a committee appointed on the occasion would have found it necessary to inquire not only into the state of the nightly watch, but into the causes of the alarming increase of felonies and crimes. That such an increase existed was proved by the returns lying upon the table, which he had moved for, and which showed a regular progress of crimes in London and Westminster for some years past. There had been committed to take their trial at the Old Bailey for felonies of various kinds—

In the year 1806	- - - - -	899
1807	- - - - -	1017
1808	- - - - -	1110
1809	- - - - -	1242
1810	- - - - -	1207

It would surely be right to inquire into the causes of this augmentation, of which many might be mentioned; but at present he would only notice a few. The honourable member then adverted to the system of punishment by promiscuous imprisonment, which associated together the most hardened offenders with those convicted of comparatively slight crimes; to the constitution of the police itself, in giving rewards to the officers for the detection of offenders of a certain description, of which the effect was, suffering a growth and multiplication of crimes instead of their prevention; and to the deprivation of morals by the encouragement of lotteries. After dwelling at length upon these topics, he concluded with hoping that the motion of his right honourable friend would be withdrawn, and submitted in a much more comprehensive form.

Mr. W. Smith followed in confirmation of the necessity of such an extension of object as that proposed by the last speaker. The late murders, he said, originated in a set of villains about the town whose existence was not imputable to any deficiency in the nightly watch; and, unless some change could be produced in their disposition, the only effect of a more vigilant watch in the metropolis would be to drive them into the surrounding villages.

Mr. Abercromby moved, as an amendment to the original motion, the addition of the following words; "and also into the state of the police of the metropolis."

Mr. Ryder acquiesced in the amendment of the learned gentleman, provided he would consent to substitute the word "further" for "also," in order that the primary object of the committee might be that which he thought of great practical benefit. (To this alteration Mr. A. consented.) He proceeded to take notice of the accusation brought against the police-officers as being never disposed to detect offenders unless when stimulated by a great reward. This, from the best information, he stated to be unfounded; and he was convinced that greater efforts had never been made to detect offenders than those in the metropolis during the two last months.

Sir S. Romilly reminded the right honourable secretary, that a reward of 700l. had been offered on the late occasions for exciting their activity; a consequence of which had been the apprehension of a great number of persons upon bare suspicion, one of whom was the brother of one of the murdered persons.

Mr. Sheridan began a speech of sarcasm and humour united, by pronouncing the proposition of the right honourable secretary the silliest that could possibly have been made. After supporting this assertion by ridiculing the notion of a grave inquiry into the state of the nightly watch, he digressed to the conduct of the Shadwell magistrates on the late atrocities in that quarter; to the suspicions thrown on foreigners and Irishmen, and the harsh treatment of the latter; to the neglect in suffering Williams to commit suicide, and the unseemly parade of his funeral. He concluded with recommending to the right honourable secretary, that, since he had shown to-night that he had not as yet thought at all on the subject of the police, he would begin to think of it with all possible dispatch. Other members joined in the debate, of which it is unnecessary to relate any further particulars. The question was then put and carried, and the committee was named, in which were the members for London, Westminster, Middlesex, and Surry. On the 24th of March, the committee presented an elaborate report, in which they suggested a variety of regulations and improvements. A bill was framed upon these suggestions; but on the 4th of July, upon the presenting of a petition against it from one of the London parishes, several members expressed their disapprobation of its provisions, on account of the expense, and the new



and extraordinary powers which it would create; and recommended its postponement.

Mr. Whitbread thought the bill ought to be abandoned, as it would produce an additional expense of 74,000*l.* a-year, without adding to our security.—Sir S. Romilly objected to the bill, particularly as the persons who were to be protected by it petitioned against any such protection.—Mr. W. Smith thought the present laws, if well executed, would be sufficient for our security.—Sir F. Burdett said, the bill contained not a word on the subject of the police, which was the matter of inquiry, rather than the nightly watch.

Mr. Brougham thought the wisest course would be, to abandon the bill at once, as it was altogether bad. He objected to legislation on sudden and temporary impulses and passions; he said the bill went to alter the whole system of police in the metropolis, and to give to the police-officers a power of an alarming description. The clause to which he had a particular objection, was that which created a new place for a superintending constable. The present constables were generally respectable housekeepers, who acted gratuitously, and who were entitled, in no small degree, to the protection of government. The present bill threw a suspicion on this meritorious body of men, whilst the committee did not think it their duty to make the least inquiry into the police-boards of the metropolis, which were eight in number, and which might have given them, in his opinion, subject enough for animadversion. To these boards the bill intended to give the appointment of the new officers, as if they had not power and patronage enough already. And of what description of persons was it, he begged the house to consider, that these boards were composed? Of bankrupts, who had turned their backs upon business for a better trade;—of lawyers, who gave up their practice in Westminster-hall;—and of lawyers who did not give up their practice in Westminster-hall, because they had none; of poets in particular—yes, poets—not one of them but had his poet. These boards were infinitely better stocked with poets than even the treasury, where there was but one epic poet. They had all a famous provision of poetry, including translators, &c. Such was the composition of these boards; and it was to them that a new power was to be given by the clause to which he alluded. The duty of the new officer would be, to go round every night, and see if the ordinary constables, the householders, were in proper attendance; that is, a power was to be given to the nominee of some poetical justice of Marlborough-street, Bow-street, or Queen-square, which he was to exercise over a number of respectable parishioners! He protested against the grant of any such power; and once more begged the house to pause before they proceeded to legislate on mere impulse, on the rash and busy principle of making laws from particular occasions.—The petition was then ordered to lie on the table; and the bill seems to have been dropped, for we hear no more of it.

On the 28th of January, Mr. Banks gave notice in the house of commons, that, the bill to prohibit the granting of offices in reversion being to expire on the 5th of February, it was his intention to render it a *permanent measure*; and he therefore moved for leave to bring in a new one for that purpose; which was accordingly given, and the bill was accordingly brought in, and read a first time. On a motion (Feb. 7) for the second reading, Mr. Dundas rose, and said, that he should expect more substantial reasons than any he had yet heard, before he could give his vote for making that permanent which had hitherto been only temporary. He understood it to have originated in a wish of the finance-committee, that those sinecure places might not be granted in reversion which they might think it expedient to abolish; and therefore a suspension of the power of the crown had been asked. Was it too much to desire that this branch of the prerogative of the crown might not be destroyed, at least till the plans of the honourable gentleman who recommended such

a measure were known? He also said, that it would be to no purpose to press the bill here; since it would certainly be thrown out in another place.

Mr. Banks moved that the entry in the journals of March 24, 1807, of the resolution of the house respecting offices in reversion, be read: it was as follows: "Resolved, That no office, place, employment, or salary, in any part of his majesty's dominions, ought hereafter to be granted in reversion." He then said, that the introduction of this bill was not in the least connected with any pending inquiry. He stated its origin and progress; and said, that, although that house, not being able to carry it through as a perpetual measure, had made it a temporary one, they had by no means abandoned their first intention. Why were they to suppose that the other branch of the legislature would continue its opposition, and was incapable of changing its opinion? As the evil proposed to be remedied by this bill was of a perpetual nature, the law ought to be perpetual also. As a measure of economy, he had never held it out as likely to produce a very material effect; but the committee had dwelt upon it as having a tendency to that end. With respect to the prerogative of the crown, it tended rather to increase than diminish it; for, if one right of the crown were taken away, another of more consequence would be substituted to it. The bill was also necessary to remedy a growing evil: many of the places recently granted in reversion were not so formerly; and what was there to prevent such a practice from being extended? Pensions were now granted in reversion; and this abuse could only be put an end to by a reprobation of the principle shown in both houses of parliament.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer treated the bill as of such slight importance, that it was not worth supporting at the hazard of a difference between the two houses of parliament.

Mr. Whitbread remarked, that the only two members who had spoken against the bill were two very principal reversionists; and he made some pointed observations on the Chancellor of the Exchequer's opposition to it.

Several other members spoke, all of them in support of the bill; and Mr. Ponsonby, who concluded, urged the house with the charges of inconsistency, and inattention to the wishes of the public, which their rejection of it would bring upon them.—The house then divided upon the question of the second reading, when the numbers were; ayes, 54; noes, 56; leaving a majority of two against the bill.

On the 10th of March, Mr. Banks moved for leave to bring in a bill to prevent the granting of offices in reversion for a time to be limited. He said that the proposed bill would be exactly the same with that introduced into the house of lords during the last year, and which had passed that house. Leave being accordingly given, he immediately brought in the bill, which was read the first time. The term of limitation which it proposed was two years. No opposition being made to it in its progress, the bill was brought into the house of lords, and ordered for a second reading on March 24.

On that occasion earl Grosvenor said, that he had a strong aversion to temporary measures, and was thoroughly convinced that these grants ought to be entirely abolished. He made a variety of observations to show the importance of such an abolition; and asserted, that, if it had taken place at the beginning of the present reign, several places which now existed would have been abolished altogether, to the saving of many millions to the state. When the bill came to be committed, on the 10th of April, earl Grosvenor again rose; and, after repeating some of his former remarks, moved, as an amendment, that the suspension, instead of being continued till 1814, should be continued to 1840.

The earl of Lauderdale said, he would support the amendment, in order to get rid of the repeated discussions on this subject, which he thought tended to mislead the public,



public, and produce a false supposition that an important saving might be made. He then went on to show that this would not be the case, nor would the bill have any tendency to reduce the influence of the crown; and he asserted that this influence was much less now in the two houses, and had been less since his political career commenced, than at a former period.

Earl Grey was called up by this assertion; and began by observing, that, though he did not attach much importance to the *immediate operation* of the measure, yet he attached a great deal to the *principle*. He would wish to show to the people of this country, suffering under excessive burdens, that parliament was anxious to relieve them; and, when a question of reform was agitated, it was of great importance that it should be carried through. He knew three offices in reversion, producing, he believed, an annual sum of 60,000*l.* which, from being thus held, could not be regulated by parliament, as being looked upon in the light of a freehold; though without that circumstance they would probably have been abolished. The proposed measure, if it did not go so far as he could wish, he approved of, as a kind of pledge of a serious intention in the house to do away those abuses which it was in their power to remove.

The earl of Liverpool said, he did not mean to discuss the principle of the bill, but would confine himself to some observations on the amendment. This, he contended, went to destroy altogether the principle of the bill. The question now was, not whether sinecures and reversions should be abolished, but whether, with reference to certain inquiries pending in the other house, they would for a limited time suspend such appointments till the result of these inquiries was known? The proposition, therefore, contained in the bill, the provisions of which would expire in two years, was reasonable; but it would be a mockery to enact a suspension of twenty-six years more. In conclusion, he said the bill should have his support in the state in which it came from the commons.

After some further debate, the amendment proposed by lord Grosvenor was negatived without a division; and the bill afterwards passed into a law without further discussion.

The disturbances in the town and county of Nottingham having continued during the winter, to the terror of all the peaceable inhabitants, and the destruction of much valuable property, and the practice of frame-breaking having been organized into a regular system, which the exertions of the magistrates, with the aid of military force, were found unable to counteract; Mr. Secretary Ryder, on the 14th of February, introduced to the house of commons two bills for the purpose of adding new legal powers to those already subsisting, for the suppression of disorders now become so serious. He introduced the subject by giving a summary account of all that had hitherto been done by government in the matter, and by stating the causes which rendered the detection and apprehension of offenders so difficult. He then said, that, by an act of the 28th of the king, the breaking of frames was a minor felony, punishable with transportation for fourteen years; but, this having proved completely inefficacious in deterring from the commission of the offence, it was his intention to propose that it should now be made capital. He was by no means a friend to the increase of capital punishments; but the present situation of the scene of those illegal proceedings was exactly such as came within the definition of the best ancient lawyers, when speaking of a state of things which called for severe punishment. This was his first measure. The second was to enable the lord-lieutenant of the county, the sheriff, or five justices, when disturbances existed, to call a meeting, and give immediate public notice that a special meeting would be held for the purpose of obtaining lists of all the male inhabitants of the county above the age of twenty-one, in order to select from them such number of constables as they think necessary, and establish watch and ward throughout the disturbed parts. He might be told that part of this plan was law already; but it was law which had fallen

into disuse. Mr. Ryder concluded by moving, "That leave be given to bring in a bill for the more exemplary punishment of persons destroying or injuring any stocking or lace frames, or other machines or engines used in the frame-work knitted manufactory, or any articles or goods in such frames or machines."

Colonel Eyre, member for Nottinghamshire, seconded the motion, and confirmed the secretary's statements respecting the riots.

Mr. J. Smith, member for Nottingham, suggested, as another cause of the riots, besides the decay of trade, a custom adopted by some manufacturers of paying their workmen in goods charged beyond their value, which he thought deserved inquiring into. He was sorry to say, that he never witnessed so much misery as when he was last at Nottingham. He allowed that the mischief was dreadful, but felt very unwilling that the punishment of death should be resorted to. He bore ample testimony to the zeal and abilities displayed by the right honourable secretary in the whole of this business; and gave great praise to the conduct of the magistrates of Nottingham, who, he said, in their provision for keeping the peace, had gone beyond the measure of the proposed bill. He further observed, that the existing law against frame-breaking extended only to stocking-frames, and not to lace-frames.

Of the other speakers, some recommended a committee of inquiry previously to an enactment which constituted a new capital offence; and thought the case was not of urgency sufficient to demand hasty remedies, especially as the mover had acknowledged that the disturbances had been gradually diminishing, and had now nearly subsided; others declared themselves convinced of the immediate necessity of strong measures. A division upon the motion at length took place, in which it was carried by 49 votes against 11.

Mr. Ryder then moved, "That leave be given to bring in a bill for the more effectual preservation of the peace within the county of Nottingham, and the town and county of the town of Nottingham." Leave was accordingly granted; and the two bills were brought in and read the first time.—The provisions of the first bill were, on the 18th of February, ordered to extend to the neighbouring counties; and, at length, on February 26th, to the whole kingdom. The bills then passed. The operation of both of them was limited to March 1, 1814; but the latter bill, we believe, has never been acted upon: the former has been (Dec. 20, 1813) renewed, (the punishment of death omitted,) and declared a permanent law of the land.

A private matter, which was discussed in the house of commons at the early part of the session, is entitled to notice, on account of its involving a principle of parliamentary law, and because the fact which gave rise to it was of great notoriety in the metropolis; though otherwise it might have been passed over in the public history of the year.—Mr. Benjamin Walsh, a member of parliament, had been guilty of a very gross breach of trust in his business of a stock-broker, for which he had been tried at the Old Bailey, and convicted of felony. He had afterwards obtained the royal pardon for his crime, on the ground that it did not properly amount to felony; but his remaining a member of the house could not but be regarded as derogatory to the dignity of that assembly. On the 25th of February, upon the motion of Mr. Bankes, copies of the papers relative to his trial and conviction were laid before the house; and an order was made for his attendance on the 27th. On that day nothing more was done than taking some steps preliminary to further proceedings. Repeated orders having been made for Mr. Walsh's appearance, with which he did not comply, but stated by letter his desire that the proceedings of the house should not be delayed on that account; Mr. Bankes rose on the 5th of March, and, after setting forth the enormity of the offence of which the member in question had been convicted, and the practice of the house of expelling for notorious crimes, particularly



particularly for pecuniary frauds and breaches of trust, moved, "That Benjamin Walsh, esq. a member of this house, having been tried at the Old Bailey, in January last, for felony, and convicted thereof, and having received a free pardon, by reason of his offence not amounting to felony in the opinion of the judges; but gross fraud and notorious breach of trust having been proved against him on the said trial; is unworthy and unfit to continue a member in this house."

Sir Arthur Piggott, in opposition to the motion, adduced various arguments to prove the incompleteness of the evidence before the house of Walsh's guilt; and to show, that, although he had disgraced himself in the eyes of society, his action was not of a nature of which the house could take cognizance.

Mr. Bathurst replied to his objections, by showing that there was sufficient proof of moral turpitude, for which no circumstances of mitigation had been adduced; that the house was not bound by technical rules; and that every one must feel the gross indecorum of such a person fitting in that place.

Mr. Abercromby thought that the principle might be carried to a dangerous extent; and that it would be very difficult to draw the line, and determine what sort of breach of trust should render a member liable to expulsion, and what not.

The Attorney-General confessed that the subject was attended with a good deal of difficulty. Of the cases of expulsion which had occurred at different times, that of the directors of the Charitable Corporation came the nearest; and, if the house had proceeded upon it, not as a misapplication of the public money, but as an act of gross dishonesty, the act committed by Mr. Walsh was at least equally dishonest.—Several other members spoke on the different sides of the question, which was discussed with much temper and impartiality. The general sense of the house was however clearly for the expulsion of one who had proved himself so unworthy a member; as was manifested by the division, on which Mr. Bankes's motion was carried by 101 against 16, though some very respectable names appeared in the minority.

The gold-coin and bank-note bill, which had excited so much discussion in the last session of parliament, was again introduced to the notice of the house of commons, on March the 17th, by a motion from the Chancellor of the Exchequer, for its continuation, with certain amendments. After a few preliminary observations, he moved, "That leave be granted to bring in a bill to continue and amend an act of the last session of parliament, for making more effectual provision for preventing the current gold coin of the realm from being paid or accepted for a greater value than the current value of such coin; for preventing any note or bill of the governor and company of the Bank of England from being received for any smaller sum than the sum therein specified; and for staying proceeding upon a distress by tender of such notes; and to extend the same to Ireland."

Lord Folkestone rose in this early stage of the business to observe upon the confident manner in which the right honourable gentleman had introduced a motion, the object of which was neither more nor less than that of making bank-notes a legal tender; and he made some observations on the extension of the bill to Ireland, though lord Castlereagh had last year particularly objected to it, because, bargains in the north of that country being made for payments in gold, it would have the effect of defrauding the creditors.

Lord Castlereagh having made some explanation relative to his opinion as referred to by the noble lord; Mr. Tierney spoke with considerable warmth against the proposed measure, as likely to bring on a most dangerous crisis for the country.—The house divided upon the motion, which was carried by 73 against 26; and leave was accordingly given to bring in the bill.

On the motion for the second reading of this bill, March 26, a debate arose, in which several members on both sides partook. The arguments against the measure were chiefly recapitulations of those before employed to show the danger of making, in effect, bank-notes a legal tender, and multiplying paper-credit beyond all limit and limit. With these were joined the injustice of extending the law to Ireland, in some parts of which leases and contracts of long standing existed for the payment of gold, and the depreciation of paper was advanced to 25 per cent. On the other hand it was contended, that greater evils would arise from leaving tenants at the mercy of rapacious landlords. On the whole it was evident, from the views given of the subject, that difficulties pressed upon it on all sides, and that nothing remained but a choice of evils. The ministers, however, were supported by a large majority; the division on the motion giving ayes 61, noes 16; majority 45.

On the 20th of April, upon the bringing up of the report, lord A. Hamilton proposed a clause to confine the dividend of profits to the proprietors of the Bank of England to 10l. per cent. during the operation of the bill; his object being to give the bank an interest in the recommencement of payments in specie: it was negatived without a division.—Mr. Taylor proposed a clause to compel the bank to employ the surplus of profit above 10l. per cent. in the purchase of bullion, which was also negatived; and the same fortune attended Mr. Johnstone's proposed clause to limit the issue of bank-notes.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer proposed the amendment of taking away from the landlord the right of ejectment after a tender of bank-notes in payment of rent by the tenant. This was warmly opposed by Messrs. Horner, Brougham, and others, as depriving the landlord of his only remaining remedy, and making bank-notes, to all intents and purposes, a legal tender. It was defended on the other side, as containing nothing new in principle; and passed without a division. The bill was ordered for a third reading, and met with no further opposition in the house of commons.

On the order for the second reading of this bill in the house of lords, April 28, a discussion took place, in which the arguments against a compulsory paper-currency were recapitulated by the opposers, and were replied to by ministers and their supporters, who contended for the necessity of the proposed measure. No division occurred in its passage through the house; but a strong protest against the third reading, signed by lords Lauderdale and Rosslyn, was entered on the journals.

It is unnecessary to observe more on this bill, than that by its amendments it in effect accomplished that purpose of rendering Bank-of-England notes legal tender, to which the bill of the preceding year had made such an approximation; and that, by disallowing any limitation of that company in the issue of its notes, and unrestricted power of coining silver tokens of less than their nominal value, the whole circulating medium of the country is placed in its hands. If in the present state of things such a measure was the wisest policy, it must be acknowledged that such a state has never before occurred in English history.

Among the parliamentary discussions of this session, one of the most remarkable related to the different attempts under the regency, now freed from its restrictions, to form a new or a strengthened administration. There had been made public in the month of February a letter from the prince-regent to his brother the duke of York, expressing a wish, that at this "new æra" his government might be strengthened by the accession of some of those persons with whom the early habits of his public life had been formed, and desiring that this wish might be communicated to lords Grey and Grenville; and also the letter of reply from those lords, in which they state the impossibility of their uniting with the present administration, on account of differences of opinion concerning the most



important political measures. But these discussions, as the negotiations entirely failed, cannot be considered interesting at the present day.

On the 20th of March, a message was sent to both houses, from the prince-regent, respecting a provision for the princesses, his sisters. It stated, that, pursuant to powers vested in his majesty, the king, by letters patent bearing date the 2d of Feb. 1802, had been pleased to grant to their royal highnesses the princesses Augusta-Sophia, Elizabeth, Mary, Sophia, and Amelia, an annuity of 30,000*l.* to take effect from the demise of his majesty; and his royal highness, being desirous to provide for their establishment by an immediate grant, recommended the subject to the consideration of parliament.

On March the 23d, the message was taken into consideration in the house of commons; when Mr. Creevey, after some observations respecting the falling-off of the consolidated fund, from which the required provision was intended to be paid, and on the late large sum granted to the regent, from which he thought the additional charge might be defrayed, concluded by moving to defer the consideration of the measure.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer, in reply, first showed the groundlessness of the gentleman's apprehensions concerning the consolidated fund; and then entered into some statements to prove that it was a mistake to suppose that there was a large disposable fund in the hands of the prince, since he had taken upon himself the payment of the debts of the princesses of Wales, to the amount of 49,000*l.* and so large a part of his income as 70,000*l.* had been given to a commission under the seal of the duchy of Lancaster, for the liquidation of those debts which had been brought before the house.

Mr. Whitbread concurred in the propriety of postponing the committee, on account of the contradictory statements made by gentlemen on both sides of the house from the very same papers, which proved that a further investigation was necessary. He, for one, had understood that the princesses were to live with the queen, and that it was on this account that the addition of 10,000*l.* had been made to her income; for it was difficult to imagine on what other account it could have been made. With respect to the payment of the princesses of Wales's debts by the prince, he thought it one of the most complete juggles that was ever heard of, for a person to undertake to pay the debts of another to save the expense to the people, when he came to get his own debts paid by that same people.

The motion for the amendment being put, and negatived without a division, the original question was carried; and the Chancellor of the Exchequer then made a statement of the proposed grant. By the acts which had enabled his majesty to grant an annuity to the princesses in cases of his demise, 30,000*l.* was to be divided among the princesses then living; if their number should fall to three, each was to have 10,000*l.* if to two, 20,000*l.* was to be divided between them; and, if only one remained, 12,000*l.* was to be allotted to her. The melancholy circumstance which had taken place in the royal family rendered it necessary that the condition of the princesses should be considered as if the demise of the crown had actually occurred; and, though they might still form a part of the domestic establishment at Windsor, he thought it of importance that they should be enabled to form separate establishments if they chose it. He would therefore propose, that to each of the four princesses there should be granted the sum of 9000*l.* per annum, exclusive of 4000*l.* from the civil list: at the death of one of them, the survivors to have 10,000*l.* each; and the same to continue when there should be two survivors only; the sole survivor of the whole to receive 12,000*l.* He concluded with moving an annuity of 36,000*l.* to be granted to the king for the purpose above-mentioned.

Mr. Tierney did not think the sum stated too much for separate establishments for the princesses; but he did not see why it should be taken for granted that they would desire to cease forming one family as at present, in which

case the sum would be greater than necessary. He thought also that the 36,000*l.* proposed might be saved from the civil list by a fundamental inquiry into its several branches of expenditure. He had another observation to make, which was with respect to the provision for the princesses of Wales, which was comparatively inadequate to her station. She was the wife of the regent, and as much the representative of the queen as the regent was of his majesty. He then alluded to the separation between the high parties in question; and to the Chancellor of the Exchequer's intimate knowledge of the circumstances, as having been her royal highness's counsel and champion in the investigation which had been so much talked of.

This hint seemed to be a signal for the members in opposition to take up the cause of the princesses of Wales, which became the principal topic of the remaining debate. In the course of it, every provocation was given to Mr. Perceval to induce him to open on a subject with which he was supposed to be so well acquainted; but nothing more was obtained from him than the following declaration:—"That neither in his capacity of counsellor to her royal highness, nor in any other character whatever, had he any charge against her royal highness, or the means of bringing forward any charge; and that he never meant to cast the slightest reflection upon her."

The bill was read a third time, and passed, on the 17th of April. It met with no opposition in the house of lords.

On the 27th of February, sir Thomas Turton introduced in the house of commons one of those motions on the state of the nation which are common at the beginning of a session, but have generally no other effect than to give large scope to the members on each side for attack and defence of the measures adopted by government. The honourable baronet in his speech took a very extended view of the state of public affairs, foreign and domestic, both retrospectory and present, from which he inferred much past impolicy in the plans of ministers, and melancholy prospects from persevering in the same system. He concluded by moving, "That this house will resolve itself into a committee of the whole house, to take into consideration the state of the nation." The debate was nothing more than a contest between the ministers and the oppositionists, in which the political points at issue between them were recapitulated; but, although several of the principal speakers took their share in it, there can be no advantage in occupying more of our pages with topics to which so much space has already been devoted. The point chiefly noticed upon these occasions is the division, as that shows the relative strength of the parties at the moment: upon this occasion, there appeared for the motion 136, against it 209, majority 73.

The subject of the orders in council, which constituted so important a part of the negotiations between this country and the United States of America during the last year, appears prominent in the parliamentary discussions of the present year; and, although their importance has unfortunately been diminished by the event—for the Americans decided the question by arms, whilst our senate was debating it—they cannot be passed over in a relation of the principal occurrences in the metropolis of trade.

February 28, the marquis of Lansdowne rose to call the attention of the house of lords to the system of policy which had resulted from those orders, so injurious to the manufacturing and commercial interests of the country, and to the welfare of the state. He specified the particular orders which he meant to consider, to be those issued in November 1807, prohibiting the trade to France and the countries dependent upon her, at the same time insisting on American vessels coming first to our ports and paying a tax there; and also to the order of April 1809, partly revoking the former orders, by opening the trade with the north of Europe. He then took a view of the effects of these orders as to their operation on the enemy; their operation on the neutral; their influence on the commerce and internal resources of this country; and their effects on its maritime policy. Under these heads



he made a number of observations which are incapable of abridgment, as they all referred to particular facts. One striking remark of a general nature we shall however transcribe. "If (said the noble speaker), at the time of the revolution in America, any one could have foreseen that the whole commerce of continental Europe would have fallen under the iron grasp and dominion of France, they would have looked to the establishment of an independent state on the other side of the Atlantic, out of the reach of French power, to become the carrier of our commerce, and purchaser of our manufactures, as the greatest boon that could have been given us. Such an event has occurred as if providentially; yet this great and inestimable advantage has been destroyed by the orders in council." His lordship then adverted to the abuses of the system of licenses, and to the system of simulation and dissimulation by which our commerce was now carried on, and which had thrown discredit on the decisions of our prize-courts: He finally contended, that every plea on which the orders of council had been founded was proved erroneous by the experience of four years; and he concluded by moving "for the appointment of a select committee to take into consideration the present state of the commerce and manufactures of the country, particularly with reference to the effects of the orders in council, and the license-trade."

Earl Bathurst, in reply, went through with great clearness all the particulars which could be adduced in refutation of the arguments of the noble mover, and endeavoured to prove the great advantages which had arisen from the system adopted by government. He also referred to the origin of this system, which he traced to the administration of which the opposition was now composed. He assigned other causes for the late commercial embarrassments; and affirmed that the clouds were now dissipating, and favourable prospects were opening: whence he could not accede to the proposition submitted to the house.—After several other lords had spoken on the subject, the house divided: for the motion 34, proxies 37, total 71; against it 66, proxies 69, total 135; majority 46.

March 3, Mr. Brougham, in the house of commons, made a similar motion for the appointment of a committee upon the orders of council. Of his long and elaborate speech to prove the impolicy and mischievous effects of these orders, and of the arguments used by the other speakers on both sides, it is impossible, in an abstract, to give any adequate idea; even on perusing them at length, the mind is distracted by reasoning opposed to reasoning, and fact to fact. The time, however, was not yet come in which the question could be regarded apart from the consideration of the support it was to receive. The ministers were still resolved to maintain their system; and, of course, the votes under their influence were given against the motion. It was, however, truly stated by the mover, in his reply, that the votes of this night were to determine the point of peace or war with America. The proportion of members in favour of the proposed inquiry was greater in the house of commons than in the house of lords. On the division there appeared, for Mr. Brougham's motion 144, against it 216; majority 72.

The bill which had been carried respecting offices in reversion, though laudable in its principle, was evidently incapable of doing much towards the relief of the national burdens; its author, therefore, Mr. Bankes, with a view of striking a more effectual blow against the waste of public money, rose in the house of commons on March 24, and moved the reading of the three first resolutions of the committee relative to public expenditure in May 1810. Their substance was to recommend the abolition of all offices which have revenue without employment, and the regulation of those which have revenue extremely disproportionate to employment (with the exception of those about the person of his majesty and the royal family), and to reduce all effective offices, the duties of which are discharged by deputy, to the salary and emoluments actually

received for executing the business of those offices. These resolutions being read, the honourable member said, that there was nothing to which the country looked with more pleasure than to the salutary principles of regulation which ought to be applied to sinecure offices. He guarded, however, against the indulgence of too high expectations of relief from the burdens incurred during war from such a measure, or, indeed, of any immediate economical effect of the motion he meant to propose; but, if the principle were once established, it could not fail of a sure though slow effect. After some further observations, he concluded by moving, "That leave be given to bring in a bill for abolishing and regulating sinecures and offices executed by deputy, and for providing other means for recompensing the faithful discharge of high or effective civil offices, and for other economical purposes." Leave was given; and Mr. Bankes, Mr. Wilberforce, and Mr. J. W. Ward, were ordered to prepare the same.

The bill thus framed did not come to a discussion till May 4; when, upon the order of the day for taking into consideration the report of the bill, Mr. W. Dundas rose, and objected to it as violating the articles of union with Scotland. He said, that the people of Scotland had stipulated at the union that their chief offices of state should be preserved; and he asked upon what ground it was that the very first offices of that country, in defiance of solemn treaty and national faith, were to be abolished?—The Lord Advocate of Scotland followed on the same side. He instanced particularly as an infringement of a stipulated right, the abolition of the office of keeper of the great seal of Scotland. The fact being denied by Mr. Bankes, he said the bill abolished the emolument of the office; and what remained of the office after the emolument? He made other objections to the bill; and said that, if it should pass into a law, it would cause the greatest confusion in Scotland, and strike the whole people with immeasurable astonishment.

Mr. Lyttleton made some sarcastic observations on the attachment to emolument avowed by the last speaker; and said that he was fully convinced that the true reason why the influence of the aristocracy was so debased, was, because these places had been continued. He gave his opinion that there was never a fitter time for wresting this power of augmenting influence from the hands of the crown, when it was known that there prevailed in the court a base system of unprincipled favoritism—when it was notorious that the regent was surrounded and hemmed in with minions, *among whom*, if there was a man of note or talent, there certainly was *not one of any character*.

Mr. Courtenay attempted to show that the proposed bill, instead of being a measure of economy, would be one of profuseness, and would tend to increase the improper influence of the crown. He observed, also, that it was contrary to all parliamentary practice to interfere with offices appertaining to the hereditary revenue of the crown, without the consent of the crown previously signified.

Lord A. Hamilton urged, in support of the bill, the dis-appointment which would be felt by the people at large, if, after the expectations held out to them, some measure of the kind were not adopted.—Mr. Balfour took the same ground, and dwelt upon the grievous burdens under which almost all classes were now suffering. He could have wished that every separate office had been put to the vote, and a bill prepared conformably to that decision. It was at least incumbent on those who talked of the necessity of remuneration, to show the reality of the service. He was convinced it would be difficult to point out ten in the whole list that partook of this character. The public money was too often given rather as a consideration for accepting office than for the services performed in it.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer said, that he felt himself bound to state his objections to the bill, both in its details and principle. In considering the former, he mentioned several instances in which its provisions were either inconsistent or unjust. With respect to the principle, his

opinion



opinion still was that it was perfectly wrong and mistaken. It went to say that the crown should not have the power of securing for its service men whom it might judge to be the most capable, if they happened not to be in a situation to resign all other pursuits in order to enter into the public service. He put this case strongly; and not without a personal allusion. He then adverted to the influence of the crown, and appealed to the house whether it was too great; referring to the division upon colonel M'Mahon's appointment.

Mr. Bankes made replies to some of the particular objections which had been advanced; and desired that, when the offices proposed to be abolished, and their responsibility, were spoken of, it should be recollected that they were rather *quasi* offices with *quasi* responsibility, neither of which appeared to him too great to be confined to such men as would usually be appointed deputies. As to the power of the crown, he said it was impossible to look at the immense expenditure of the country, with all the establishments and patronage connected with it, without being convinced that dependence on the crown was extended to all parts to a degree quite unexampled in former times. It was also no light consideration, that some of the greatest commercial and corporate bodies were in the habit of looking up to the ministers of the crown.

Mr. Canning made one of those balanced, indecisive speeches which had lately distinguished his manner of debate; but declared that he should support the bill, because he approved its principle.—That the general sense of the house was decidedly in its favour, was proved by the division, on which the numbers were, for the motion 134, against it 123, majority 11.

The bill was then re-committed, when various amendments were proposed, some of which were carried, and others rejected. The report was then received, and the bill was ordered for a third reading. This took place on June the 15th, when various objections were started against the bill, which, however, was read without a division. Mr. Bankes then moved the additional clause, "Provided always, that nothing in this bill should be prejudicial to the rights and interests of those who are now chief justices;" which was agreed to. Various clauses of amendment were then put, most of which were rejected. A motion for omitting that clause in the bill which limited the pension-list of Ireland to 40,000*l.* a-year produced a division: for the motion 59, against it 60. The bill afterwards passed the house without further opposition.

The bill did not arrive to its second reading in the house of lords till the 3d of July. On that occasion the lord chancellor spoke of its provisions with great contempt, and said that such a bill never met the eye of a lawyer ever since the establishment of law. He pointed out some of its most objectionable parts; and concluded with the motion, that it be read a second time that day three months. Some of the lords in its favour acknowledged that there were imperfections in it; but contended that no argument had been advanced against its principle, and that it might be amended in its future stages. On a division, however, the chancellor's motion was carried by 35 votes against 8; and thus the bill was lost, and, with it, all the hopes of alleviation of the public burdens which it might have raised.

After colonel M'Mahon had been deprived of his place of pay-master of widows' pensions, he was remunerated by the appointment of keeper of the privy purse and private secretary to the prince-regent. This circumstance was noticed in the house of commons on March 23, by the hon. J. W. Ward, who desired to be informed by the Chancellor of the Exchequer what salary was attached to these places, and what were their duties, as he did not know till now that such a situation existed.—Mr. Perceval, in reply, said that he presumed the honourable member was not ignorant that colonel Taylor had held the same offices under the king, and the same salary which he received was continued to colonel M'Mahon; that the

duties were various and important, although the offices would carry with them no official sanction, the home secretary of state being still the organ for receiving and communicating the pleasure of the regent.—Mr. Whitbread then inquired whether, before the nomination of colonel Taylor as private secretary to the king, in consequence of his infirmity of sight, any such place had existed; and also, whether colonel M'Mahon was to be paid out of the same fund that colonel Taylor had been.—The Chancellor of the Exchequer admitted that no private secretary to the king had been appointed before his defect of sight; and, upon being asked by Mr. Ward if he had any objection to name the adviser of the present appointment, he said that he had not the least difficulty in mentioning that it was himself.

On the 14th of April, Mr. C. W. Wynn rose in the house, pursuant to notice, to move for the production of the appointment of colonel M'Mahon to the new office of private secretary to his royal highness the prince-regent. He began with expressing his surprise at the intimation he had received that his motion was to be resisted; for surely the creation of a new office required as much as any thing to be submitted to the consideration of the house of commons. With respect to the appointment of colonel Taylor, he denied that it formed any precedent for the present case, since it was only justified by the obvious necessity of the circumstances, of which nothing similar now existed. He made some remarks on the improper time in which this appointment had been given, when the burdens and distresses of the country were universally felt; and said that it would appear to the public like a determination to create a place in order to compensate colonel M'Mahon for that of which the sense of parliament had deprived him. He concluded by moving, "That there be laid before the house a copy of any instrument by which the right honourable John M'Mahon has been appointed private secretary to the prince-regent in the name and on the behalf of his majesty. Also for a copy of any minute of the board of treasury thereon, directing the payment of the salary attached to the same."

Lord Castlereagh said, that the honourable gentleman had raised this question to a degree of importance which could in no view belong to it. He denied that there was any thing in the appointment which detracted in the slightest degree from the responsibility of the ministers of the crown. The nature of the office was precisely the same as that of any other private secretary in any other office of state, differing only in the rank of the personage under whom it was held; and there was no foundation for representing it as that of a fourth secretary of state. He asked whether it were possible for the sovereign of this country to go on, overwhelmed as he must be by the public documents that were heaped upon him, and scarcely able to disengage his person from the accumulating pile by which he was surrounded? He thought the necessity of the appointment apparent, and that there were no grounds for censuring it: wherefore he should oppose the production of the paper, which was nothing more than a grant of 2000*l.* a-year as a salary.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer repeated that this was no state-office, but simply an appointment to relieve the bodily and manual labour which the prodigious influx of public business attached to the royal functions. To show the expediency of the appointment, he entered into some particulars of the vast mass of business which came before the regent, and which afforded abundant occupation for such an officer to alleviate his labour; and he drew a comparison between the condition of his majesty, enured from early youth to habits of diligence and the routine of government, and that of the prince-regent, who came to the task at a so-much later period of life.

Mr. Ponsonby asked what was to be inferred from the argument of the necessity of the appointment? Why, that it was to be a perpetual, a permanent, office. Every future sovereign might claim the same privilege, if the precedent



precedent were established. He would then beg the house to look a little to the future. We might have a monarch whose debilitated frame would render assistance of that kind dangerous, or one whose love of indolence, and abhorrence of public duty, would equally dispose him to employ it. Would that private secretary have no influence on the government under such circumstances? Was it not likely that the sovereign would sometimes lean upon his opinions and suggestions? It was not in the nature of things but that such an officer must be a powerful instrument in the administration. It became, therefore, the duty of parliament rigidly to inquire into the nature and duties of such a post. Several other gentlemen followed on each side; some supporting the appointment on account of its utility; others persisting to consider it as merely a pretext for obtaining an additional salary for a favourite servant. The house at length divided: for the motion, 100; against it, 176.—Although the ministry were thus victorious in the house, they were doubtless sensible that the idea of a new burden imposed upon the country, under circumstances of such dubious propriety, excited much public discontent. They therefore took the hint of one of their friends, (Mr. Wilberforce,) who, in defending the appointment, had expressed a wish that the salary of the new secretary should have been paid out of the regent's privy purse; and this alteration was afterwards announced by the Chancellor of the Exchequer.

One of the debates in which the influence of the crown in impeding the due limitation of the public expenditure appeared to give the most general offence, was that on the barrack-estimates.—On April 13, Mr. Wharton moved, in the committee of supply, "That a sum not exceeding 554,441l. be granted for the expense of the barrack-department for the current year."—Mr. Freemantle said, he saw many things in those estimates which required a great deal of explanation; and he particularly instanced a barrack for the second regiment of life-guards to be built in what was called the Regent's Park, at the expense of 138,000l. barracks at Liverpool, estimated at 82,000l. at Bristol, at 60,000l. and a new stable at Brighton, at 26,000l.—Mr. Wharton, in explanation, stated that the term of the rented barracks of the life-guards being expired, if they were to be kept in barracks at all, it was necessary that they should be built; and he gave reasons for the construction of the others.

Mr. Huskisson could not be satisfied with this explanation. The expense of the barracks for the life-guards, he said, would be found, on calculation, to come to nearly 450l. for each horse, an enormous sum, amounting, according to the interest usually allowed for money laid out in building, to 40l. a-year for the lodging of each trooper and his horse. At Liverpool he thought such expense was unnecessary, as many warehouses might now be got which would make good temporary barracks. This was a time in which every expense, that could be spared, ought to be so; and he thought the reasons for postponing those buildings were fully as strong now as when he was in the treasury.—The Chancellor of the Exchequer endeavoured to show the necessity of these expenditures; and the debate then took a personal turn, with considerable acrimony, till it was closed by a division on an amendment proposed by Mr. Huskisson, that the grant should be reduced to 400,000l. The numbers were, for the amendment, 40; against it, 88.

The further consideration of the barracks did not take place till May 1, when Mr. Freemantle renewed his opposition to the estimates. The most serious objections, however, were against the proposed barracks in Marybone-park, where 133,500l. was to be expended for the lodging of 450 cavalry; besides which, there were artillery-barracks, magazines, and ordnance-stores, in contemplation. The honourable gentleman then entered into some particulars of the expense, which he showed to be enormous, and far beyond all former estimates; and con-

cluded with moving the substitution of 437,000l. for the barrack estimates, instead of 524,000l.

Several other members spoke against the extravagance of the barrack-system, and the unnecessary multiplication of these erections. One member hinted that the Chancellor of the Exchequer himself lamented this waste of the public money, but that he had not the power of preventing it, and must conform to the wishes in a higher quarter. Another alluded to what was certainly the general opinion, that the barracks at Marybone were intended as ornaments of the Regent's Park. The division sufficiently proved the unpopularity of the plans brought forward, by the comparative smallness of the ministerial majority. The numbers were, for the amendment, 112; against it, 134; majority, 22.—The effect of this public discussion was manifested when the new Chancellor of the Exchequer brought forward his budget. He informed the house that an additional vote of 90,000l. for the barrack-department had been agreed to, but that the treasury had determined to strike off that sum; which diminution proceeded from a resolution to postpone the execution of the projected barracks at Marybone-park, Bristol, and Liverpool.

The subject of the corporal punishments inflicted in the army had at different times been introduced into parliament; and one effect of these discussions had appeared in a clause of the mutiny-act passed in the last year, giving a power to courts-martial to commute the punishment of flogging for that of temporary imprisonment. See p. 246. There were members, however, who thought that the system of punishment adopted in the British army required a further reformation; and on April 15, the honourable Mr. Bennet rose, in the house of commons, according to notice, to make a motion on the subject. After some general observations on the ignominy and cruelty attending the practice which he had in view, he moved, "That there be laid before the house a return of the number of corporal punishments inflicted in the army, in the militia, and in the local militia, during the last seven years, up to January 1812, specifying the offences, where committed, and the number of lashes inflicted respectively."

This motion no doubt was intended as an indirect attempt to lessen the frequency, or entirely abolish the use, of corporal punishment in the army; and to do away the disgraceful business of flogging. No man whose breast harbours a feeling heart can think coolly of the situation of a free-born Englishman suffering under the lash; and would to God that any other means of bringing the soldier to a sense of his duty could be devised. But we must confess that, in the present state of society, (and indeed since society existed among men,) the necessity of punishing the body for the crimes of the mind has been unavoidable. The severity of the pain endured has been apparently measured upon the heinousness of the guilt; but the shame, the disgrace, attending the infliction of the punishment, has been acknowledged by the first law-givers as the most powerful coercive. We grant that the fact of flogging and of being flogged are both beneath a man who feels for honour:—but, when that precious, that irrecoverable, feeling is lost, where is the power of coercion?—Yet about this very time, our brethren of America did entirely abolish flogging in their army, substituting confinement, stoppages of pay, &c. (to which might be added, additional guards, and labour of various kinds.)—The house divided on Mr. Bennet's motion: ayes, 17; noes, 49; majority against it, 32.

We have before remarked, (p. 211.) that the cry for reform is a sort of "cheval de bataille," which the oppositionists generally bring forward whenever a lack of more interesting or more urgent matter is felt in the house. To this war-horse, we have also a "relay," in the cry for catholic emancipation. These two medley-show of sliding glasses move so regularly to and fro in the grand magic lantern of the anti-ministerial party, that no one is at a



loss to foresee when they will be stirred up again; and so regularly does the adverse party put the extinguisher upon the wick of the all-enlightening lamp, that these questions, mighty in their nature, but perhaps dangerous in their effect, become trite, trifling, harmless, and in fact a matter of course, brought down to the insignificance of a common order of the day. However, as the prince-regent had now attained to the full powers of sovereignty, and a great number of petitions on the subject had poured in from the catholics of the different counties in Ireland, supported by those of the protestant inhabitants in various parts, as well as by other bodies; it was thought expedient again to bring the topic to discussion in both houses of parliament.

On the 21st of April, therefore, the earl of Donoughmore, in the house of lords, moved the order of the day for a committee to take into consideration the claims of the catholic body for the removal of the disabilities under which they labour. The order having been read, his lordship rose to speak. He began by adverting to the petitions which had previously been read, and their object—the removal of unjust restrictions—the revival of suspended rights. He anticipated the objection, that the question was one on which their lordships had twice decided during the present session, by observing, that in both those instances it had been complicated with other considerations of a weighty nature. He then took a view of what had been done in Ireland from 1792 with regard to the catholic petitions; and alluded to the unfortunate scruples which had prevented the completion of the work of conciliation. This topic leading him to the supposed opinion of the prince-regent on the subject, he was called to order by lord Kenyon, as making use of unparliamentary language. He, however, vindicated the manner in which he had introduced the regent's name, and lamented the voluntary sacrifice of his royal highness's avowed feelings, to the assumed scruples, and political religion, of his minister. In the remainder of his speech, which chiefly consisted in a spirited amplification of the idea last stated, the following passage was much talked of at the time: "The ministers have drawn, as it were, a magic circle round the throne, into which none are permitted to enter on whom the confidence of the illustrious person has been accustomed to repose. Within its range the artificers of mischief have not ceased to work with too-successful industry. What phantoms have they not conjured up to warp the judgment, to excite the feelings, and appal the firmness, of the royal mind? But, though the evil genius should assume a mitred, nay, more than noble, form, the faint aspect which political bigotry delights to wear, or the lineaments of that softer sex which first beguiled man to his destruction—though to the allurements of Calypso's court were joined the magic and the charms of that matured enchantress—should the spirit of darkness take a human shape, and, issuing forth from the inmost recesses of the gaming-house or brothel, presume to place itself near the royal ear—what though the potent spell should not have worked in vain, and that the boasted recantation of all incumbering prepossessions and inconvenient prejudices had already marked the triumph of its course—though from the royal side they should have torn the chosen friend of his youth and faithful counsellor of his maturer years—though they should have banished from the royal councils talents, integrity, honour, and high-mindedness like his, and should have selected for this illustrious person an associate and an adviser from Change-alley and the stews—though they should thus have filled up to its full measure the disgusting catalogue of their enormities—we must still cling to the foundering vessel, and call to our aid those characteristic British energies by which the ancestors of those whom I have now the honour to address have so often and so nobly saved the sinking state." After a variety of other animated references to the opposition declared against the catholic claims, and the necessity of persevering in the cause, his lordship moved

for the appointment of a committee to take into consideration the laws imposing disabilities on his majesty's subjects professing the catholic religion.

His royal highness the duke of Sussex then rose, and made an elaborate speech in favour of general toleration, which was afterwards published with copious explanatory notes; indicating an uncommon degree of attention to subjects of ecclesiastical history in one of his exalted rank.

In the long debate which ensued, every topic was agitated which had been touched upon in the former discussions of the catholic question; chiefly, however, by those who were friendly to the concessions desired, who took a wider compass of argument than their opponents, who for the most part confined themselves to the dangers which the protestant establishment would incur from such concessions.—The speakers on each side, besides those first mentioned, were, against the motion, lords Redefdale, Liverpool, and the Lord Chancellor; for it, lords Selkirk, Wellesley, Downshire, Byron, Moira, and Grenville. At five in the morning the house divided, when the numbers were, contents present 67, proxies 35; total, 102: non-contents present 103, proxies 71; total, 174: majority against the motion, 72.

In the house of commons, a similar motion was made, on the 23d of April, by Mr. Grattan. The debate to which it gave rise, was continued by adjournment to the second day; and there was no possible light in which the subject could be placed which was not resorted to by the different speakers on each side, though in fact the whole was only a recapitulation of statements and arguments employed in the preceding discussions of the same general topic. The conclusion was, that at the hour of six in the morning a division took place, in which there appeared ayes 215, noes 300, majority against the motion 85.—Thus the catholic cause sustained a third defeat in both houses of parliament; nor did it appear that the accession of the prince-regent to the full authority of the crown had made any difference as to the sentiments and conduct of his ministers on this important occasion.

Notwithstanding the tenacity with which the ministers had maintained the policy of the orders in council, the increasing distresses of the manufacturing parts of the kingdom, and the serious disturbances thence arising, could not fail of exciting some misgivings in their minds, and rendering them desirous of making such relaxations as might tend to open the former channels of commerce. It was doubtless in consequence of these considerations that a declaration in the name of the prince-regent was issued on April 23, purporting, that the regent having declared, that, if at any time the Berlin and Milan decrees should by an authentic act be absolutely repealed, thenceforth the orders in council of the 7th of January 1807, and the 26th of April 1809, should be revoked; and the chargé d'affaires of the United States of America having on the 20th of May last transmitted to this court a copy of a decree of the government of France passed on the 28th of April, by which the decrees of Milan and Berlin are declared to be no longer in force with respect to American vessels; the regent, although he cannot consider the tenor of the said decree as satisfying the conditions of the order of April 23, yet, being disposed to re-establish the usual intercourse between neutral and belligerent nations, is pleased to declare the orders in council of January 7, 1807, and April 26, 1809, revoked as far as concerns American vessels and cargoes. A proviso is, however, added to this concession, that, unless the American government revoke their exclusion of British armed vessels from their harbours while those of France are admitted, and their interdiction of British commerce while that with France is restored, the present order is to be null and of no effect.

Petitions against the orders in council were in the meantime pouring in from the towns most affected by their operation; and at length it was agreed to hear evidence on the subject. Witnesses were summoned from Bir-



mingham, Sheffield, Manchester, &c. and examinations relative to the facts alleged in these petitions went on regularly in both houses, till they were interrupted by an event which we shall shortly have to record, and which probably had a considerable influence upon the final result.

A circumstance having occurred tending to increase the animosity of the Americans against this country, it became about this period a subject of discussion in parliament.—The president of the United States had sent a message to congress, asserting that an authorized agent of the British government, Capt. Henry, had been sent by the governor of the British territories of North America into the adjacent states, in order to foment discontents for the purpose of detaching them from the union. This heavy charge being transmitted in the American newspapers, lord Holland rose in the house of lords, April 28; and, after mentioning the fact of the message, said, that he hoped the noble lord opposite would be able to satisfy the public by a contradiction of the assertion.—The earl of Liverpool had no hesitation in answering, that no person had been employed by this government to foment discontents in the United States, and that no intention existed on the part of government to make any attempt to separate the union. He said that captain Henry was not employed by government at all; and he supposed that sir James Craig could have employed him only to obtain information with a view to the defence of Canada, in case of a war.

Mr. Whitbread introduced the subject in a similar manner in the house of commons, and was similarly answered by lord Castlereagh, who said that government had only heard, in a dispatch from sir James Craig, that an agent had been employed, announcing at the same time that he had been recalled. Mr. W. said that he was not satisfied with this answer; and declared his intention of moving for the production of the governor's correspondence on this subject.

Lord Holland, who had given notice in the house of lords of a similar motion for the production of papers, rose to speak to the point on May 5. He said, the proposition he was about to submit to their lordships had no reference whatever to the line of policy proper to be pursued with respect to the United States, but was grounded on the general relations of all civilized states; he could not therefore understand upon what objections an opposition to his motion (which had been intimated) could be founded. It went to the crimination of no man or set of men; but upon the necessity of vindicating the government of this country from what he trusted was an unfounded charge made against it. This charge was no less than that, while two friendly powers were engaged in negotiation upon certain points of national importance, a member of the British government had employed a secret agent in the territories of the United States, not to procure intelligence, which was a legitimate object, but for the purpose of inducing some of the states of the union to throw off their allegiance, and separate themselves from the rest. This charge originally came from an individual who avowedly betrayed the secrets of his own employers. Lord H. proceeded to show the dishonourableness of such conduct, and the improbability that sir J. Craig would have so employed Henry without instructions from his government, or transmitting to it the communications he had received; and he adverted to the fact, that, when Henry claimed his reward, he presented a memorial to the office of the noble secretary of state referring to sir J. Craig for his conduct, and had in consequence received a letter to general Prevost, the successor of sir J. Craig, recommending him to a valuable office in the country which he governed. Lord H. concluded by moving an address to the prince-regent, "for the production of copies of all the communications made by sir J. Craig to his majesty's secretary of state relative to the employment of Capt. Henry in a secret mission to the United States of America; also of the correspondence between the secretary of state and sir George Prevost on the subject of compensations claimed

by Henry for his services; and also copies of all instructions sent to sir J. Craig from the secretary of state relative to the employment of Henry in the United States."

The earl of Liverpool, in reply, began with repeating his former statement, that the government here had no knowledge of the employment of the person in question until many months after the transaction. It was true that a person named Lavater, going in 1803 from Canada to the United States on his own business, had, of his own accord, opened a correspondence with the governor of Canada for the purpose of conveying information; and his lordship justified this proceeding by a detail of the menacing attitude, with respect to the British American possessions, then assumed by the United States. Sir J. Craig sent Henry thither in February 1809; not for the purpose of exciting discontent, but wholly for obtaining necessary information. With respect to the remuneration of Capt. Henry, as he had a recommendation from sir J. Craig, backed by some very respectable persons in London, and it appeared that he had been really employed in services for which a remuneration had been promised, he (the secretary) had held it his duty to act as was mentioned in the correspondence with sir G. Prevost. It was not afterwards deemed consistent with delicacy to say any thing which might in the least have reflected upon the character of sir J. Craig, who had returned home from his government under a mortal distemper, and had survived but a few months. He could not approve the course adopted by the noble baron; but thought it should be left to government to pursue the proper measures to explain and set forth the subject in its true light. Nor could he approve the conduct of the American executive, which, without demanding explanation, or making any notification to the British minister, had at once laid the papers before congress.

Earl Grey thought the question was one of great importance; and wished that the charge of communicating with subjects of the United States who were desirous of withdrawing themselves from the union, had been authoritatively denied. It had been admitted that the letters spoken of had afterwards been communicated to the secretary of state; but there was no evidence of any disapprobation being expressed by him; the governor was only enjoined to be cautious in the employment of such agents, "for fear of involving the country in a quarrel with America." Under such circumstances, he thought the house was called upon explicitly to condemn the principle; if they did not so, they must for the future be silent with respect to any similar breach of good faith on the part of France, or any other government.

Vicount Sidmouth said he had never known a case so greatly exaggerated. If it were even admitted that sir J. Craig had overstepped the limits of strict political discretion, there still existed no pretence to accuse ministers, who were completely ignorant of the transaction. Sir James, in fact, in a moment of danger, had employed a person, to ascertain the dispositions of the inhabitants of the contiguous districts, who was not directed to excite discontents, but to observe any disposition that he might find favourable to the British cause. His lordship maintained that publishing the whole correspondence would be attended with a serious evil, as it would disclose the names of those Americans who were represented as friendly to the British cause, or inclined to a change in their own government; and he intreated the house not to encroach on the functions of the executive government, but to leave the affair to be settled by mutual explanations between his majesty's ministers and the American government.

After some other lords had spoken on each side of the question, lord Holland rose again to make observations upon some points which had been urged by the lords opposite. He expressed indignation at the conduct of ministers in not attempting any direct defence, but seeking to shelter themselves by throwing all the responsibility upon the memory of sir J. Craig. Upon the whole, he said,



said, a public charge had been made, and it was the duty of government that the refutation should be as public as the imputation; and nothing could clear the honour of the country, unless it were ample and satisfactory. As to the objection that had been urged of the impolicy of such disclosures as the production of the papers would lead to, he wished for none that would unnecessarily affect the interests either of countries or individuals; and he was willing to narrow his motion in any way that would enable him to obtain the specific information he desired.—The house then divided on the motion; contents 27, non-contents 73.

Another attempt to lessen the national expenditure, though of small magnitude in its object, and unsuccessful, deserves notice on account of the doctrine held on the occasion in the house of commons.—On the 7th of May, Mr. Creevey rose to call the attention of the house to the two tellerships of the exchequer held by the marquis of Buckingham and lord Camden. It was his intention to consider this as a mere question of private property between those individuals and the public. The places had been given as rewards for the services of the fathers of these noblemen, and he did not mean to find fault with their distribution; but his objections were, that their emoluments were indefinite in their amount, and disproportioned to the circumstances of the nation. The fees of these offices were of such a nature, that they rose exactly in proportion to the distresses of the country. From the report of the commissioners of public accounts it appeared, that in 1782, when they were granted, which was a time of peace, they did not exceed 2500*l.* per annum; which sum, during the American war, was increased to 7000*l.* In 1808, such had been the public expenditure, that the tellerships had risen to 23,000*l.* per annum each; and there was no doubt that the emoluments must now be considerably more. He could not bring himself to acknowledge the right of these two noblemen to derive such enormous emoluments from the public calamities. He would deny the principle so often contended for in that house, that a grant of an office by the crown was as sacred as any ancient grant of an estate, and could not be touched by parliament. When the crown formerly made grants of lands, or even of taxes, out of its hereditary revenue, it granted its own property; but now, that the whole public expenditure was under the controul of parliament, he conceived that the crown could not make a grant which was not under the same controul. The honourable gentleman then read extracts from the report of the commissioners of public accounts in 1782, which went to the assertion of the right of controul above-mentioned; and he gave instances of the present actual interference of parliament in the fees of the tellers of the exchequer. He concluded by moving certain resolutions, of which the first related to the facts of the grant of the offices of tellers, *performed entirely by deputy*, to the present possessors, and their past and present emoluments; the seventh was in the following terms:—"That it appears to this house, that parliament has at various times asserted and exercised a right of limitation and controul over the fees payable to the tellers, by excepting specific sums of money from the payment of all such fees; and that it is the duty of parliament, in the present unparalleled state of national expenditure and public calamity, to exercise its right still further over the fees now paid out of the public money at the exchequer, so as to confine the profits of the marquis of Buckingham and lord Camden to some fixed and settled sum of money, more conformable in amount to the usual grants of public money for public services, and more suited to the present means and resources of the nation."

After the first resolution had been put and seconded, the Chancellor of the Exchequer said, that, although the first six resolutions might be safely affirmed, yet, as he could not assent to the practical effect intended to be derived from them, he should move the previous question

upon them, and give his decided negative to the seventh. The tellerships of the exchequer were ancient offices, and legally within the gift of the crown. The right of those noblemen to them was a vested right which could not be touched, and he conceived the emoluments to be also vested interests which must be protected. There would be much more danger and mischief from breaking down the barriers of private property in this instance, than in allowing the receipt of the forty or fifty thousand a-year which were now the emoluments of those offices. The conduct of parliament in 1782 in not disturbing those vested interests, while they regulated the emoluments of tellers to be subsequently appointed, was a clear parliamentary recognition of those rights.

Mr. Brand admitted the legality of the grants, and the vested interests in their emoluments of those who held them. If, however, it should be found that parliament had been in the habit of limiting those fees from time to time, then it appeared to him, that they who took those offices took them subject to the controuling power of parliament. He should, therefore, wish to vote for the first six resolutions; and that a committee be then appointed to examine how far parliament had in former times interfered in reducing the salaries of offices for life.

Mr. Whitbread, while he admitted the legal and vested right in the fees of their office, contended that parliament was entitled to regulate and confine these emoluments when they became exorbitant, and beyond any thing that could have been in contemplation when the office was created, or when the present possessors obtained their grants. There could not be a doubt, that, when the house voted additional supplies, they had the power to exempt them from the operation of these fees; and, if the principle of vested right could be interfered with at all, it might to a greater extent.

The six first resolutions of Mr. Creevey were then severally put, and the previous question was carried against each of them. Mr. Brand moved, as an amendment to the seventh, "That a committee be appointed to inquire into the precedents which exist as to the deduction from, or suppression of, any fees payable to the tellers of the exchequer for moneys issued out of the same." The house divided upon this amendment: for it 38, against it 146. The original resolution was then negatived without a division.

It was probably in consequence of this motion, though unsuccessful, that the above noblemen, in a letter dated Nov. 21, expressed their intention of contributing to the public service one-third of the net profits arising from their respective tellerships; and farther, Dec. 11, if the said net profits should in the ensuing year 1813 exceed those of the present year 1812, to contribute the whole of such increase, in addition to the said one-third.—The lords of the treasury, in consequence of their offers, requested them to pay their respective sums into the Bank of England, as voluntary contributions.

The subject of reform of parliament was again taken up in the house of commons at this part of the session. On May 8th, Mr. Brand rose, pursuant to notice, to submit to the house a motion on the present defective state of the representation. He began with some general remarks on the notorious existing corruptions prevalent in the elections of members of parliament, and on the dangers which threatened the constitution from the number of members returned by places now deserted, or which possessed so few inhabitants that it was a mockery to continue to them the elective franchise. He said, that it appeared from facts which he had collected, that 182 individuals returned by nomination, or otherwise, 326 members; that there were above seventy placemen in the house, and above forty persons who were returned by compromise. How could that be called a full and free representation, in which there were 292 persons so brought in that they could not exercise a fair discretion on the subjects which came under their consideration? Having stated some more of the evils attached to the present system, he proceeded to the remedies.



Generally, he said, the leading steps would be, first, granting to copyholders the right to vote; secondly, more fairly to proportion the number of representatives to the population of each place represented. Having opened and enforced his plan by various other observations, he concluded with moving, "That leave be given to bring in a bill to repeal the act 31 Geo. II. c. 14. for further explaining the laws touching the electors of knights of the shire to serve in parliament for that part of Great Britain called England, and to entitle copyholders to vote for knights of the shire." The motion was seconded by the marquis of Tavistock; who declared his intention, should it be carried, of moving the repeal of the septennial act.

In the copious debate which ensued, all the usual topics on both sides respecting reform of parliament were gone over; and every measure which had a tendency to that end was decidedly condemned, not only by the partisans of the actual ministry, but by several of the oppositionists who wanted to get in: it was contended by these speakers, that all change in the mode of representation would be dangerous, ineffectual to cure any of the public evils, and was very little desired by the nation. The friends of reform, on the other hand, dwelt upon the obvious inadequacy of the representation, and the never-failing support given by the house of commons to every minister; a proof of the influence regularly exerted over the majority. The particular merits of the measure proposed were scarcely at all touched upon; and the ground taken by its opposers was that of resistance in the outset to every attempt at alteration. The house at length divided on the motion; ayes 88, noes 215, majority 127.

We are now arrived at a period when the historian recoils from his records, and shinks at the subject he is called upon to transmit to posterity. Of duels, of suicides, of other crimes, he has been forced to take occasional notice in the course of his annals; but the assassination of a prime minister, at his entrance into the sanctuary of the national legislature, on the threshold of the senate, and at the foot of the bench wherefrom his voice had so often claimed and deserved the attention of the venerable assembly, is one of those extraordinary deeds which require the whole of a virtuous century to efface, or make amends for them.—As Mr. Perceval, on the 11th of May, was entering the lobby of the house of commons at a quarter past five o'clock, a person of the name of Bellingham, who had placed himself at the side of the door for that purpose, fired a pistol at him, the ball of which entered his left breast. Mr. Perceval immediately staggered and fell. He was taken up by Mr. W. Smith, and with the assistance of other members was conveyed to the Speaker's apartments; but, before he reached them, all signs of life were gone. The assassin had taken so sure an aim, that the ball passed through his heart at the centre.

As soon as the horror occasioned by this catastrophe had somewhat subsided, a person exclaimed, "Where is the villain who fired?" Bellingham stepped forward, and coolly replied, "I am the unfortunate man." He made no attempt to escape; and, being interrogated as to his motive for the deed, he said, "My name is Bellingham; it is a private injury—I know what I have done—it was a denial of justice on the part of government." He was then searched, and carried to the bar of the house, which had been sitting in committee on the orders in council. The Speaker refusing the chair, general Gascoyne said, "I think I know the villain;" and, on stepping up, called him by his name. The Speaker then proposed that he should be committed to the prison-room, not leading him back through the lobby, lest a rescue should be attempted by accomplices; for the first idea naturally seems to have been, that the murder was perpetrated on a public ground, and in consequence of a conspiracy. All proper precautions being taken, both to prevent injury to others, and that the criminal might not destroy himself, and a committee being appointed to examine and give evidence on the facts, the house adjourned.

In the house of lords, as soon as the rumour of the event arrived, the greatest agitation was manifested. At length, their lordships refusing their seats, the lord chancellor, addressing them, said, that he felt it his duty to apprise their lordships, that he should take care to give orders that none should go out of the doors of that house till their lordships were fully satisfied that they had not the means of doing further mischief. This was understood as a determination that all below the bar should be searched, to see that they had no weapons; but, the alarm of conspiracy having now probably subsided, this resolution was not persisted in. The fact of Mr. Perceval's death, and the adjournment of the commons, being then ascertained, the earl of Radnor moved, "That an humble address be presented to his royal highness the prince-regent, stating, that the house had heard with horror of the attack made upon, and the assassination of, the right honourable Spencer Perceval, one of his majesty's most honourable privy council; and praying that his royal highness would be graciously pleased to direct such steps to be taken as he should deem expedient for the apprehension of the offender or offenders." This motion was agreed to *nem. diff.* and the house adjourned.

The prince-regent sent a correspondent answer to this address; and on the following day a message was received from him by both houses, recommending a provision for the numerous and afflicted family of Mr. Perceval.

Lord Castlereagh opened the business in the house of commons; and paid a very feeling tribute to the virtues and merits of the deceased minister. Amidst his distresses on this occasion, he was, however, happy to mention, that, as far as they had been enabled to investigate the subject, government were of opinion that this was an insulated act, and confined to the individual by whom it was perpetrated. With respect to the extent of the provision, he doubted not that the house would be anxious to protect all who bore the name of his lamented friend from the danger of poverty. In conclusion, he moved an humble address to the prince-regent, expressing their participation in the severe loss sustained by his royal highness and the public, and their abhorrence of the crime committed, and assuring him of their ready compliance with his recommendation.—The address was agreed to *nem. con.* and ordered to be carried up by the whole house.

After the house had delivered its address to the regent on May 13, it was resolved into a committee for considering the provision to be made for Mr. Perceval's family. Lord Castlereagh stated, that the right honourable gentleman, besides a widow, had left twelve children to the protection of the public; and that the property he had been possessed of was so moderate as to afford no possibility of their living in a style suited to their rank. With respect to the nature of the grant, he thought it would be most eligible to vote a substantive sum of money in the first instance for the children, and afterwards an annuity for their mother. The sums which he proposed were 50,000. for the first purpose, and 2000. per annum for the second; and he moved a resolution for the former grant.—Some members regarding this as too little for the services of the father, and mentioning a larger sum, Mr. Wilberforce rose, and, after making a warm eulogy on the character of the deceased, observed, that, however general the sense of his claims on account of private merit might be, yet that his political opinions were known to have had many opponents; and, as it was highly desirable that the vote should be cordial and unanimous, he thought the sum mentioned was a proper medium. The same opinion was held by Mr. Whitbread; and, the first resolution being put, with the addition, by Mr. Bankes, that the sum should be paid without fee or deduction, it passed *nem. con.* The second resolution, for an annuity to Mrs. Perceval of 2000. without fee or deduction, being put by lord Castlereagh, was carried *nem. con.*

This unanimity was disturbed, and the debate unfortunately assumed somewhat of a party-aspect, by Mr. H. Sumner's



Sumner's motion, "That the annuity of 2000l. payable to the Hon. Jane Perceval for her life, shall, after her decease, be paid to such male descendant of the right honourable Spencer Perceval as shall be at that time his heir, for the term of his natural life."—Mr. Whitbread declared his dissent from this proposal; Mr. Wilberforce expressed his apprehension that such a vote would be suspected to have originated from the political opinions of those who had usually supported the deceased minister; lord Castlereagh moved an amendment upon it, which went to set it aside; and other members spoke against it. When, however, the division took place, lord Castlereagh's amendment was rejected by 107 against 67, and Mr. Sumner's motion was carried by 136 against 23.

The report being brought up on the next day, the first and second resolutions were read and agreed to *nem. con.*—Mr. Huskisson then rose, and, after some observations respecting the situation of Mr. Perceval's eldest son, now at the university, who would come out into the world with a slender pittance, proposed that the third resolution should be recommitted, and a grant included in it of 1000l. a-year to the eldest son on his reaching the age of twenty-one, without prejudice to his reversionary right to the sum already voted. A debate then ensued, in which, unanimity being no longer the consideration, the friends of the late minister showed a determination to maintain the ground they had gained, and carry the national bounty to his family as far as the feelings of the house would permit; whilst the members in opposition seemed to think that enough had already been done for justice, and that augmentations would only be an abuse of the public generosity. Regarding the particulars of this discussion as neither pleasant nor instructive, we shall only state its result: this was, that, after the original resolution, and a motion for postponement, had been negatived, Mr. Huskisson's motion was carried.

On the 15th of May, lord Clive rose to move for an address to the prince-regent for a monument to the memory of Mr. Perceval in Westminster-abbey. This was opposed by Mr. Lamb as a clear recognition of his public services, which could not be acquiesced in by those who had disagreed with him in his political measures: Mr. Whitbread, Mr. Wynn, and Lord Milton, spoke to the same effect. Lord Castlereagh, Mr. Canning, Mr. Wilberforce, and others, supported the motion; which was carried on a division by 199 votes against 26.

Bellingham was brought to his trial at the Old Bailey, the court being sitting, on the 15th, when, there being no difficulty in proving the fact, he was, without hesitation, brought in guilty. There was a slight attempt to prove him insane; but, except his persuasion that what he had committed was perfectly justifiable, and an apparent expectation that the act would be so considered on his trial, no other marks of an alienated mind could be adduced. His execution took place on the 18th before Newgate. He prepared for his fate with great composure by the usual religious exercises, and during the whole scene manifested an extraordinary degree of firmness and self-possession. He denied that he had any accomplices in the deed (as indeed there could be no suspicion of this kind), and persisted to the very last in refusing to express any contrition for his crime.

This wretched man is stated to be a native of St. Neot's, in Huntingdonshire, and aged 42 years. He was brought up in a counting-house in London; and some years ago went to Archangel, where he lived with a Russian merchant, in whose employment as clerk he continued three years. Having formed a connexion with a Mr. Borbecker, in the timber-line, he returned to England in order to seek a contract for the supply of timber; and entered into considerable engagements with the merchants of Hull. Ships were in consequence sent out to Archangel to bring home cargoes; but, Mr. Borbecker having meanwhile become a bankrupt, the vessels returned in ballast. Bellingham, who still remained at Hull, was arrested, and

thrown into prison, by the disappointed merchants, for the non-fulfilment of the contract; and, during his confinement, or soon afterwards, he wrote a pamphlet with the intent of ridiculing the merchants of Hull. On the recovery of his liberty he proceeded again to Archangel, where he entered into various speculations, which ended in his involving himself in still more numerous difficulties. He was there very troublesome to the government, sending to them memorial after memorial, on subjects relative to his private concerns; and he, moreover, generally conducted himself with so much passion, that at length he was sent to prison, where he remained a considerable time; claiming, in vain, the protection of the British minister, who, indeed, could render him no assistance. The term of his confinement having expired, Bellingham repaired to England full of complaints against the Russian government. He married in London, but took up his abode at Liverpool. He commenced the business of an insurance-broker, whilst his wife pursued that of a milliner. He continued at intervals to present memorials to the British government on the subject of his claims; but these were concerns with which government had nothing to do. For the last few weeks he had been in attendance about the house of commons; and, a short time previous to this rash act, he addressed to several members of the house a printed statement of his grievances, requesting their interference in his behalf. It is said, that his last application to government on his affairs was made that very morning, when he received a repulsive answer, which is supposed to have confirmed him in his dark and bloody purpose.

The only other parliamentary proceeding immediately consequent upon Mr. Perceval's assassination arose from a circumstance just alluded to. The criminal, in justification of his act, which he always defended as vindictive of the injury he had sustained from the ministers in refusing him compensation for wrongs which he asserted that he had undergone in Russia, particularly complained of the conduct of lord Granville Leveson Gower, then ambassador in that country, and sir Stephen Sharp, the consul-general. His lordship, therefore, on May 20, moved in the house of commons for the production of a letter from himself to the secretary of state for the home department, lord Castlereagh, stating all the circumstances relative to the case of John Bellingham. An address to the prince-regent was agreed to for this purpose, and the letter was read before the house. Of its contents no more needs here to be said, than that it completely exculpated his lordship and sir Stephen with respect to that unhappy man, whose passions appear entirely to have obscured his reason as far as concerned his transactions in Russia.

Whatever might be the general opinion of Mr. Perceval's talents as a statesman, no one denied his ability as a skilful leader in the house of commons. His loss to the existing administration was therefore considered as a stroke which they could not possibly survive; and it immediately set in motion all that mass of political intrigue and speculation which never fails to be called into activity upon a prospect of change in the government. The earl of Liverpool, on whom the post of leader now devolved, attempted to acquire an accession of strength by the association of the marquis Wellesley and Mr. Canning. Upon the failure of this attempt, Mr. Stuart Wortley, on the 21st of May, submitted to the house of commons a motion for an address to the prince-regent, praying his royal highness to take the proper measures for forming an efficient administration. The motion was seconded by lord Milton. Long debates arose; and the conclusion, though successful, was not very gratifying to the opposition-party, as the majority was only 4 votes in a house of 344 members: and, what was extremely mortifying, the address, by a subsequent vote, could be presented by only the mover and seconder; for the motion for having it presented by the whole house, afterwards altered to one for having it carried up by such members as were of the privy-council,



council, was negatived by a majority of 2. The address was presented, therefore, by Mr. Wortley and lord Milton, the next day; and the prince-regent directed negotiations to be opened for effecting the purpose of the address.

Marquis Wellesley was the first person to whom this important and delicate commission was intrusted; but, after a short interval, he tendered to his royal highness his resignation of the authority vested in him. The same powers were next transferred by the regent to lord Moira, who treated with lords Grey and Grenville upon a basis that seemed to remove all difficulties to a final adjustment. The failure of this treaty, in consequence of a difference respecting the household appointments, with the very extraordinary conduct of lord Moira on the occasion, engrossed at that time the whole attention of the public; but these mighty conflicts have long ceased to be interesting; we shall therefore proceed to relate, that, on the 8th of June, the earl of Liverpool stated to the house of lords, that the prince-regent had on that day appointed him first commissioner of the treasury, and authorised him to complete the arrangements for the ministry—and thus a termination was put to all expectations of a change of men or measures, at least to any considerable extent. The majority in parliament, actuated either by an habitual concurrence with established power, or by the conviction that the past contests had been merely for place and emolument, immediately restored their support to the ministers, and no further cry was heard for “a strong and efficient administration.” The principal accessions made to the ministerial list were; lord Sidmouth, as secretary of state for the home-department; the earl of Harrowby, lord president of the council; and Mr. Vanstuart, chancellor of the exchequer.

Whilst this political ferment was agitating the different parties of candidates for ministerial power, the examinations in reference to the effects of the orders in council upon the commercial and manufacturing interests in the kingdom were going on with little interruption in both houses of parliament. A vast mass of evidence being at length collected, Mr. Brougham, on June 16th, brought the matter for final decision before the house of commons. He began his speech with observing, that the question, though of unexampled interest, was one of little intricacy. Its points were few in number, and involved in no obscurity or doubt. At a distance, indeed, there appeared a great mass of details; and the eight or nine hundred folios of evidence, together with the papers and petitions with which the table was covered, might cause the subject to appear vast and complicated; yet he did not doubt in a short time to convince his hearers that there had seldom been one of a public nature brought before that house through which the path was shorter, or led to a more obvious decision. He then took a general survey of the severe distress which was pressing upon so many thousands of our industrious fellow-subjects, proved not only by their petitions, but by the numerous schemes and devices which had been resorted to as a remedy for the evils caused by the suppression of their accustomed sources of employment. He reminded the house of the general outline of the inquiry. Above a hundred witnesses had been examined from more than thirty of the great manufacturing and commercial districts. Among all these there was only one single witness who hesitated in admitting the dreadful amount of the present distresses. Birmingham, Sheffield, the clothing-trade of Yorkshire, and the districts of the cotton-trade, all deeply participated in them. He then adverted to the proofs by which this evidence was met on the other side of the house; and took into consideration the entries in the custom-house books, and the substitutes and new channels of commerce said to compensate for those that were closed. He next touched upon the topic so often resorted to by the defenders of the orders in council, that of the dignity and honour of the nation, and the necessity of asserting our maritime rights; and he

maintained that every right may safely be waived or abandoned for reasons of expediency, to be resumed when those reasons cease. He lastly dwelt upon the great importance of the American market to the goods produced in this country, and the danger of accustoming the Americans to rely on their own resources, and manufactures for themselves. After a long and eloquent harangue on these and other connected subjects, Mr. B. concluded with the following motion: “That an humble address be presented to his royal highness the prince-regent, representing that this house has for some time past been engaged in an inquiry into the present distressed state of the commerce and manufactures of the country, and the effects of the orders in council issued by his majesty in the years 1807 and 1809; assuring his royal highness that this house will at all times support his royal highness to the utmost of its power in maintaining those just maritime rights which have essentially contributed to the prosperity and honour of the realm—but beseeching his royal highness that he would be graciously pleased to recal or suspend the said orders, and adopt such measures as may tend to conciliate neutral powers, without sacrificing the rights and dignity of his majesty’s crown.”

Mr. Rose acknowledged that a very considerable degree of distress did exist among our manufacturers; but would not admit that it was so much owing to the orders in council as the hon. gentleman had represented. He corrected several statements made by him; and showed that the commerce of France had suffered in much greater proportion from the effects of these orders. Our shipping-interest, he asserted, had been benefited by them; and, if they were repealed, the Americans would come in for a large share of our carrying-trade, especially to South America. Upon the whole, he would not deny that our manufacturers were likely to obtain some relief from the repeal; but government was placed between difficulties on both sides, and it was their duty to adopt the measures which would be least detrimental. In his opinion, the preponderance of argument led to the conclusion that the repeal of the orders would be more prejudicial than their continuance. The great body of merchants held the same opinion. Four-fifths of those of Glasgow had petitioned in support of the orders; those of Bristol were unanimous in their favour; and so were a majority of those of Liverpool: there was no petition from London against them, whilst a great number of London merchants had petitioned in their favour.

Mr. Baring, after a warm eulogy on the enlightened view of the subject taken by the honourable mover, said that the house had two questions to decide: 1. Whether these distresses were attributable to the orders in council? 2. Whether any benefits had arisen from them in any other quarter to compensate for these calamities? Mr. B. made a number of particular observations relative to these two points; and concluded with giving it as his conviction, that by our orders in council we lost the most substantial commercial advantages for an object we could never obtain—that of forcing our trade with the continent.

Lord Castlereagh began with lamenting the precipitation of the honourable gentleman in bringing forward this motion, and pressing to a hasty discussion a question than which none more vital ever came before the consideration of parliament. He deprecated any interference on the part of the house in a question in which commercial considerations were mixed with those of maritime right, and, pending a delicate negotiation, dictating to the executive government the course it ought to pursue. After various observations in defence of the policy and justice of the orders in council, and in answer to some of the mover’s statements, the noble lord came to the point, by saying, that Great Britain would consent to suspend her orders in council, provided America would suspend her non-impetration act. The experiment might then be tried of the practicability of restoring things to their ancient sys-



tem. Under these circumstances, he trusted that the house would not consent to the address—and he moved the order of the day.

Mr. Whitbread then begged the noble lord to say precisely what he proposed to do with respect to America.—Lord Castlereagh said, that he meant that a proposition should be made to the American government to suspend immediately our orders in council, on condition that they would suspend their non-importation act.—Mr. Whitbread was of opinion, that, if this proposition were to be sent out to America, and it was expected that the house and country should wait till they received an answer, it was the greatest delusion that ever had been attempted; and he proceeded to express in strong terms the urgency of the distress felt by the manufacturers; and the necessity of giving the intended relief without delay.—Mr. Ponsonby also spoke against the measure proposed, as calculated to create delay.—Lord Castlereagh, in further explanation, said, that it was never meant that there should be any delay in suspending the orders in council; the intention was, that they should be suspended for a definite time, and that this circumstance should be communicated to the American government, for the double purpose of ascertaining whether it would in consequence abrogate its non-importation act, and also that it might apply to France to return to the ancient system of belligerents.

Mr. Brougham, after congratulating the house on the prospect of speedily getting rid of these orders, hoped that the noble lord would withdraw his motion for proceeding to the orders of the day, and explain more distinctly what was the exact intention of government.—The final result was, that Mr. B. and lord Castlereagh severally withdrew their motions, on the understanding that an official instrument on the subject should appear in the next Gazette.

It was a remarkable circumstance in this debate, that Mr. Stephen, the most strenuous defender and promoter of the orders in council, was not present: a certain proof that ministers were already prepared to make the sacrifice which the voice of the country rendered inevitable. On the 23d of June, there appeared in the Gazette a declaration from the prince-regent, absolutely and unequivocally revoking the orders in council as far as they regarded American vessels: with the proviso, that if, after the notification of this revocation by our minister in America, the government of the United States do not revoke their interdictory acts against British commerce, the same, after due notice, shall be null and of no effect.

Mr. Brougham, on this occurrence, declared the full satisfaction of himself and his friends with the frank and manly conduct of government in the mode it had adopted; and both sides of the house seemed happy in the prospect of the amicable intercourse which this proceeding would restore between the two countries. However, it appeared afterwards, that deferring the decision so long had rendered it altogether unimportant; for, before the news of the repeal reached the United States, they were actually at war with Great Britain; their declaration of war being dated June the 18th.

The disturbances consequent upon the numbers of workmen thrown out of employ by the diminished demand for the manufactures of the country, after having been for some time confined to the hosiery-districts, gradually extended to the neighbouring counties, where they assumed a character still more alarming, and engaged the serious attention of government. Their seat was that large and very populous district comprising those parts of Lancashire and the adjacent tracts of Cheshire which are occupied by the cotton-manufacturers, and the clothing-part of the west riding of Yorkshire. The disposition to tumult in this quarter disclosed itself about the end of February, and prevailed with greater or less violence till the middle of summer. During this period a great number of acts of lawless outrage were perpetrated, in the destruction of property, particularly of the machinery and im-

plements used in the manufactures, and in attempts against the lives of persons active in the suppression of riots. In their progress, the rioters appear to have adopted a system of organization highly dangerous to the public peace, and which manifested itself in a degree of military training, accompanied by the seizure and concealment of arms, and the administering of an oath of secrecy and confederacy.

On the 27th of June, the prince-regent sent a message to each house of parliament, informing them, that he had given orders that copies of the information received relative to certain violent and dangerous proceedings carried on in several counties of England should be laid before them, and relying on the wisdom of parliament to take proper measures for the restoration of order and tranquillity.

Viscount Sidmouth, now secretary of state for the home department, rose in the house of lords on the 29th, to move an address to the regent on the occasion, expressing their thanks for the communication, and declaring their resolution to take into consideration the documents laid before them, and to concur in the necessary measures. He said he should afterwards propose to refer the papers to a committee of secrecy, and therefore would not anticipate what might be thought necessary by that committee. He then proposed that a secret committee should be appointed, consisting of eleven lords to be chosen by ballot; which was also agreed to.

In the house of commons, on the same day, lord Castlereagh moved a similar address to the regent, and the appointment of a committee of secrecy of twenty-one members chosen by ballot; both of which motions were carried. The report of the secret committee was laid before the house of commons on July the 8th; it was ordered to be printed, and taken into consideration on the 10th.

On that day, lord Castlereagh rose, and, after various preliminary observations on the extent and causes of the existing disorders, and the insufficiency of the means hitherto employed for their suppression, he proceeded to state the proposed powers to be granted by a bill which he should ask leave to bring in, and the duration of which he would limit to the shortest period at which parliament could be assembled to act as circumstances might require. There were three points to which he thought attention ought particularly to be directed:—1. To make a more effectual provision to keep the rioters from possessing themselves of arms. 2. To guard against the effect of tumultuary meetings. 3. To give more effectual power and more extensive jurisdiction to the magistrates of the disturbed districts.—As to the first, respecting arms, the law at present required that a deposition should be made on oath that arms were deposited in a certain place before search could be made. He would propose the alteration of giving to any magistrate of the disturbed districts the power of searching, and of authorizing his officers by his warrant to search, not only for stolen, but for secreted, arms: and also of calling on the inhabitants to surrender their arms, receipts being given for the same: at the same time he wished to make a provision for suffering those to retain their arms who might have occasion to use them in defence of their property. As to tumultuary meetings, which had lately taken place, not only in the night, but in the day-time, of great numbers of persons, for the purpose of training, at present the magistrates could do no more than read the riot-act, and order them to disperse, and that not till the end of an hour: his proposal therefore was that they should have a power of immediately dispersing a tumultuous body, and to make those who did not disperse when called upon liable to punishment. With regard to the third point, he had to observe, that in many parts there were not magistrates sufficient to enforce the law with due vigour, and on the borders of the disturbed counties offenders might escape to another jurisdiction. He would therefore propose, that, for the time being, the magistrates in the disturbed and adjacent counties should have



have a concurrent jurisdiction. He concluded by moving for a bill "For the preservation of the public peace in the disturbed counties, and to give additional powers to the justices for a limited time for that purpose."

Mr. Whitbread declared that he was by no means satisfied with this proceeding. He called in question many of the assertions of the noble lord, particularly with respect to the existence of an armed force among the rioters, of regular leaders, distinct combinations, and depots of arms. He strongly objected to the proposed measure of searching for arms, and alluded to the horrors which measures of that kind had occasioned in Ireland. He hoped the revocation of the orders in council would cause part of the evil to fall of itself; but said that peace was the only radical remedy for all our grievances.

Mr. Wilberforce said, that, connected as he was with that part of the country which was the seat of these disturbances, he could not, without the most painful feelings, contemplate the necessity for the measures now proposed; it however appeared to him, that these measures did not outgo the necessity of the case; and, even if government had asked for larger powers, not for the purpose of carrying them at once into execution, but of cautiously feeling their way according to the situation of the country, he should not have hesitated to bestow them. As to the source of these disorders, he could not concur in the opinion that they proceeded from an interruption to commerce, or a scarcity of provisions. He was convinced that the disease was of a political nature, arising from certain mischievous publications industriously circulated to alienate the affections of the people from the laws and government of their country.

Several other members spoke on the subject, and the debate at length digressed into a discussion of the severities employed in Ireland at the period of the rebellion. Lord Castlereagh's motion was at length put, and carried without a division; after which he brought in his bill, which was read a first time, and appointed for a second reading.

On July 13, the order of the day being moved for the second reading of the bill, Mr. Whitbread rose to declare that his opinion was not at all altered respecting it, but his objections were still more confirmed. There was no evidence before the house to prove the allegation in the preamble, that assemblies of men were in the habit of forcibly demanding and taking arms. He would repeat, that due exertions had not been made to preserve the peace under the existing laws; in some cases the magistrates had been supine; in others they had acted with violence and a perverted judgment. There was now every appearance of a cessation of the disorder; and, though the member for Yorkshire had ascribed the evil to inflammatory publications, he himself, and others who thought with him, had declared that work and a lower price of provisions were likely to restore tranquillity.

Mr. Brougham adduced a number of facts to prove that the tumults were owing to distress solely, and to show the mischief and irritation which had proceeded from the encouragement given to spies, and the intemperate zeal and prejudice which in some instances had been displayed by the magistrates. These cases, however, were by others said to have been grossly exaggerated; and the general impression was manifestly in favour of the bill. On a division, there appeared, for the second reading 131, against it 16. It was accordingly read and committed.

When the third reading was moved, July 20, the former objections were renewed, particularly with respect to the powers granted of searching for arms; and it was asserted that the necessity of such a measure no longer existed, tranquillity having been restored in the disturbed districts. Mr. Bathurst, however, declared, that on that very morning information had been received at the secretary of state's office, that eight new attempts for seizing arms had been made within these few days. Mr. Tierney then proposed the following amendment to be inserted by way of rider:

"Provided always, that it shall be lawful for his majesty, by and with the advice of his privy council, to declare such districts as are now subject to the operation of this act to be no longer in a state of disturbance; and that this act shall no longer be in force in such districts."—Lord Castlereagh approved of the amendment. A division then took place upon the question of the third reading of the bill; ayes 69, noes 15: the bill was then read and passed.—It passed also in the lords; and its operation was limited to the 25th of March, 1813.

Notwithstanding the repeated failures of the attempts in parliament to procure a concession of the claims of the catholics, the advocates of their cause, probably imputing the opposition in part to circumstances of temporary irritation, resolved not to give up the contest, but to appeal, as it were, from the heat of the moment, to a period of calmness and sobriety. In pursuance of this idea, Mr. Canning, on the 22d of June, rose in the house of commons to make a motion on the subject. He laid down three principles on which, in his opinion, the whole matter rested. 1. He would assume as a general rule, that citizens of the same state, living under the same government, are entitled, *prima facie*, to equal political rights and privileges. 2. That it is at all times desirable to create and maintain the most perfect identity of interest and feeling among all the members of the same community. 3. That, where there exists in any community a great permanent cause of political discontent, which agitates men's minds without having any tendency to subside of itself, it becomes the duty of the supreme power in the state to determine in what mode it may most advantageously be set at rest.—He concluded by moving, "That this house will, early in the next session of parliament, take into its most serious consideration the state of the laws affecting his majesty's Roman-catholic subjects in Great Britain and Ireland; with a view to such a final and conciliatory adjustment, as may be conducive to the peace and strength of the united kingdom; to the stability of the protestant establishment; and to the general satisfaction and concord of all classes of his majesty's subjects."

Lord Castlereagh made a liberal declaration in favour of an inquiry into the catholic claims. That the general feeling of the house was similar was proved on the division, when, after an amendment of general Matthew to take the claims into *immediate* consideration had been negatived, the original motion was carried by the decisive majority of 235 to 106.

In the house of lords, on July 1, the marquis Wellesley, after a strong argumentative speech, made a motion precisely the same with that of Mr. Canning. The previous question was moved upon it by the Lord Chancellor; and a number of lords on each side declared their sentiments upon the subject, in the arguments and observations already so often repeated. The division showed an extraordinary balance of opinion in the members of that house. On the motion for the previous question, the numbers were, contents, present 74, proxies 52, total 126; non-contents, present 74, proxies 51, total 125; majority 1. Ministers, and their usual supporters, were ranged on each side; and of the royal dukes, two voted on one side, and three on the other. Even the bench of bishops was divided, though unequally; for 15 opposed the intended inquiry, and only 3 supported it.—The issue, however, of the motion, certainly appeared to evince an approaching national decision in favour of the catholics. But either this prospect, or the known inclinations of the ministry, now began to animate the zeal of all in England, who, from motives of interest or from religious prepossessions, were foes to all concessions which trench upon the exclusive privileges of the establishment; and the remainder of the year passed in actively promoting petitions against the catholic claims, from both the universities, from different clerical bodies, from counties, towns, and parishes; whilst a variety of publications, addressed to that hatred of popery which has for some generations been a ruling passion among



among the different denominations of protestants in this country, kept up the ferment in the public mind. Both houses were however pledged to a solemn decision of this often-agitated question; and a solemn decision it next year received, we hope a final one.

In the debates concerning lord Sidmouth's motion of last year to make alterations in the act of toleration, it had been stated that different decisions respecting the meaning of certain clauses of that act had been given by the justices at the quarter-sessions of different counties. It was, therefore, a laudable purpose of government to introduce a legal exposition of them which might prevent any future disagreement.—On July 10, lord Castlereagh moved the bringing in of a bill to repeal certain acts, and amend other acts, relating to religious worship and assemblies, and persons teaching or preaching therein. He stated that, in consequence of certain decisions at the quarter-sessions, doubts had arisen as to the question of qualification; and that the object of this bill was to place the dissenters in the situation in which they practically stood previously to such decisions. The bill was brought in and read. At the order of the day for the third reading, July 20, Mr. W. Smith congratulated the house on the unanimity with which it had hitherto passed, as a favourable omen of the increasing liberality of the times. He thought it would remove the practical evils of which the dissenters had to complain, although it did not recognize their great principle, that the civil magistrate had no right to interfere in matters of religious opinion. It removed the arbitrary discretion of magistrates, and required no other oath than that of allegiance. As an act of toleration, it was certainly the most complete which had hitherto been passed in this country. The honourable member concluded by moving a clause "to continue the exemptions now enjoyed by the toleration-act, without requiring a fresh oath."

The Chancellor of the Exchequer concurred with the honourable gentleman in his congratulations, which he was happy to consider as not arising from indifference to religion, since the same parliament had distinguished itself by its bountiful regards to the established church; and he instanced in the grants made to the parochial clergy, and the exemption of the smaller livings from the land-tax. He gave the late Mr. Perceval the credit both of those measures, and of the design of the present bill.—Mr. Smith's clause was then brought up and agreed to; and the bill was read a third time and passed.

The atrocious character of the war between England and France, in which so many years had passed without a cartel for the exchange of prisoners, appears to have induced, among the captives of the latter nation, a state of despair, which subverted all the customary rules of honour, and rendered the parole, given for the purpose of obtaining the indulgence of a lax detention, of no avail for restraining individuals from attempts to escape. The frequency of such attempts, and the ready aid afforded in consequence of bribery, at length excited the attention of government; and, on the 14th of July, lord Castlereagh rose in the house of commons to move a repeal of the existing laws relating to the aid given in effecting the escape of prisoners of war; and substituting a bill, by which the crime, instead of a misdemeanor, should be made a felony, punishable by transportation. He said, that, when it was known that prisoners of the highest rank in the enemy's army had effected their escape by means of an organized system for conveying them out of the country by a succession of persons, so as to elude pursuit, the house would perceive the necessity of providing against the danger. He then made a motion accordingly.—After Mr. Whitbread had expressed his hope that some measure would be adopted for an exchange of prisoners, and lord Castlereagh had assured him that the fault did not rest with this government, leave was given to bring in the bill. No opposition appears to have been made to its provisions; and it passed through the house, and was sent up to the lords,

where the second reading of it was moved by lord Sidmouth on the 23d of July.—His lordship remarked, that, from a list laid upon the table, it appeared, that within the last three years 464 officers on parole in this country had made their escape; whilst—a splendid contrast—there was not a single instance of an officer in our service having broken his parole. He dwelt upon the seriousness of the crime of assisting in these escapes, which an eminent judge had considered as nearly approaching to that of high treason; and he said, that by the proposed bill it was only made a transportable felony, the period of transportation to be determined by the enormity of the offence. No debate ensued; and the bill shortly after passed into a law.

In the month of April, at the time when the French emperor was on the eve of a war with Russia, he thought proper to make overtures for a peace with England, and a correspondence took place between the two governments on the subject, which soon closed without having produced any effect. No notice of this circumstance was taken in parliament till the letters which passed on the occasion had appeared in some foreign papers.—On July 17, lord Holland, in the house of lords, requested to know from lord Liverpool whether ministers were in possession of any further information respecting the overture from France than what had been published in those papers, and whether it was the intention of the executive government to take the subject into their consideration. Lord Liverpool did not hesitate to admit that the correspondence published was substantially correct; and he had no objection to produce the papers if called for. [This was afterwards done.] He was persuaded that there were few in the country who would not agree, that, if the acknowledgment of Joseph Bonaparte as king of Spain were made a necessary preliminary by the French government, no negotiation could be entered upon by this on such a basis. It had therefore been thought requisite to call for an explicit declaration on that head in the first instance. No communication in reply had been received; and there the matter rested.

This long session was terminated on the 30th of July, by the speech of the prince-regent, delivered by commission. His R. H. after his acknowledgments for the zeal and assiduity evinced by both houses of parliament in the display of their public duties, referred with warm approbation to the exertions made in the peninsula, and expressed his confidence that the contest in that quarter would be brought to an issue which would secure the independence of the two nations. He then adverted to the new war kindled in the north of Europe, as an additional proof of the little security that can be derived from submission to the tyranny and usurpation of the French government; and he trusted that they would approve of his affording to the powers that might be united in this contest, every degree of assistance and co-operation consistent with his other engagements, and the interests of the kingdom. He assured them that he viewed with sincere regret the hostile measures which had been adopted by the United States of America, but was willing to hope that the accustomed relations of peace and amity might yet be restored; should his expectations, however, be disappointed, he relied on the support of every class of his majesty's subjects, to enable him to maintain a contest in which the honour of the crown and the best interests of the country must be involved. After the customary thanks to the house of commons for their liberal supplies, and regrets for the additional burthens imposed on the people, his R. H. mentioned the great concern with which he had observed the spirit of insubordination and outrage which had appeared in some parts of the country; and applauded the diligence employed by parliament in investigating its causes, and the wise measures taken for its suppression. He concluded with recommending to them individually the exertion of their powers for the preservation of the public peace, and for promoting a spirit of obedience to the laws, and attachment to the constitution.

As the ministers, at the time of the prorogation of parliament,



liament, appeared to be possessed of all the usual influence of government, and the regent's terminating speech expressed full satisfaction in the measures which had been adopted by that assembly, the nation in general, notwithstanding some preceding rumours, did not seem to expect its speedy dissolution. It was therefore to the general surprise, that, by a proclamation from the prince-regent, dated Sept. 29, a dissolution of writs for a new one returnable on the 24th of November. As no public reason was given for this step, conjecture was left to imagine the most probable. It may be thought, that the pledge given by the house of commons of an early attention to the catholic claims, concurred in by a majority which seemed to augur a prevailing disposition to grant them, suggested to those who were adverse to the measure this means of defeating it; but, whatever were the immediate motives for ministers in advising this measure, it certainly displayed a confidence in their popularity with the nation at large, or, at least, in the powers in their hands for procuring such a return of representatives as would rather increase than diminish their influence.

Though not quite three months elapsed between the rising of the parliament and the meeting of a new one, we must avail ourselves of that short space to relate matters of great importance—of blood and slaughter—fire and frost—for we are now arrived at one of those momentous events, which, planned or permitted by Providence for some useful purposes, for advantages hidden in their causes, but splendid in their effects, are calculated to strike the world with astonishment and awe.—Those events which seem to aim at the very root of empires, and make them totter from their summits to their foundations—those events which seldom happen without leaving behind them a long train of consequential accidents to which the fates of inferior states are mere subordinates. We have to consign, in the annals of history, the wonderful oscillation of an immense army upon an arc of the terrestrial circumference full sixteen thousand miles in extent, from the banks of the Seine to Moscow; and the return of the piteous wrecks of such forces, through the severe chastisement of a vengeful winter; which buried in snow and covered with ice what the flames and the sword had eventually spared.

The French emperor, on his return from his tour in the Low Countries at the latter part of 1811, was evidently meditating a grand stroke, for the purpose of terminating his differences with the court of Petersburg in a manner conformable to that continental system which he had made the base of his policy; and the fate of the peninsula was to be a secondary consideration in his counsels till the other object was obtained.

The first military operation which can be considered as connected with his northern projects, was the occupation of Swedish Pomerania.—In January 1812, a body of French troops, under general Friant, entered that province. The capital, Stralsund, being very weakly fortified, with a small garrison, made no resistance to a colonel who was sent to take possession of it on the 26th, and who required quarters and provision, saying, in answer to a demand of payment for the latter, "It is our custom and orders, that the country in which we are should furnish us with every thing needful." Friant entered on the following day; and, when the Swedish general Peyron informed him that he should resist the occupation of the Isle of Rugen, the French general told him that he was his prisoner; and put seals on the custom-house. The purpose of this unwarrantable seizure of Pomerania was evidently that the French emperor might have a pledge in his hands to influence the conduct of Sweden in the approaching contest. Rugen was occupied by the French; the vessels and packets on the coast were detained for their service; and the French colours were hoisted in place of the Swedish. In February, a fleet arrived off Stralsund with general Engelbrecht on-board, to ascertain the state of the French troops in Pomerania, and bring back those of Sweden; but no com-

munication with the shore was permitted, and all correspondence with the general was declined by the French commander; so that the fleet was obliged to sail back without effecting any thing.

A very curious report to the conservative senate of France, that passive assembly which has no other power but the childish one of nodding assent to the pre-emptory will of the emperor, was made on the 10th of March by the duke of Bassano, alias Maret, minister for foreign affairs. The substance of it was an invective against the maritime policy of England, and an exposition and eulogy of all the measures taken by the emperor for asserting the liberty of the seas, and retaliating her arbitrary measures. In this piece it is explicitly declared, that, "till the British orders of council are rescinded, and the principles of the treaty of Utrecht towards neutrals are again in full vigour, the Berlin and Milan decrees will remain against those powers who allow their flags to be denationalised." These words are fully expressive of the jealousy which the French emperor entertains against the maritime power of England, a jealousy which will never cease to rankle in his heart, as long as he is possessed of any efficient authority, or has 250,000 men at his command.

A report of the minister of war follows, which begins with telling the emperor, that "the greatest part of his majesty's troops have been called out of the territory for the defence of the grand interests which are to ensure the preponderance of the empire, and maintain the Milan and Berlin decrees so fatal to England." This and some other matters contained in the report might be regarded as an indication that the whole strength of the French empire was about to be put forth in some mighty effort.

Early in the spring, the French army, united to that of the confederation of the Rhine, was in march to the frontiers of Poland. At the end of March, the field-equipage of Napoleon had reached Dresden, and marshal Ney had his head-quarters at Weimar. A portion of the troops of Prussia had been placed at his disposal, the monarch of that country having been induced this month to ratify a treaty of alliance with the French emperor, which was declared defensive against all the powers in Europe with which either of the contracting parties has entered or shall enter into war, and reciprocally guaranteeing to each other the integrity of their present territory. That the Prussian king hesitated for some time to which of the great powers he should ally himself, since neither of them was likely to suffer him to remain neuter, is very probable; but the rapid advance of the French soon put an end to his indecision. In the month of April, troops of all the nations under French command were incessantly proceeding towards the Russian border. They crossed the Vistula, to the number of 80,000, about the 20th, and afterwards took possession of Elbing and Konigsberg.

Napoleon left Paris on the 9th of May, accompanied by the empress and the prince of Neufchatel (Berthier), and proceeded to Metz. Some time before his departure he had issued a decree tending to conciliate the American government to France; the tenor of which was, that, in consequence of an act of 2d of March, 1811, by which the congress of the United States enacted exemptions from the provisions of the non-intercourse act, which prohibit the entrance into the American ports to the ships and goods of Great Britain, of its colonies and dependencies—considering the said law as an act of resistance to the arbitrary pretensions of the British orders in council, and a formal refusal to adhere to a system derogatory to the independence of neutral powers; it is decreed, that the decrees of Berlin and Milan are definitively, and from the 1st of November last, considered as never having taken place with regard to American vessels.

The French emperor and empress reached Dresden on the 16th, where they were to meet the emperor and empress of Austria. Before this time, the emperor Alexander, who had left Petersburg on the 21st of April, was at Wilna. In the beginning of May, the head-quarters



of the duke of Abrantes (Junot) were at Glogau in Silesia; and the French and allied troops of which his army consisted, were cantoned on both banks of the Oder. A numerous corps of Prussians was assembling at Breslau under field-marshal count Kalreuth.

Quitting the festivities at Dresden, Napoleon suddenly appeared at Dantzic on the 7th of June, where he took a view of the different points of the coast. At this period, negotiations seem to have been carrying on between the two emperors; and a suspicion generally prevailed that the Russian would be so much overawed by the terrible storm impending over him, that his firmness would give way; whilst it was very certain that Napoleon, in the confidence of power and former success, would not yield a single point in a contest which had seemed to him important enough to justify such vast preparations. It was, however, an advantage to Alexander, that the destructive war between Russia and Turkey was at length terminated by a peace, which set free his veteran troops upon the banks of the Danube. On the other hand, a treaty was now made public, which had been signed in March, between the emperors of France and Austria, and which included a reciprocal guarantee of each other's territories, with the stipulation, if either of them should be attacked or menaced by another power, of sending a succour of 24,000 infantry and 6000 cavalry, with 60 pieces of cannon, at the first requisition. The treaty also guaranteed the integrity of the dominions of the Ottoman Porte in Europe, and recognized the principle of neutral navigation; and the Austrian emperor renewed his engagement to adhere to the prohibitive system against English commerce.

The immediate commencement of hostilities was preceded by the publication at Paris of certain papers, the first of which was a note addressed on April 25th, by the duke of Bassano, minister of foreign relations, to count Romanzow, chancellor of Russia. In this paper, after a statement of the stipulations of the treaty of Tilsit, and the public wrongs imputed to the English cabinet, the writer proceeds to complain of the abandonment by Russia of the principles of that treaty, and of her engagement to make common cause with France. The first cause of complaint is the ukase which opened the ports of Russia to all ships laden with English colonial property, provided they were under a foreign flag. The next is, the opposition made by Russia to the French annexation of the duchy of Oldenburg, rendered *necessary* by the uniting of the Hanseatic towns to France. Instead of amicably treating for an indemnity for the duchy, the Russian cabinet made an affair of state of it, and issued a manifesto against her ally. Russia is then charged with having disclosed the plan of a rupture ready formed; for, while dictating terms of peace to Turkey, she suddenly recalled five divisions of the army of Moldavia, in consequence of which, the army of the duchy of Warsaw was obliged to repass the Vistula, and to fall back upon the Confederation, through the menacing posture of the Russian armies. The paper then states four points on which the emperor of France was desirous that a negotiation should be opened with prince Kurakin, and sketches the terms on which a conciliation might have been effected; and concludes with mentioning the overtures lately made to England, and with saying, that, whatever may be the situation of things when this note shall arrive, peace will still depend upon the determinations of the Russian cabinet.

A note is then given from prince Kurakin, the Russian minister at Paris, to the minister of foreign affairs. The prince states, that he is ordered to declare, that the preservation of Prussia, and her independence from every political engagement directed against Russia, is indispensable to the interests of his imperial majesty. In order to arrive at a real state of peace with France, it is necessary that there should be between her and Russia a neutral country not occupied by the troops of either power. The first basis of a negotiation must therefore be, a complete eva-

cuation of the Prussian states, and of all the strong places of Prussia; a diminution of the garrison of Dantzic; the evacuation of Swedish Pomerania, and a satisfactory arrangement between the crowns of Sweden and France. On these conditions, the emperor of Russia, without deviating from the principle laid down for the commerce of his states, and the admission of neutrals into his ports, will bind himself not to make any change in the prohibitive measures established in Russia against direct trade with England, and will also agree to a system of licenses similar to that in France, provided it be not calculated to augment the deterioration already experienced in the trade of Russia. He will likewise treat on certain modifications in the Russian customs for the advantage of the French trade. Further, he will conclude a treaty of exchange for the duchy of Oldenburg for a suitable equivalent, and will withdraw his protest in support of the rights of his family to that duchy.

Other papers published on this occasion were the correspondence between the duke of Bassano and lord Castlereagh, respecting overtures for peace, which have been already mentioned as a topic of parliamentary discussion; with various letters that passed between the Russian and French ministers. The publication of these pieces by the French government, indicated that it was confident in the goodness of its cause, at least as it would appear in the eyes of its own subjects, to justify the final appeal to arms; accordingly, a bulletin was issued from the grand army on June 22d, shortly stating, that no means were left to effect an understanding between the two courts, and that the emperor had issued orders to march for the purpose of passing the Niemen. Then followed a brief proclamation to his soldiers, conceived in his usual confident and laconic style; and this was his declaration of war. The disposition of the different French armies is thus mentioned in the bulletin: "In the commencement of May, the first corps arrived on the Vistula at Elbing and Marienburg, the second corps at Marienwerder, the third at Thorn, the fourth and sixth at Ploczk, the fifth at Warsaw, the eighth on the right of Warsaw, and the ninth at Pulawy." What was the united amount of all these divisions has not been exactly stated; but it may be affirmed that never, probably, in modern Europe, forces so numerous, and composed of such various people, were led under a single command to the decision of a political contest. It is agreed that the armies of Russia, extensive as that empire is, were greatly outnumbered by the invaders; whence a defensive plan was the only one that could be thought of by the court of Peterburgh at the beginning of the campaign.

The French divisions were all in advance at the beginning of June. On the 11th of that month, the prince of Eckmühl (Davoust) had his quarters at Konigsberg, where he was joined by Napoleon in person; and on the 19th, the French emperor had advanced to Gumbinnen on his march to the Niemen. Three bridges being constructed over that river, part of the army crossed without opposition on the evening of the 23d; and on the 24th Napoleon was at Kowno on the other side. The rest of the army passed on the following days, and pushed forward in divisions, the Russian light troops retreating before them on all sides. Wilna, the capital of Lithuania, at which the emperor Alexander had for some time resided, was given up without a contest; the Russians, on the approach of the French, burning the bridge over the Vilia, and, after setting on fire their large magazines in that city, hastily retreated. On the 28th Napoleon entered Wilna, and the bridge was re-established. The Russians were pursued by the French advanced guard, and some skirmishing took place, but with no material loss on either side. The duke of Reggio (Oudinot) had previously crossed the Vilia, near Kowno, on the 25th, and, advancing up the country, had obliged the prince of Wittgenstein, commandant of the first Russian corps, to evacuate all Samogitia, and the country between Kowno and the sea, and retire upon Wilkomirz.



Wilkomirz. On Oudinot's advance, the Russians still retreated, and set fire to their magazines at Wilkomirz.

The French divisions continued to advance, and the Russians to pursue the plan of gradual retreat. The latter reached the Duna about the 7th of July, without any considerable loss, and began to concentrate on its banks. During these operations, the weather, from extreme heat, changed to cold and storm, which occasioned the loss of several thousand horses to the French army. Riga was now regarded as exposed to imminent danger, and its governor issued a proclamation to encourage the inhabitants to a vigorous resistance. Some British ships of war had entered the harbour to assist in its defence. About this time, treaties of peace and friendship were ratified between the king of Great Britain and the emperor of Russia and the king of Sweden; thus sealing a bond of alliance which entirely changed the political system of the north of Europe.

On the 9th of July, the French advanced posts were on the Duna. Prince Bagrathion, the Russian commander, had been intercepted in his march towards Wilna, and had been obliged to move towards the Dnieper, whilst the French possessed themselves of Novogrodek and Minsk. The great duchy of Lithuania was now considered by them as nearly conquered; and Napoleon published an act, organizing a provisional government in it, with a national guard and a gendarmerie. The emperor of Austria had at this time recalled his ambassador from Peterburgh, and had sent his quota of troops as ally to France, under the command of the prince of Schwartzenberg, who had reached the Russian territory. The main Russian army, which was collected in a strongly-entrenched camp at Drissa on the Duna, evacuated it on the 18th, and moved eastward towards Witepsk, where the emperor Alexander was on the 19th. The king of Naples (Murat) crossed the Duna without opposition on the 20th, and spread his cavalry along the right bank of that river. Various partial actions had occurred during these movements, the circumstances of which are so differently related in the bulletins on each side, that nothing is left certain but the general results. From these it appears, that the Russians still persevered in their plan of retreat, but occasionally checked the temerity of the invaders, who began to experience a greater degree of resistance in proportion to their advance. The Prussians, who composed the chief force of marshal Macdonald, had been advancing through Courland; and a Russian corps at Mittau had been obliged to fight its way to Riga. This city was now thought in such immediate danger of a siege, that its suburbs were burnt down, with a vast destruction of naval and building timber. The Russian army, when it quitted the entrenched camp at Drissa, consisted of five corps d'armée, one of which, under general Wittgenstein, remained to cover Peterburgh, while the other four marched by Polotsk to Witepsk. On July the 25th, two French divisions under general Nansouty, encountered the Russians in front of Ostrovno. On that and the two following days there was much sharp fighting in this quarter, the strength of the Russians being stated in the French bulletin at 60,000 infantry and 15,000 cavalry. The loss on both sides was considerable, but the fruits of victory remained with the French, who took many prisoners and several pieces of cannon. On the evening of the 28th, the Russian army was in full retreat towards Smolensko; and on that day the French entered Witepsk. During these transactions, prince Bagrathion, on his march, was attacked by the prince of Eckmuhl (Davoust) near Mohilow, and an engagement ensued which continued the greatest part of the day. It concluded with the retreat of Bagrathion, unmolested, in the direction of Smolensko, where he joined the grand army. The vicinity of Polotsk was also near this time the scene of severe contest. Marshal Oudinot having crossed the Duna, with the view, it is supposed, of coming round upon Riga, was attacked by count Wittgenstein on the 30th and 31st, who, according to the Russian ac-

counts, gained a complete victory. A French bulletin, however, represents the result of another action, on August 1st, to have reversed this fortune, and left the Russians in the state of entire defeat. The capture by storm of the fortrefs of Dunaburg, on July the 30th, was a proof that, on the whole, success still continued to attend on the French arms.

About the 12th of August, the main body of the French forces, under the king of Naples and the prince of Eckmuhl, marched upon the Dnieper in order to obtain possession of Smolensko, at which city the principal force of the Russians was assembled. On August the 16th, the heights of Smolensko were commanded by the French troops; the place was reconnoitred by Napoleon in person, and the army was arranged in its position. The particular operations which ensued are not intelligible without a plan; but it appears that the attack and defence were both conducted with vigour and resolution. On the night of the 17th, the town was set fire to, and after midnight abandoned, by the Russians, who retired across the river. It was occupied on the 18th by the invaders, who at length succeeded in extinguishing the fire. The contest for this important place is said to have engaged 100,000 men on each side; and the loss of lives could not fail to be considerable, but that of the Russians is, by the French accounts, stated at triple their own. On the 19th the French crossing the Dnieper, made an attack on the Russian rear-guard, the last column of which retreated to the second, which was posted on the heights of Valentina. An action was brought on to force this position, in which a large number of troops on each side was engaged, and the point was obstinately contested; it terminated in an un molested retreat of the Russians. The banks of the Duna, near Polotsk, were the scene of some severe encounters on the 16th and 17th, between Wittgenstein and Oudinot, in which the success seems to have been nearly balanced. Of a number of inferior actions it is not worth while in this sketch to take notice.

At the beginning of the invasion of Russia, it appeared to have been the design of Napoleon to make a push at once for Peterburgh, probably supposing that the imminent danger or capture of this metropolis would terminate the war. But the plan pursued by the Russian commanders to draw the principal force of their antagonists towards the Dnieper, necessarily changed that of the invader, whose object now became the possession of the ancient capital of the empire, Moscow. Its central situation amidst some of the most fertile provinces of Russia, its vast extent, and its ready communication with Poland and the countries of Europe to the west, obviously rendered it a most important station for carrying on a war which was now likely to be protracted at least to another campaign. Smolensko is in the direct road to Moscow, and at a less distance from it than from Wilna; to have occupied that city was therefore a material point gained towards the further progress of the invading army. The advance of the latter, and the retreat of the Russians before them, destroying or carry off their magazines, continued as before; and on the 29th, general Caulincourt entered Viasma, a considerable town on the Moscow road. At this time general Kutuffoff had taken the chief command of the Russian armies.

Hitherto no opposition of consequence had been given to the French in their approach towards the capital; but the time was now come in which an effort was to be made worthy of the prize contended for—The Russians had taken a strong position at the village of Morkwa, between Ghijat and Mojaisk, where they were descried by the French on September the 5th, as they had begun to form a redoubt upon a height. This was immediately attacked by Napoleon's order, and carried. The next day passed in reconnoitring; and at day-break on the 7th, the French made an attack on the whole of the Russian position. They state the Russian forces to have amounted to 120 or 130,000 men, and acknowledge an equal number of their



their own. The battle soon became general, and lasted till night, with a dreadful carnage on both sides. Batteries were taken and retaken, entrenchments carried and recovered, and in the end each party claimed the victory. The French, who named this the *battle of Moskwa*, triumph without reserve; but general Kutusoff says, that the result was, that the enemy, with his superior force, in no part gained an inch of ground, and that he himself remained at night master of the field of battle. The village of *Borodino* gives the Russian appellation to this terrible conflict. Both sides made the usual demonstrations of success by acts of pious gratitude, which are always understood as addressed more to earth than to heaven; and it is left to the test of consequences to determine which was the chief gainer or loser by the event. One result, which certainly was not expected at Petersburg when they were singing *Te Deum*, was, that seven days after, being the 14th, at midnight, the French, after no other contest than some skirmishing with their advanced guard, entered Moscow.

Of the circumstances attending the capture and conflagration of this great city, very different accounts have been given. In the French bulletin which first relates the event, it is said that the governor, Rostopchin, wished to ruin the city when he saw it abandoned by the Russian army—that he armed 3000 malefactors from the prisons, and 6000 satellites; and that the French advanced guard, when arrived at the centre of the city, were received with a fire of musketry from the Kremlin, or citadel—that the king of Naples ordered a battery to be opened, which soon dispersed this rabble; and that, complete anarchy prevailing in the city, some drunken madmen ran through its different quarters, every-where setting fire to them, the governor having previously carried off the firemen and engines. A subsequent bulletin gives the following account: "On the 14th, the Russians set fire to the exchange, the bazar, and the hospital. On the 16th, a violent wind arose; three or four thousand Russians set fire to the city in 500 places at once, by order of the governor. Five-sixths of the houses were built of wood; the fire spread with a prodigious rapidity; it was an ocean of flame. Churches, of which there were 1600, above 1000 palaces, immense magazines, nearly all have fallen a prey to the flames. The Kremlin has been preserved. Above a hundred of the incendiaries have been apprehended and shot; all of them declared that they acted under the orders of Rostopchin, and the director of the police." The horrid circumstance is added, that 30,000 sick and wounded Russians had been burnt; but, it is to be hoped that this is an exaggeration. A subsequent French account from Moscow says, that three hundred incendiaries had been arrested and shot; they were provided with fuses six inches long between two pieces of wood, and also with squibs, which they threw upon the roofs of houses. The fires subsided on the 19th and 20th, but three-fourths of the city had been destroyed. It is afterwards said that only one tenth remained unconsumed.

While the shock occasioned by this terrible catastrophe of one of the most populous cities in Europe was still recent, the friends to the Russian cause were willing to impute the disaster rather to the fire of the assailants, or to the confusion and anarchy prevailing in a captured city, than to a premeditated purpose on the part of the governor or the court; but, when the proofs seemed to accumulate of a commanded agency in spreading the flames, then arguments were not wanting to show that, on such emergencies, sacrifices of this kind, however severe, were not only justifiable, but were the truest patriotism; and that the depriving an inveterate foe of a comfortable abode during the winter in the heart of the country, was a point of such essential consequence, that it could scarcely be gained at too high a price; and the sequel will render probable the justness of this reasoning. It may be added, that nothing could more convincingly prove the fixed determination of the Russian government to enter into no compromise

with the invader, than a resolution rather to destroy the venerable capital of the empire than to bargain for its safety.

The impression made at Petersburg by the fall of Moscow was necessarily that of great alarm, of which the court seems to have participated, even whilst it was endeavouring to tranquillize the people. A supplement to the Petersburg Gazette of October 2, under the title, "For information, by special command," acquaints the public, that measures are adopting in that city for the removal of certain necessary articles; not, however, from any apprehension of danger to the metropolis—and it proceeds to state the circumstances by which its safety is secured—but through timely foresight, to be beforehand with the freezing of the rivers. After some attempts at distinguishing between no present, but possible future, danger, it concludes with expressing a determination, "whatever may be the progress of the enemy, rather to drain the last drop of the cup of misery, than, by a scandalous peace, to subject Russia to a foreign yoke." Another precautionary measure, not only important in itself, but as it included a pledge of inviolable fidelity to, and confidence in, a new ally, was that of sending the whole naval force of Russia to winter in the English ports, where it arrived safe at the latter end of the year.

Napoleon continued at Moscow, and flattering accounts appeared in the French papers of his success in restoring order and procuring plenty in the place; at the same time it is certain that he began to find his situation very uneasy, and severely felt the disappointment resulting from the destruction of so large a portion of the city, and the flight of its inhabitants. An extraordinary and atrocious proof of the acuteness of his feelings on this occasion, appeared in his appointing a military commission at Moscow, on September 24, to try a number of poor wretches who had been apprehended in the act of spreading the flames through the city on the days when the French entered it. Though a principal object of the inquiry was to produce evidence that the conflagration was ordered and directed by the governor, yet these men were capitally condemned for executing commands, to them lawful; and ten of them were put to death with the ordinary forms of justice.

After this mean act of vengeance, Napoleon employed himself as if it were his intention to establish winter-quarters in the ruins of Moscow. If such had not been his plan, it must be regarded as infatuation, or indecision unworthy of his former character, which induced him to postpone the movement of his vast army to a season immediately bordering upon a northern winter. But, whatever might have been his secret purpose, his determination was precipitated by the event of an action on the 18th of October.—General Kutusoff, having received information of the march of a French corps under general Victor, from Smolensko, to reinforce the grand army, resolved to attack the advanced guard, commanded by Murat, and said to consist of 45,000 men, before they could be supported by the main army. The attack succeeded, and left in the hands of the victor a considerable number of prisoners, and thirty-eight pieces of cannon, which the badness of the roads prevented the French from carrying away. The consequence of this victory was, that on the 22d the corps of general Winzingerode entered Moscow, which was evacuated by the French garrison in such haste, that they left the hospitals in the power of the foe. About the same time other successes attended the Russian cause. Count Wittgenstein, after two days' hard fighting with the French under marshal Gouvion St. Cyr, in which he drove the enemy from his entrenchments, and pursued him to Polotzk, carried that place by storm on the 20th of October.

While the French emperor was triumphing amidst the ruins of a hostile capital 1500 miles distant from his own, an attempt was made to subvert his power at home, which, for a time, bore a formidable aspect, and, if not speedily suppressed, might have been the commencement of a new revolution.—Early in the morning of October 23, three



ex-generals, said to have been of the republican party, Mallet, Lahorie, and Gudal, having framed a fictitious senatus consultum, went to the barracks occupied by the first division of the national guards and the dragoons of Paris, and, having read a proclamation, informing them of the pretended death of the emperor on the 7th, ordered these troops, in the name of the regent, to follow them. The troops obeyed, and suffered themselves to be led to different posts, where they relieved the guards. The conspirators then presented themselves at the apartments of the minister of the police and the prefect of the police, whom they arrested, and carried to prison under an escort of 300 men. Another division, in the mean time, was marched to the house of the commandant of Paris, general Hullin, when Mallet informed him that he was no longer commandant; and, on Hullin's hesitating to resign his authority, Mallet shot him in the neck with a pistol. Mallet then proceeded with the design of arresting the chief of the etat-major of Paris; but this person had several officers in his apartment, who, proving too powerful for Mallet, arrested him. They then harangued the troops which had accompanied him; and, having succeeded in convincing them that the emperor was not dead, and that this was a conspiracy, they laid down their arms. The troops cantoned in Versailles and the neighbourhood were then sent for, the barriers were shut, and the conspirators, being, besides the three generals, about twenty officers and sub-officers, were arrested and committed to prison; and in a short time Paris was perfectly tranquil. It is asserted by authority, that not a single citizen of Paris or the departments was suspected of being an accomplice in this affair. A military commission was convoked to try the culprits, which declared the three ex-generals and eleven others "guilty of the crime against the safety of the state," and adjudged them to death, acquitting the rest. The execution took place on October 30, in the plain of Grenelle, in the midst of a numerous concourse of spectators; and thus the conspiracy seems to have been completely extinguished, no relics of it having since been brought to light.

The desertion of Moscow by Napoleon (who quitted it the day after the defeat of Murat) was equally a subject of surprise and speculation at Paris, the public papers of which exhausted their ingenuity in finding excuses and motives for this event. One of them thus concludes its reasonings: "To say that the emperor has left Moscow, is only to say, that this father of the soldiers marches wherever great operations demand his presence. His presence commands victory; it will still watch over the safety of the victorious army." We shall see in the sequel how well this expectation was verified.

The first proof of the great change of situation between the two armies, was the mission of Lauriston to Kutusoff, in order to propose an armistice, and treat of peace. The answer given was, that no negotiation of this kind could be entered upon till the French had repassed the Vistula; and, when Lauriston observed in reply, that they must then retire fighting every inch, since the Russian armies were marching on all sides, Kutusoff rejoined, that, as the French had not been invited to Moscow, they must get back as they could. Murat also is stated to have gone to the advanced posts, and held a conference with general Milardovitch, probably for the purpose of bringing about an armistice, but from which he derived no satisfaction. At this time the Russians had cleared both banks of the Duna, as far as Witepsk, from the invaders; and the province of Volhynia was entirely freed from the enemy.

The French grand army first directed its march upon Kaluga; but, finding obstacles in that quarter, the route was changed towards Mojaik. The Russians pressing upon it, an engagement was brought on at Malo-yaroslavetz, on the 24th, in which, as usual, the French claim a victory; at least, it appears that they checked their pursuers. On November 9, Napoleon arrived with the imperial guard at Smolensko. Of the encounters in

this interval, between the retreating and the pursuing armies, the relations by the two parties are so irreconcilable, that we shall not attempt to form them into a consistent narrative. It is only certain that much loss was sustained by the French which they were not in a condition to repair. The Russian winter, which began on the 7th with deep snow, greatly added to their difficulties and sufferings; and their bulletins acknowledge the loss of many men by cold and fatigue in their night-bivouackings. Two intercepted letters from the viceroy of Italy, Eugene-Napoleon, to the prince of Neufchatel, afford undeniable evidence of the extreme distress to which the retreating French were reduced. In the first, dated November 8, he speaks of an attack on the head, rear, and centre, of his columns, by the enemy, in which two of his cannon were carried off; and, after mentioning his embarrassments, and his critical situation, he says, "I must not conceal from your highness, that, after using every effort in my power, I have yet found it impossible to drag my artillery, and that, in this respect, great sacrifices must be expected." In the second, on the following day, he mentions the incredible efforts he has made for a small advance; and says, "These three last days have cost us two-thirds of the artillery of this corps of the army. Yesterday about four hundred horses died; and to-day perhaps double that number have perished, exclusive of the great number which I have caused to be put on for the military baggage, and for that of individuals. Whole trains of horses have perished in the harness at once. I must not conceal from your highness, that these three days of suffering have so dispirited the soldiers, that I believe them at this moment very little capable of making any effort. Numbers of men are dead of hunger or cold; and others, in despair, have suffered themselves to be taken by the enemy." In this dreadful condition he was again attacked by general Platoff, at the head of his Cossacks, who, in his report to marshal Kutusoff, speaks of three thousand prisoners, and sixty-two pieces of cannon, as the result of his victory.

The pursuit of the retreating army, on its route to Smolensko, still continued; and on the 10th, a body of 2000 men, with 60 officers, being a division of general Augereau's corps, was surrounded by the cavalry of count Orloff Denizoff, and laid down their arms, after a feeble resistance. On the 14th, count Wittgenstein, who had made himself master of Witepsk, was attacked by marshal Victor, in consequence of an order to drive him beyond the Duna. After an obstinate action, which continued the greatest part of the day, the French retired with considerable loss, having failed of their purpose. Several other actions took place, which are represented as being uniformly favourable to the Russians, and were preludes to much more important successes. The French, who, after blowing up the fortifications of Smolensko, were marching upon Krasnoi, a town to the south-west of that city, were overtaken by the advanced troops of marshal Kutusoff's army, which had made prodigious exertions for that purpose; and, on November 16, the corps of marshal Davoust, which had been turned by prince Galitzin, was brought to action. The battle lasted the whole day, Napoleon himself being in the field, which he quitted without waiting for the issue. It terminated in the complete destruction or dispersion of Davoust's army, which, besides a very heavy loss in killed and wounded, had above 9000 men, with two generals and many inferior officers, taken prisoners, and lost 70 pieces of cannon. An additional force was then sent to reinforce general Milardovitch, in order to stop the advance of marshal Ney with the rear-divisions of the French. On the 17th, under cover of a thick fog, Ney's troops got unperceived to the foot of the Russian batteries, and endeavoured to pierce through the lines of their opponents. Their efforts, however, were ineffectual; and, after great carnage from the Russian cannon and musketry, the remainder, in number 12,000, at midnight, laid down their arms, giving up their cannon, baggage,



baggage, and military chest. Ney himself escaped, wounded, by flight across the Dnieper.

In the further retreat to the banks of the Berezyna, various encounters took place, the result of which is, as usual, very differently related by the two parties. The most considerable was one which terminated, on the 28th, in the capture, by general Wittgenstein, of a French division, said to consist of 8800 men. During this time the cold was intensely severe, occasioning dreadful sufferings to the fugitives, and almost annihilating their cavalry. When they arrived at the spot where the roads to Minsk and Wilna divide, they took the route to the latter town, first sending off their wounded, with the baggage. In these movements, Napoleon always marched in the midst of his guards, whom, by care and indulgence, he had preserved in tolerable plight. It is mentioned in the French accounts, that to such a degree was the cavalry of the army dismounted, that it was necessary to collect the officers who had still a horse remaining, in order to form four companies of 150 men each. This sacred squadron, as it is termed, in which generals performed the functions of captains, and colonels of subalterns, never lost sight of the emperor. At length, all danger from the pursuers being past, Napoleon, on December 5, having called together his principal officers, and informed them of the appointment of the king of Naples as his lieutenant-general, set off in a single sledge; passed through Wilna, Warsaw, Dresden, Leipzig, and Mentz; and arrived at Paris on the 18th, at half past eleven at night.

Thus terminated a campaign, which for its importance may vie with any one of modern or ancient times; but, at the same time, a campaign which will for ever stigmatize the ruler of France, and which has been, more than any other, injurious to his political interests and military reputation. Ten times more mad than the son of Philip, when, the torch of destruction blazing in his hand, he was rushing to the conflagration of Persepolis, Napoleon left his capital to invade the unlimited states of the emperor of all the Russias; and, having witnessed the fall of the holy city of Moscow into ashes, he was constrained to flee back to those blissful regions he should never have abandoned, and that in disguise and as a disgraced fugitive: *Quantum mutatus ab illo Heclore!* Wrapped in the cloak of mistrust and fear, drawn clandestinely through a world of snow, on an humble sledge, in countries where he had often before spurred his animated charger to victory; where his word, the glance of his eye, a motion of his hand, had decided the fate of thousands;—Napoleon sneaks back to his usurped kingdom; and, wondrous to tell, still meditates the humiliation of the north. Fatal blindness! insatiable lust of power! The emperor of the French feels at this moment how rash he was, after such a lesson from his northern teachers, to stir up again the just vengeance of past injuries. He had long, as we have observed before, broken with ease, upon his knee, the divided sticks of Mithridates; but, as soon as they were united in a bundle, his strength was found unequal to the deed.

In exploring the ample page of history, it is impossible for the most patient industry, or the most active research, to produce a more impressive and instructive example than that which is afforded by the life of this enterprising adventurer, and hitherto highly-favoured soldier of fortune. Whether we look to his sudden and wonderful elevation to the highest pinnacle of human grandeur, or to the rapid and accumulated disasters that have at length overtaken and nearly overwhelmed him, our imagination is equally bewildered, and the faculties of our minds almost paralysed at the bare contemplation. The absolute despotism so long practised under the corrupt and vicious dynasty of the Bourbons, justly awakened in the enslaved and oppressed people of France one universal burst of indignation, and provoked them to shake off their yoke, and break their chains on the heads of their oppressors. The propitious moment arrived that gave a free vent to this virtuous feeling; and the haughty house

that had so long ruled with a rod of iron, and trampled upon the liberties of the nation, was deprived of the royal sceptre, and driven from the throne, never perhaps to ascend it again. It was at this critical period, and amidst the convulsive throbs of the infant revolution, that Napoleon Bonaparte, the present emperor of the French, stepped forward on the grand theatre of public affairs, and became an active and distinguished partisan in the new order of things. His military genius and dauntless spirit soon acquired him considerable celebrity and rapid promotion; until, by a concatenation of events, as extraordinary in their nature as they have proved almost miraculous in their result, he was ultimately placed upon the throne of France, with the general consent and approbation of the people. Here, when seated at this lofty height, and arrived at the full consummation of his labours, had he but proved a sincere friend to liberty and the sacred rights of nations, never would a character have shone more illustrious in the annals of fame, nor more deservedly have obtained the universal love and veneration of mankind. But, oh! how cruelly and fatally has he disappointed our anxious hopes and wishes! Like the "base Judean," he has thrown "a pearl away richer than all his tribe." Giddy at the unexpected eminence he had attained, and inflated with ambition, in an evil hour he forgot that the foundation of his own greatness was built alone on the destruction of the tyranny and despotism of his predecessors. Instead of becoming the protector of liberty, and the promoter of free discussion, he assumed in his turn the dictatorial power of the revolutionary tyrants whom he had overwhelmed and subdued. The freedom of the press was annihilated at a single blow; and, at the point of the sanguinary bayonet and the roaring cannon's mouth, he projected his schemes of conquest and his hopes of universal dominion! Never since the days of Tiberius, was a more inflexible tyrant seated on a throne! Wherever rage or fury has inspired him, he has been urging his lawless and unbounded career, not with the noble view of destroying abuses and ameliorating the condition of mankind, but for the hideous and impious purpose of conquering and enslaving nations, pursuing his sanguinary and destructive conquests without remorse or forbearance; and floating, as it were at his own arbitrary will and caprice, the vessel of his boundless ambition, on a vast ocean of human blood! Never has there been exhibited upon earth a loftier, a more ruinous, or a more reprehensible spirit of ambition. From this fatal source has arisen an odious system of oppression and persecution, which has not only tarnished all his former glory, but rendered him an object of universal horror and detestation. Like other cruel and insidious tyrants, his chief and steady aim has been to coerce into silence every man who has dared to express his opinions, and to persecute and proscribe even the slightest breath of free inquiry. By these and other equally detestable acts, he succeeded in corrupting and overawing every branch of the legislative, and rendered his whole system of government a complete unmitigated, avowed, ferocious, military despotism. Such has been the deplorable lot of the French people under the auspices of this once-obscure individual, whom, in the excess of their mistaken zeal and confidence, they raised to the highest summit of power, and placed upon the imperial throne! What an immensity of power was accumulated in the hands of this one man, and what an awful lesson does his sudden reverses furnish to surrounding monarchs, and to the world at large! For a long series of time, and during a rapid succession of events, every thing seemed to conspire to raise him above all those monarchs to whom Heaven has intrusted the government of the earth. Had he but known when and where to set bounds to his ambition, and rested content with giving prosperity and security to France, he might have obtained for himself everlasting glory, and dictated terms of peace to the whole world. But, during the period of his prosperous reign, from his first accession to power to the present eventful



moment, he has bestowed not a single thought, he has given not a single day, to the repose or happiness of the world! What miseries was not this man brought on his country! In one solitary campaign, he tarnished all his laurels,—lost all his conquests,—sacrificed his best generals and officers,—annihilated the finest and best-equipped armies that the world ever produced,—excited a general enthusiasm against him, and exposed France herself, who but the other day stood sole ruler and arbitress of the destinies of Europe, to the horrors of invasion and civil warfare. In Holland, Saxony, Westphalia, Bohemia, Bavaria, and in short every place he had conquered, he might have continued to reign in peaceful and undisturbed possession, had he but known how to have respected the sacred rights of humanity, and fought to win the love and confidence of the people! But he permitted his troops to rob and fleece them with impunity, and never once condescended to think of bettering their condition, or inspiring in their bosoms the principles of patriotism. They feared him, and submitted to him, while he possessed the power of coercing them; but, the moment that power became doubtful and in jeopardy, they availed themselves of the favourable opportunity to resent his oppression and shake off his yoke. He provoked their resentment, he drove them to revolt! and hence the stupendous change that has recently taken place in the aspect of European politics.

We apologize for digressing into reflections, when we should have been relating only facts; and turn to the affairs of the peninsula, where also the allied army was gaining ground, and seemed to have won victory to their side.—Lord Wellington, who, in the autumn of 1811, had placed his troops in cantonments across the Agueda to recover from their sickness and fatigues, was in motion at the very commencement of the year. In a dispatch dated from Gallegos, January 9, 1812, he informs the English secretary of state, that he invested Ciudad Rodrigo on the preceding day. He mentions having taken by storm a new redoubt constructed by the French on the hill of St. Francisco, and that he had broke ground within 600 yards of the place. In another dispatch, dated January the 15th, he gives an account of the progress of the siege, which had been facilitated by two successful attacks on posts of the enemy, close to the body of the place; but on the 20th his lordship was enabled to send the welcome intelligence of the capture of that important frontier-town, which had so often been the object of military operations. The fire of the batteries having considerably injured the defences of the place, and made breaches regarded as practicable, lord Wellington determined on a storm, though the approaches had not been brought to the crest of the glacis, and the counterescarp was still entire. The attack was made on the evening of the 19th, in five separate columns. All these attacks succeeded, and in less than an hour the assailants were in possession of and formed upon the ramparts of the place, each column contiguous to the next. The enemy then, who had sustained a severe loss in the conflict, submitted. The loss of the besiegers was also considerable, especially in officers of rank. His lordship bestows the warmest encomiums on all the officers engaged in this service, and the success of such a spirited enterprise redounds equally to the honour of the commander, and those who acted under him. The fruits of victory were a garrison of 1700 men, besides officers, and 153 pieces of ordnance, including the heavy train of the French army, with great quantities of ammunition and stores. The losses of the besiegers from January the 15th to the 19th, amounted to nearly 700 of all descriptions, killed, wounded, and missing.—The sense of the Spanish nation on this success was displayed in a vote of the Cortes, by acclamation, conferring on lord Wellington the rank of a grandee of the first class, with the title of Duke of Ciudad Rodrigo.

Lord Wellington remained some time at Ciudad Rodrigo, in order to repair the fortifications; and then, placing

it under the command of a Spanish governor, he withdrew to Freynada. Badajos was the next object of his arms; and, after making due preparations, he moved from Freynada on the 6th of March, and arrived at Elvas on the 11th. At this time there was none of the enemy's troops in the field in Estremadura, except a part of the 5th corps at Villa-Franca, and a division under general Darican at Serena. On the 15th and 16th his lordship broke up the cantonments of the army, and invested Badajos, on both sides the Guadiana, on the 16th. A sortie was made by the garrison on the 19th, which was repulsed without having effected any thing. At the time of the investment, general sir Thomas Graham crossed the Guadiana with a body of troops, and directed his march towards Llerena; whilst lieutenant-general sir Rowland Hill, who had returned from Miranda, to his cantonments near Albuquerque, marched again to that town. The operations of the siege were carried on without intermission, notwithstanding the unfavourable weather, and the swelling of the Guadiana, which damaged the bridges of communication; and, on the 25th, a fire was opened from twenty-eight pieces of ordnance in six batteries. On the evening of that day, a strong out-work, called la Picurina, was gallantly stormed by a body of five hundred men, who firmly established themselves in it. On March the 31st, a fire was opened from twenty-six pieces of cannon, in the second parallel, which was continued with great effect. A second sortie was driven in with loss. At this time the movements of generals Graham and Hill had obliged the enemy to retire towards Cordova; but intelligence had been received that marshal Soult had broke up from before Cadiz on the 23d and 24th, and marched upon Seville with all the troops that were there, with the exception of 4000. Breaches being made in the bastions of la Trinidad and Santa Maria, lord Wellington determined to attack the place on the night of April the 6th. Simultaneous attacks of different parts of the works were planned; of which, that of the castle of Badajos by escalade, conducted by lieutenant-general Picton, was the first that succeeded, and the third division was established in it at about half past eleven. In the mean time the breaches in the bastions were vigorously assaulted; but, such were the obstacles raised by the enemy upon and behind the breaches, and so obstinate their resistance, that the assailants, after a long contest, and considerable loss, were ordered to retreat. The possession of the castle, however, which was secured by the success of the other divisions, decided the fate of the town, for it commanded all the works both of and in the place; and at day-light general Philippon, the commandant, who had retired to Fort St. Christoval, surrendered, with all the staff, and the whole garrison. These, at the beginning of the siege, had consisted of 5000 men; but about 1200 had been killed and wounded during the operations of the siege, besides those who perished in the assault. The total loss of the besiegers in killed, wounded, and missing, from the investment to the capture, amounted to upwards of 4850, British and Portuguese. This might perhaps be thought a dear purchase; but, besides the glory to the allied arms in gaining this second strong place by storm, the possession of two important fortresses on the frontiers of Portugal was of so much consequence to the security of that kingdom, and to the success of future operations in the peninsula, that, in a military consideration, it justified the payment of a high price.

Soult, who had advanced from Seville into Estremadura as far as Villa-Franca, on hearing of the fall of Badajos, retreated, on the 9th of April, towards the borders of Andalusia. General Graham directed sir Stapleton Cotton to follow his rear with the cavalry; and, coming up with the French cavalry at Villa Garcia, with the brigades of generals le Marchant and Anson, he defeated them on the 11th, with a considerable loss. The French retired on that day from Llerena, and afterwards entirely quitted Estremadura. Lord Wellington, as soon as he was ap-



prised of Soult's retreat, put his army in motion towards Castile.

On April the 24th, lord Wellington was at Alfayates, on the Portuguese border, the enemy having retired upon his advance. They had crossed the Agueda on the 23d, and were then in full retreat towards the Tormes. General Drouet was at that time at Fuente Ovejuna, in Cordova, and marshal Soult at Seville. His lordship, on the day of the above date, dispatched sir Rowland Hill to carry into execution the plan of an attack upon the enemy's posts and establishments at the passage of the Tagus, at Almaraz, in Estremadura, near the border of New Castile. This post afforded the only good military communication below Toledo across the Tagus, and from that river to the Guadiana, all the permanent bridges below that of Arzobispo having been destroyed in the operations of the war, and left unrepaired. The bridge at Almaraz was protected by strong works thrown up by the French on both sides of the river, and was further covered on the southern side by the castle and redoubts of Mirabete, about a league distant, commanding the pass of that name, through which runs the only carriage-road to the bridge, which is that to Madrid. The necessary preparations for this expedition would not permit general Hill to begin his march from Almendralejo till the 12th of May. On the 16th, he formed his force into three columns, the left directed against the castle of Mirabete; the right, against the forts of the bridge; and the centre, to the high road leading to the pass of Mirabete. The approach was so difficult, that it was day-break on the 19th, before the attack could be made. The right column, provided with scaling ladders, moved to the assault of Fort Napoleon, a strong fortress on the left bank of the river. The ardour of the troops broke through all obstacles, and in the midst of a destructive fire they rushed on with fixed bayonets, and drove the garrison through the several intrenchments across the bridge, which, having been cut on the other side, obliged many of the fugitives to leap into the river, where they perished. The panic communicated itself to the garrison of Fort Ragufa, on the right bank, who abandoned their works, and fled in great confusion. The victors then effected the destruction of all the material parts of the forts and works for the defence of the bridge, and made prize of the magazines and eighteen pieces of cannon. The attack upon Mirabete served only as a diversion, inducing the enemy to believe that the attack upon the forts near the bridge would not commence till that was decided. In this spirited exploit, the British lost in killed and wounded fell short of two hundred. General Hill then returned to Almendralejo.

Attention was now chiefly fixed upon the allied army of lord Wellington, which had been for some time advancing upon the French under Marmont. It crossed the Agueda on June 13th, and arrived in front of Salamanca on the 16th. The enemy on its approach retreated across the Tormes, leaving about eight hundred men in some forts constructed upon the ruins of colleges and convents in Salamanca. The allied army entered the city, but lord Wellington found it necessary to break ground against the forts. Marmont at this time was retiring upon the Douro. In Estremadura, major-general Slade's brigade of cavalry had fallen in with two French regiments of dragoons, which they broke; but, pursuing incautiously, they were attacked by the enemy's reserve, and driven back with considerable loss. The forces under marshal Soult and general Drouet had made a junction, and moved forward to Llerena and St. Olalla; upon which, general Hill had called in his detachments, and concentrated his forces at Albuera.

The batteries against the forts of Salamanca began to fire on the 17th. Marmont, on the 20th, made a forward movement in order to communicate with the forts; and on the night of the 21st his troops established a post on the right flank of the allied army. Lord Wellington having directed general Graham to attack this position on

the 22d, the enemy were driven from the ground with considerable loss. They then made a fresh movement, the object of which was to communicate with their garrisons by the left bank of the Tormes, which river they crossed in force on the 24th; but the approach of general Graham on that side the river caused them to retire to their former position. Meantime the siege of the forts did not proceed with the rapidity that lord Wellington had expected. An attempt to storm the principal work on the night of the 23d failed of success, with considerable loss: major-general Bowes was among the slain. On the 27th, the buildings in the largest fort, St. Vincente, being set on fire by the guns of the besiegers, and a breach being made in another fort, the commander of St. Vincente, in order to gain time, expressed a desire to capitulate after a certain number of hours. Lord Wellington, however, perceiving his object, ordered an immediate storm of the two other forts, which succeeded; and the commander of St. Vincente then sent a flag to notify the surrender of that fort, on the terms of the garrison being prisoners of war, which was accepted, though the storm of the place had commenced. These forts were found to be so strongly constructed, that they could not possibly be taken without a regular attack. They cost the allies above four hundred and fifty men killed and wounded. Upon the intelligence of this event, the French army retired. Lord Wellington on the 1st of July broke up his camp, and advanced towards the French, who were marching upon Tordefillas. Sir Stapleton Cotton attacked their rear guard on the 2d, and drove it in to their main body; but the rest of the allied army were too far distant to impede them in their passage of the Douro, after which they took a position on that river, with their centre at Tordefillas. Lord Wellington took post at Rueda. On the 7th the French were reinforced by the junction of general Bonnet, who had advanced from Asturias. They afterwards extended to their right as far as Toro, where they employed themselves in repairing the bridge which they had before demolished. General Hill at this time had left Albuera, and moved towards the enemy, who retired before him towards Cordova. He had reached Llerena on the 9th.

Marmont now turned upon the allies, and assumed the part of an assailant. He sent a considerable body over the Douro at Toro on the 16th, while lord Wellington on that night moved the allied army to their left, with the intention of concentrating on the Guarena, a river that runs into the Douro. The French on the same night recrossed at Toro, and Marmont moved his whole army to Tordefillas, where, on the 17th, he again crossed the Douro, and on the same day assembled his troops at Nava del Rey. Various movements thence succeeded between the two armies; and the French, on the 18th, made an attack on a body stationed at Castrejon under the command of sir Stapleton Cotton, who resisted till the cavalry joined him, and then retreated in excellent order to the main army on the Guarena. The enemy then crossed that river, and indicated an intention of pressing upon the left of the allied army; but it was defeated by a timely attack made by general Alten's brigade of cavalry, supported by a body of infantry. In this affair a French general was taken, with other prisoners. A variety of other movements were made, in which it was the object of Marmont to cut off the allies from their communication with Salamanca and Ciudad Rodrigo, and of lord Wellington to frustrate this purpose. On the 21st the allied army was concentrated on the Tormes, and the enemy had moved towards the same river.

Two armies moving in such a confined space of ground could not be long without coming to a general engagement; and this result was hastened by the intelligence lord Wellington received on the night of the 21st, that general Chauvel had arrived at Pollos on the 20th with the cavalry and horse-artillery of the northern army, to join Marmont, which he would effect within a day or two.



It was now the English commander's object to find a favourable opportunity for an attack; and this he obtained in the afternoon of the 22d, by an extension of the enemy's line to the left, in order to embrace a post on a hill occupied by the right of the allies. Lord Wellington then, strengthening his right, ordered an attack on the enemy's left, which completely succeeded; as did likewise an attack on the front, in which they were driven successively from height to height. The fate of the battle was for a time suspended by the stand made by a French division, which drove back a division of the allied army; but, some troops being brought up in time, success was restored in this quarter. The enemy's right, reinforced by the fugitives from their left, continued to resist till it was dark, when they at length broke and fled, and the discomfiture of the French army was now complete. They were pursued as long as any of them were to be seen together, but the darkness of the night favoured the escape of many. At break of day the pursuit was renewed; and the cavalry crossing the Tormes, the enemy's rear-guard was overtaken, when their cavalry fled, leaving the infantry to its fate. The pursuit was afterwards continued to Penaranda that night; and on the 24th the victors were still pursuing the flying enemy.

Such was the battle of Salamanca, the most considerable and glorious fought under English command during the war in Spain. No estimate could be made of the enemy's loss in the field, which was undoubtedly great. The trophies of victory were returned at eleven pieces of cannon, several ammunition-waggons, two eagles, and six colours; prisoners, one general, three colonels, three lieutenant-colonels, 130 officers of inferior rank, and between 6 and 7000 soldiers; and many more prisoners continued to be brought in on the following days. Marshal Marmont was severely wounded, and four French general-officers were said to have been killed. The loss on the part of the allies was also considerable, amounting in killed, wounded, and missing, British and Portuguese, to about 5200. One general-officer, major-general le Marchant, was killed, and five others were wounded. Of the small share the Spaniards had in this action, fought on their ground, and for their cause, a judgment may be formed from their return of loss, consisting of two killed and four wounded.

It appears that on the 21st Joseph Bonaparte left Madrid with the army of the centre, directing his march upon Alba de Tormes; but, hearing on the 25th of Marmont's defeat, he retreated towards Segovia. Nothing, therefore, could be more timely than lord Wellington's victory, as the delay of a very few days would materially have strengthened the French army. The rear-guard of the fugitives maintained itself in some strength on the left bank of the Douro during the 28th and 29th; but, on the approach of the light divisions and cavalry of the pursuers, it crossed the river, and followed the motions of the main body, abandoning Valladolid, in which they left seventeen pieces of cannon, much ammunition, and their hospital with about 800 sick and wounded. Parties of the allied army entered that city on the 30th, where they were received with enthusiastic joy. The central French army, in the mean time, had arrived at Segovia, with the apparent intention of making a junction with Marmont's on the Upper Douro. To prevent this, lord Wellington moved on August 1st to Cuellar. On the same day Joseph Bonaparte retired from Segovia, and marched through the pass of Guadarama, leaving an advanced guard of cavalry. He destroyed the cannon and ammunition which were in the castle, carried off the church-plate and other valuable property, and levied a contribution on the inhabitants. Advice from general Hill at this time mentioned a brisk action between the allied and French cavalry in the neighbourhood of Ribera, terminating in favour of the former.

Lord Wellington, finding that Marmont's beaten army continued its retreat upon Burgos, in a state not likely to

take the field again for some time, determined either to bring king Joseph to an action, or compel him to quit the capital. He accordingly moved from Cuellar on August 6th, reached Segovia on the 7th, and halted the following day at St. Ildefonso, about two leagues from Segovia, and twenty from Madrid. The advanced cavalry, after passing the Guadarama, moved forwards on the 11th, and driving in the French cavalry, about 2000 in number, established itself at Majalahonda, under brigadier-general d'Urban. The enemy's cavalry returned in the afternoon; when general d'Urban, having formed the Portuguese cavalry, supported by the horse-artillery, ordered a charge upon the leading squadrons of the French. The valour of the Portuguese, however, notwithstanding the exertions of their officers, gave way, and they turned about before they reached the enemy. They fled through the village of Majalahonda to a body of dragoons of the German legion, leaving unprotected some guns, which fell into the hands of their pursuers. The German cavalry bravely made a charge and stopped the French, who, upon the advance of other troops, finally retreated; but considerable loss was incurred in this unfortunate affair. The army moved forwards, and on the 12th two of its divisions entered Madrid, where they were received with extraordinary marks of joy. Joseph had retired with the army of the centre by the Toledo road, leaving a garrison in fort China in the palace of the Retiro. On the evening of 13th the Retiro was invested, and preparation was made for attacking the works on the next morning, when the commandant of la China sent an offer of capitulation. The honours of war were granted him, upon surrendering the whole garrison and all the persons in the fort prisoners, with all its magazines and artillery. The total number of prisoners of all descriptions amounted to 2500. Of brass ordnance 189 pieces were found, with a great quantity of ammunition, stores, provisions, and clothing. Such were the first fruits of the victory of Salamanca.

Astorga, which had been long under siege by the Spaniards, capitulated on August 18th, its garrison, consisting of three battalions, surrendering prisoners of war, upon the condition of being exchanged, as soon as circumstances should permit, for Spanish prisoners. The French general Foy, who marched from Valladolid with a considerable force to raise the blockades of Toro and Zamora, and the siege of Astorga, arrived too late for the latter purpose, though he effected the others.

The desertion of the long-continued blockade of Cadiz by the French, (see p. 193, 223, 4.) was another important consequence of lord Wellington's victory.—This city, the seat of the Spanish legitimate government, had for some years been in a state which rendered its inhabitants prisoners on the land-side, and subjected them to much distress from scarcity and sickness. This was aggravated by the sense of danger from a bombardment, which, though distant, had latterly, by means of improvements in destructive contrivance, become more serious. All the attempts of the Spaniards themselves to break up the blockade had failed; and, even when the enemy had been obliged to withdraw the greatest part of their troops, the strength of the works discouraged any effort to force them. But, at this period, the advance of the allied army to the centre of the kingdom, and the weakened state of the invaders in the east, whence many veteran corps had been recalled to augment the mighty army against Russia, rendered it no longer safe to carry on operations at so many detached points; and concentration of force was now become necessary. On the night of the 24th and morning of the 25th of August, the French abandoned their works opposite to Cadiz and the Isla, except the town of port Santa Maria, where a body of troops remained till the middle of the day, and then withdrew to Cartuga. Before the besiegers departed, they employed themselves in destroying all the forts and batteries in the lines, affording a grand and gratifying spectacle to Cadiz of immense fires and successive explosions. They left behind them



them a very numerous artillery, mostly rendered unserviceable, and a large quantity of stores and powder unconfused, testifying the precipitation with which the retreat was made.

On August the 11th, in the morning, the French evacuated Bilbao, and on the same and the following day it was occupied by Spanish troops. On the 13th, however, a French force of 3000 men, under general Rouget, advanced from Durango to recover the town. They gained possession of its two bridges, but were attacked in their position on the 14th by a force under general Renavales, who compelled them to make a precipitate retreat towards Zornoza. On the 21st the French again advanced towards Bilbao with an additional force, and made a vigorous attempt to re-enter it, which was resisted by generals Mendizabel and Renavales, and terminated in a defeat of the assailants, who hastily retreated with considerable loss to Durango.

Immediately after the evacuation of the lines of Cadiz, the city of Seville was also freed from the invaders. On August 27, a combined force under general La Cruz and colonel Skerret entered Seville, in which were eight French battalions of infantry and two regiments of cavalry; and, after a tumultuary fight in the streets, on the bridge, and in the suburbs, the French were driven out, leaving horses, baggage, and effects, and about two hundred prisoners. The inhabitants were so zealous in their country's cause, that they rushed forward in the midst of a heavy fire to lay planks across the broken bridge for the passage of the allied troops. About the same time the French evacuated the city and castle of Arcos, in Andalusia, and all the line from Guadalete to Ronda, blowing up their fortifications, and destroying cannon and ammunition.

Marshal Massena was now expected from France, to take the command of the army of Portugal (so called by the French); and it became necessary for lord Wellington to attend closely to its motions. He accordingly quitted Madrid on the 1st of September, having previously ordered his troops to be collected at Arevalo. From that place the army moved on the 4th, and on the 6th crossed the Douro. It advanced into Valladolid, the enemy retiring before it on the Pisuerga, which river they crossed.

At this time, Joseph Bonaparte had made a junction with marshal Suchet in Valencia. The latter was posted upon the Xucar, watching the troops under general Maitland, which, after an advance from Alicante, had retreated, and were cantoned in the villages about that city. Marshal Soult was in Granada; he had been followed by Ballasteros, who had been successful in harassing his rear. Cordova and Jaen were cleared of the invaders. General sir Rowland Hill was at Truxillo, whence he was to advance to Oropesa.

Lord Wellington continued following the enemy, who were retiring upon Burgos; and on the 16th he was joined by three divisions of infantry and a small body of cavalry of the Galician army under general Castanos. On the 17th the enemy were driven to the heights close to Burgos, through which city they retired in the night, leaving behind them some stores and a quantity of provision. A considerable garrison was placed in the castle of Burgos, which commands the passage of the river, and retarded the crossing of the allied army till the 19th. The French had also fortified with a horn-work the hill of St. Michael, three hundred yards from the castle, and commanding some of its works. The possession of this hill was a necessary preliminary to an attack on the castle; its outworks were therefore immediately occupied by the allied troops; and, as soon as it was dark, an assault was made on the horn-work, which was carried, but not without considerable loss. A mine which had been laid under the exterior line of the castle exploded on the night of the 29th, and made a breach in the wall, which a party of the assailants immediately attempted to storm; but, the darkness causing the detachment which was meant to support them to miss its way, they were driven off. A second mine, however,

being sprung on October 4th, another breach was made, which was immediately stormed with success, and the allied troops established themselves within the exterior line. The French were still upon the Ebro, and made no effort to disturb the besiegers. The garrison of the castle of Burgos made sorties on the 6th, and the 10th, in which they considerably injured the works of the allies, and occasioned some loss of men; the besiegers, however, effected a breach in the interior line, and lodged some troops close to it. Things continued nearly in the same state till the 18th; when lord Wellington, having received a supply of ammunition, and completed another mine, determined upon storming the breach in the second line as soon as that should explode. The attempt was made with great gallantry; but the fire of the enemy directed to the spot was so powerful, that the assailants were obliged to retire with considerable loss.

The hopes of final success now grew fainter, especially as the French army began to make demonstrations of a serious design to raise the siege. The army of Portugal had been reinforced by fresh troops from France, and by all the disposable part of the army of the north, and was now in formidable strength. On the 13th they had made a reconnoissance of the allied outposts at Monasterio; and on the 18th they had made an attack in force, and gained possession of the heights commanding that town, whence the outpost had been obliged to retire. They afterwards attempted to drive in other outposts, but for the time were repulsed. General Hill now sent intelligence of the enemy's intentions on his side to move towards the Tagus; and it was become necessary for lord Wellington to be near him, that their two armies might not be insulated, and rendered incapable of communication. His lordship therefore found it advisable to take the mortifying step, on the night of the 20th, of breaking up the siege, and moving his whole army back to the Douro. He affirms, that he was never very sanguine in his hopes of success in this siege, though the advantage he should have derived from the possession of the place appeared to justify a trial. He probably depended upon a coup de main, his artillery being apparently inadequate to regular operations. The time lost before Burgos was, however, a serious evil, by allowing the enemy to collect all his force; and was probably decisive of the remainder of the campaign.

The allied troops were withdrawn from Madrid, having first destroyed the fort of la China, and all the stores and guns it contained, which had not been carried away. A body of the enemy entered that capital on November 1.

Sir Rowland Hill, who had retired from the Tagus, and taken post on the Jacama, was directed to quit that position, and march northwards; and in the beginning of November he arrived unmolested on the Adaja. Lord Wellington directed sir Rowland to continue his march upon Alba de Tormes; and on November 6th he himself broke up from his position before Tordesillas, and proceeded for the heights of St. Christoval in front of Salamanca. On the 8th he took his position on those heights; and upon the same day general Hill occupied the town and castle of Alba, posting troops on the Tormes to support them. On the 14th, the enemy having crossed the Tormes in force, lord Wellington broke up from St. Christoval, and moved with an intention to attack them; but, finding them too strongly posted, he withdrew all the troops from the neighbourhood of Alba to the Arapiles, or heights near Salamanca which had been the scene of his victory. Finding, on the 15th, that the enemy were strengthening their positions, and pushing on bodies to interrupt the communications of the allied army with Ciudad Rodrigo, his lordship determined to move upon that place, which he reached on the 19th, followed by a large body of the enemy, which, however, did not press upon his rear. Some loss was sustained from a cannonade in passing a river; and lieutenant-general sir Edward Paget had the misfortune to be taken prisoner, as he was riding alone through a wood. On the 24th of November, the head-quarters of the allies were again



again established at Freneyda on the Portuguese frontier; and the greater part of the enemy's forces had recrossed the Tormes, and were marching towards the Douro.

Such, in its main points, was the peninsular campaign of the year 1812; for the numerous conflicts between the guerilla-parties and the scattered forces of the invaders, besides that they are represented in totally different colours by the several antagonists, had too little influence on the general result to require a particular narrative. It will be seen, that the vigorous efforts made by lord Wellington to penetrate to the centre of Spain, and take advantage of the weakened condition of the French, whose ruler had in this year directed the chief force of his empire to a very distant quarter, formed the great chain of events. They obliged the invaders to withdraw their forces from the southern provinces, to break up the lines of Cadiz, which had so long held the Spanish government in inglorious fetters, to remain merely on the defensive on the eastern coast after the capture of Valencia, and to concentrate all their disposable force against the progress of the conqueror at Salamanca. That they were at last successful, and that the high hopes of the British nation, elevated by repeated triumph, were finally frustrated, only proves that the strength and activity of the French in Spain were greater than had been calculated upon; and, probably, that the exertions of the Spaniards were as much less. The conduct of lord Wellington obtained universal applause and admiration from his countrymen, and was repaid by more honours and rewards than had been bestowed on any British general since the time of Marlborough. In the course of the year were added to his former titles those of Earl and Marquis; and he received from parliament the most substantial proofs of the nation's gratitude.

The public has never been acquainted with the extent of the losses sustained by the allied army in this campaign; but there is no doubt that they must have been very considerable. In particular, its retreat from Burgos to its winter-quarters, pursued by a superior and enterprising foe, though conducted with great military skill, could not fail of being very disastrous. But more than its loss of men, horses, and equipage, is to be lamented the stain incurred by its character on this occasion; a stain impressed by the commander-in-chief himself. Lord Wellington, in an address to his army, has, in the face of his country, and all Europe, reproached it with a want of discipline, "greater," he says, "than any army with which he had ever served, or of which he had ever read." He proceeds: "It must be obvious to every officer, that from the moment the troops commenced their retreat from the neighbourhood of Burgos on the one hand, and from Madrid on the other, the officers lost all command over their men. Irregularities and outrages of all descriptions were committed with impunity; and losses have been sustained which ought never to have occurred." It is to be hoped that his lordship's feelings have given a degree of exaggeration to his expressions; otherwise it is difficult to conceive how such troops can recover the esteem of their countrymen, or deserve the confidence of their allies.

We shall now take a view of the transactions of the Spanish Cortes and government during a period so fertile of important events to the nation.—On the 2d of January the Cortes discussed a project presented for the improvement of the system of government, when the following propositions were approved: That in the present circumstances there shall be appointed twenty counsellors of state, of whom two only shall be ecclesiastics; two only grandees of Spain; and the sixteen others taken from persons who serve, or have served, in diplomatic, military, economic, or magisterial, offices; and who have distinguished themselves by their talents, knowledge, or services: of these, at least six from the provinces beyond the seas. A number of articles were then read and approved respecting the obligations and powers of the regency. The change of the regency soon took place; in which

the duke del Infantado, then resident minister in England, was declared president, and the count of Lavital (O'Donnell) vice-president. The members of the late regency were nominated counsellors of state.

The new regency, on January 23, issued an address to the Spanish nation, urging them in energetic language to make every possible exertion for the safety and independence of the country, and not concealing the imminent dangers with which it was surrounded. The actions of this body corresponded with their words; they were vigorous, prompt, and decisive; a variety of reforms were made, and attention was particularly paid to recruiting and disciplining the regular army, and to the formation of officers fit to be intrusted with command. The regency, in March, directed a circular address to the people of Spanish America, setting forth to them the arduous struggle in which the mother-country was engaged with an implacable foe, and the salutary labours of the Cortes in forming a constitution for the general benefit; and expressing their hope that their American brethren would aid the cause by a voluntary subscription among all ranks and classes, to be deposited in the royal chests, and remitted to Spain. The Cortes, about this time, gave a further proof of the liberality of their sentiments, by a decree to enable all Spanish subjects of Moorish origin, either by the father's or mother's side, to take degrees in the universities, and to enter the religious orders, or the priesthood—privileges of which former bigotry had deprived them.

The 18th of March presented an august and interesting spectacle to the citizens of Cadiz, and to all the Spaniards assembled for the purpose of witnessing the completion of the labours of their representatives. On that day the General and Extraordinary Cortes held a solemn sitting for the purpose of a public signature of the articles of the Constitution. Deputies from all parts of the Spanish monarchy were present, and 184 persons signed two copies of the constitution. A decree which had been approved at a secret sitting was then read, relative to the succession to the crown, the object of which was to guard against its coming into the possession of those who were justly considered as enemies to the national independence. It was to the following effect: "The General and Extraordinary Cortes, considering that the welfare and security of the state are incompatible with the concurrence of circumstances in the persons of the infant Don Francisco de Paula, and the infanta Donna Maria Louisa queen of Etruria, brother and sister of Don Ferdinand VII. have resolved to declare and decree, that Don Francisco de Paula and his descendants, and Donna Maria-Louisa and her descendants, remain excluded from the succession to the crown of the Spains. In consequence, in default of the infant Don Carlos Maria and his legitimate descendants, the infanta Donna Carlotta Joaquina, princess of the Brasils, and her legitimate descendants, shall come to the succession of the crown; and, in default of her heirs, then Donna Maria Isabel, hereditary princess of the two Sicilies, and her legitimate descendants; and in default of these three nearest relatives of Ferdinand VII. and their descendants, then shall succeed the other persons and lines who ought to succeed according to the constitution, in the order and form which it has established. At the same time the Cortes declare and decree excluded from the succession to the crown of the Spains the archduchess of Austria, Donna Maria-Louisa, [empress of France,] daughter of Francis II. emperor of Austria, by his first marriage, as also the descendants of the said archduchess."

A commission was then appointed to carry the Constitution to the regency, which received it with profound respect, and engaged to guarantee its observance in all the Spanish dominions. On March the 20th, all the deputies assembled in the hall of congress to swear to the constitution; which being performed, the Regency entered the hall, and with due solemnity took the oath of office prescribed



scribed in the 173d article of the constitution. The president of the Cortes then addressed the Regency, and was replied to by the president of that body; and the day closed with a solemn proclamation of the constitution, and a grand dinner, at which the British ambassador was a conspicuous guest.

At a sitting of the Cortes in October, senior Castella made a long and well-reasoned discourse concerning the inhumanity and injustice of that regulation in the American colonies called the *mitas*, by which each district is required to contribute a certain number of men for the cultivation of the land, the working of mines, and other task-labour; and, after a full discussion of the subject, the following propositions were put to the vote, and unanimously approved: 1. That the *mitas* should be for ever abolished. 2. That the Indians should be exempted from the personal service they gave the clergy, or any other public functionary whatever; obliging them, nevertheless, to satisfy the parochial rights, in the same manner as the other classes. 3. That the public charges, such as the rebuilding of churches, and making roads, should be equally borne by all the inhabitants indiscriminately. 4. That divisions of lands should be made to the Indians, leaving to the provincial deputies the care of assigning the quotas. 5. That in all the American territories, some of the dignities should necessarily remain with the Indians. The policy as well as justice of thus endeavouring to conciliate this much-injured part of the colonial population to the mother-country, by redressing the cruel wrongs under which it has so long groaned, is evident; and, if it has been a consequence of the civil war kindled in those regions between the native and transatlantic Spaniards, the friends of humanity may be gratified by some compensation for the evils of which the war has been the cause.

In the historical account of the last year, notice was taken of the jealousy prevailing in the Spanish nation of any attempt to place their armies under British command. The great success and high merits of lord Wellington in the campaign of this year overcame, in the general feeling, this repugnance as far as regarded his person; and the Cortes, which had elevated him to the rank of a grandee of Spain, at length gave the strongest proof of their esteem and confidence, by a resolution declaring him Commander-in-chief of the Spanish armies. When, in consequence of this appointment, his lordship sent an order to general Ballasteros, captain-general of Andalusia, and undoubtedly one of the most zealous and active of the Spanish commanders, to move his army, that officer felt his honour so much piqued, and considered it as such a national degradation, that he declined to comply. The regency would not permit such an infraction of the obedience due to the sovereign authority by any person of whatever rank serving under it; and issued a notice acquainting the public with the discharge of Don Fr. Ballasteros from his command in the army, and the appointment, *ad interim*, of Don Joaquim Vives in his stead. At the same time Ballasteros was put under arrest in the midst of his army, which made no resistance; and received an order to depart for Ceuta. To obviate any unfavourable impression on the nation from this measure, the secretary at war, on October 30, read before the Cortes a memorial (which was printed) setting forth the deplorable state of the country when the regency assumed the reins of government, and the additions which had been made to its military force during the present year, with the improvement of its prospects since the capture of Ciudad Rodrigo by lord Wellington. It also mentioned that orders had been sent to the generals in chief of the armies to act in concert with, and in obedience to, the duke of Ciudad Rodrigo.

The kingdom of Portugal, during this year, enjoyed that exemption from hostile devastations which had been secured by the exertions of its great defender, interrupted only by that irruption of the French into the Lower Beira, which was intended as a diversion in favour of Ba-

dajos, then under siege by lord Wellington. Opportunity was therefore given for the operations of agriculture, and the other means of recovery from the severe calamities it had undergone; and it cannot be doubted that the sums of money derived from English subsidies, and the expenditure of the English troops in their passage through Lisbon, materially aided the resources of the country. The assiduity of marshal Beresford and the authority of lord Wellington had placed the military establishment of Portugal upon a very respectable footing; and before the close of 1811 there were numbered of troops of the line and in garrison above 54,000, of militia 58,000, and of the ordenanza, armed partly with pikes, partly with muskets, above 200,000. Of the regulars, a large proportion served with the allied army in Spain, and on various occasions acquired great credit.—On the 13th of February, 1812, the government of Portugal issued a proclamation addressed to the people in general, comparing their past and present state; and, although pointing out the improvement of their condition, yet showing the necessity of precautionary measures against such sudden inroads as might possibly be made by the enemy. Of these, they specify the three following: 1. All persons capable of bearing arms must be exercised in the use of them; and those whose age or sex unfit them for military service, must take measures by anticipation for repairing to places of security in case circumstances shall make it necessary. 2. They must carry off or conceal all money, gold, silver, or jewels, which might tempt the avarice of the enemy. 3. They must carefully conceal, or if necessary destroy, all provisions that cannot be carried off, and remove cattle and carriages, in order to deprive the invader of means of subsistence and advance.—The treaty of amity, navigation, and commerce, between Portugal and Russia, concluded at Peterburgh in 1798, now drawing to a termination, a renewal of it was agreed upon by the two parties, to remain in force till June 1815, with no other alteration than an addition to the duty on Portuguese wines imported into Russia, corresponding to the additional duties since laid upon other wines.

The remainder of the year offers nothing remarkable with respect to this part of the peninsula, which, partly by the exertions of its own troops under British command, had the satisfaction to see its security from the common enemy greatly improved during the operations of this campaign, by the recovery of the strong fortresses of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajos from the possession of the French, and their retreat from the other parts of its frontier.—Let us, therefore, turn our attention to another quarter of the globe, where we shall find some transactions interesting and honourable to the English character, though not without some mortifying reveries.

From the temper manifested by the president and congress of the United States towards the close of last year, (see p. 261.) it was evident that nothing could prevent a war between that country and Great Britain, but either a change in the system pursued by the latter, or a dread in the former to come to the point of actual hostilities, under the prospect of much suffering from abroad, and much discontent at home. This temper continued to prevail; and, as we have seen at p. 281, 291, American hostility had outstripped English pacification. As commercial grievances constituted a great part of the complaints against Great Britain, it is highly probable, that, if the orders in council had been repealed early enough for intelligence of the event to have reached America before the final decision, the advocates for peace would have acquired so much additional strength as, at least, to have deferred the declaration of hostilities till time had been given for negotiating on the other points in dispute. Indeed, little doubt seemed to be entertained on this side the Atlantic, that the news of the repeal, protracted as it was, would arrive time enough to prevent actual war. But, the first recoil from a resolution full of hazard and mischief having passed, men were brought to regard it as a thing decided,



and to consider what public or private advantage could be made of the new state of affairs. Subsequent events, too, render it highly probable that the American government had anticipated credit from the commencement of the war, especially from the conquest of Canada, which seems to have been regarded as an easy task.

The first act of hostility between the two powers occurred almost immediately after the declaration of war. Commodore Rodgers, of the President frigate, leaving New York with a squadron of ships of war, having received intelligence that a British convoy had sailed about a month before from Jamaica, made course to the southward; and on June 23d fell in with the Belvedere English frigate, Capt. Byron, to which he gave chase. The President alone got near enough for action, and a running fight ensued for three hours, after which the Belvedere kept on her way for Halifax unmolested, having undergone some damage, and had some men killed and wounded. The President also incurred some loss of men, chiefly from the bursting of one of her own guns. Capt. Byron, concluding from this attack that war was declared, captured three American merchant-vessels before he arrived in port; but these were released by admiral Sawyer, commander on the Halifax station; hoping and expecting probably that matters would yet be accommodated.

Parties are the inseparable concomitants of free governments; and the republic of the United States has always had its full share of the dissensions springing from this source. A war so differently affecting the different parts of the union, could not but be received with great diversity of feeling.—At Bolton, on the day of its declaration, all the ships in the port displayed flags half-mast high, the usual token of mourning; and a town-meeting was held in that city, in which a number of resolutions were passed, stigmatizing the war as unnecessary and ruinous, and leading to a connexion with France destructive to American liberty and independence.—Very different were the popular sentiments in the southern states, where swarms of privateers were preparing to reap the expected harvest of prizes among the West-India islands. Of the towns in this interest, Baltimore stood foremost in violence and outrage. A newspaper published there, entitled the Federal Republican, had rendered itself obnoxious by its opposition to the measures of the war-party, and menaces had repeatedly been thrown out against the conductors. On the night of the 27th of July, a mob assembled before the house of the editor, for the purpose of destroying it. In expectation of this attack, he had collected a number of friends with fire-arms to defend it from the inside, among whom were generals Lee and Langan. An affray arose, in which the mob were several times repulsed with loss. At length a party of military were brought to the spot by the mayor and general Stricker, to whom those of the defenders who were left in the house, twenty-six in number, surrendered themselves upon assurance of safety, and were conducted to prison. Next day, at the shameful instigation of a public journal, the mob re-assembled before the gaol, with the intention of taking their revenge; and, having broken open the doors, after some of the prisoners had rushed through and made their escape, they fell upon the rest with clubs, and beat them till scarcely any signs of life remained. General Langan, a man of seventy years of age, and formerly a friend of Washington, was killed on the spot. General Lee, a distinguished partisan in the revolutionary war, had his skull fractured; and many others were severely injured. The militia refused to turn out while this massacre was perpetrating; and the mayor is said to have absented himself. It must be added, that this atrocity was regarded with horror and indignation in all the other parts of the United States.

The campaign against Canada commenced early in July. On the 11th of that month, general Hull, with a body of 2300 men, regulars and militia, crossed the river above Detroit, and marched to Sandwich, in the province of Upper Canada. He there issued a proclamation to the

Canadians in a style expressing great confidence of success; and threatening a *war of extermination* in case of the employment of savages, which appeared to be an object of his peculiar dread. The Indians were, however, already engaged in hostilities; and intelligence was soon after received of the capture of Fort Michilimachinack, July 17, by a combined force of English, Canadians, and savages, the latter of whom were hitherto kept in perfect order.

General Hull's operations were directed against Fort Malden, or Amherstburg; and, after having driven in the militia who opposed him, he arrived with part of his forces at the river Canard, which he thrice attempted to cross, but was foiled with considerable loss. Major-general Brock, in the British service, had in the mean time been active in collecting succours for the relief of Fort Amherstburg; and, on August the 12th, he entered that place with a reinforcement, having met with no obstacle, on account of the superiority of the British naval force on the lakes. The Americans had now become dispirited, and had given up their hopes of taking the fort with their present means. They retreated to their own fort of Detroit, and the British in their turn became assailants. Batteries were constructed opposite to that post, and a party crossed the river, and took a position to the west of it. General Brock now resolved upon an assault though his united force consisted of no more than about 700 men, including militia, and 600 auxiliary Indians. This extremity was, however, prevented by a proposal of capitulation from general Hull: the terms were soon settled, and the important fort of Detroit was surrendered, on August 16, with 2500 men and 33 pieces of ordnance. This was doubtless a severe mortification to the Americans, as it gave a decisive proof of the inferiority of their military prowess or skill to those of the enemy they had provoked, and damped their hopes of the conquest of Canada. That these had been sanguine, may be inferred from the refusal of the president of the United States to continue an armistice which had been temporarily agreed upon between general Prevost, the governor-general of Canada, and general Dearborn, commander-in-chief of the American forces in the northern states. This measure had been proposed by the governor, in the hope that the repeal of the orders in council, of which intelligence had reached America, would have led to an amicable adjustment of the subsisting differences; but the government of the United States, determined, it should seem, to pursue a favourite object, would not consent to a suspension of its operations.

The loss and disgrace incurred by the surrender of Gen. Hull were, however, in some degree balanced to the Americans by their success on the element which had long been the theatre of triumph to their adversaries.—The strength of the navy of the United States consisted in a few frigates of a rate corresponding to the largest British; but in size, weight of metal, and number of men, almost equal to ships of the line of battle. This difference seems not to have been known, or not attended to, in the English navy, the officers of which, with their habitual readiness to meet an enemy, would certainly never decline an encounter where the nominal force was any thing near a parity. In engaging with other enemies, the superiority of British skill and valour had indeed often compensated the difference of force; but the American navy was manned by sailors many of whom were unfortunately British, and many more had been trained in British service.

The fatal consequence of this misapprehension was first experienced by the English frigate *Guerriere*, commanded by captain Dacres, which, on August 19, being in lat. 40. 20. N. and lon. 55. W. was brought to action by the American frigate *Constitution*, captain Hull. The respective force is thus stated: *Guerriere*, rating 38 guns, but mounting 49, her gun-deck 18-pounders, carronades 32; complement 300 men, but only 263 on-board at quarters: *Constitution*, rating 44 guns, but mounting 65, gun-deck 24-pounders, carronades 32-pounders; complement



450 men. The engagement was sharp, but of short duration; for, the *Guerriere* being totally dismasted, and rolling so deep as to render her guns useless, while the enemy was enabled to rake her at pleasure, it became absolutely necessary, in order to prevent a further loss of lives for no purpose, to strike her colours. Of the crew, 15 had been killed, and 63 wounded; and the injury sustained by the ship was so great, that, after the men were all taken out, the captors set her on fire. Not the least imputation fell on the conduct of Capt. Dacres or his ship's company during the action, who yielded only to irresistible superiority of physical strength. It is pleasing to add, that they received the most honourable and humane treatment from the American commander. The triumphant arrival of the *Constitution* at Boston, whence she had been fitted out, doubtless rendered the war less unpopular than it had originally been in that town, and stimulated the spirit of marine enterprise.

The disaster which befel Gen. Hull had disconcerted the plan for the invasion of Canada; but the design was by no means renounced. A considerable force was assembled in the neighbourhood of Niagara, and on October 13, the American general Wadsworth, with 13 or 1400 men, made an attack on the British position of Queenstown, on the Niagara river. On receiving the intelligence, major-general Brock hastened to the spot, and led on a few troops for its defence. He had previously sent orders to brigademajor Evans, who commanded at Fort George, to batter the opposite American fort Niagara, which was done so effectually, that the garrison was forced to abandon it. General Brock was unfortunately killed while cheering on his men; and the position was for a time taken by the enemy. Reinforcements, however, being brought up by major-general Sheaffe, the next in command, the Americans were attacked; and, after a short but sharp conflict, in which they sustained a considerable loss in killed and wounded, general Wadsworth surrendered himself prisoner on the field, with upwards of 900 men and many officers, the troops to which they yielded being about the same number. The loss on the part of the British was small, with the exception of general Brock, in whom his country was deprived of an officer of distinguished courage and ability. Major-general Sheaffe, who succeeded him in the command, was created a baronet by the prince-regent, as soon as the news arrived. See the article *HERALDRY*, vol. ix. Plate XCVI.

The balance of success in the naval war continued to preponderate on the side of the Americans. Besides the numerous captures made by their privateers, actions took place between ships of war which tended to augment their confidence. On the 18th of October, his majesty's armed brig *Frolic*, conveying the homeward-bound trade from the bay of Honduras, while in the act of repairing damages to her masts and sails received in a violent gale on the preceding night, descried a vessel which gave chase to the convoy. She proved to be the United States sloop-of-war *Wasp*, which the *Frolic* gallantly brought to action, though in her crippled state, in order to save her convoy. She soon, however, became so unmanageable, that the *Wasp* was enabled to take a raking position, whilst the *Frolic* could not get a gun to bear. The result was, that, every individual officer being wounded, and not more than twenty of the crew remaining unhurt, the enemy boarded, and made prize of the brig. On the same afternoon, however, his majesty's ship *Poitiers* recaptured the *Frolic*, and took the *Wasp*. The respective force of the two vessels is not mentioned; but Capt. Whinyates of the *Frolic* represents his fire as superior in the beginning, and attributes his misfortune solely to the injury done to his vessel by the storm.

A second action between frigates of the two nations was of much more serious consequence.—The Macedonian frigate, Capt. Carden, being in lat. 29. N. lon. 29. 30. W. on October 25, descried a ship which proved to be a large frigate under American colours. He did not

hesitate to close with her as soon as possible, and the action began at nine A.M. After an hour's firing, on coming to close quarters, he found his antagonist's force so much superior, that he had no chance of success, except from some fortunate accident. He bravely continued the action to two hours and ten minutes; when, the injuries his ship sustained from the enemy's fire having rendered her a perfect wreck, lying like a log upon the water, whilst his opponent was still in good condition, and a heavy loss being incurred in killed and wounded, he submitted, however unwillingly, to surrender rather than make still greater sacrifices. On being taken on-board the enemy's ship, the United States, commodore Decatur, he ceased to wonder at the event of the battle. She was of the scantling of a 74-gun ship, mounted thirty 24-pounders on her main-deck, twenty-two carronades 42-pounders, two 24-pounders on her quarter-deck and fore-castle, and had a complement of 478 picked men. Of captain Carden's crew there were 104 killed and wounded.

On the 4th of November, congress assembled after its adjournment, when a message from the president was communicated to both houses. Its leading topic was the state of the war in which the country was engaged, and a summary of its principal occurrences. In advertent to the failure of the attempts upon Canada, heavy complaints were made of the employment of savage auxiliaries by the British government, and inciting them to hostilities; for which, it was said, no pretext had been given by the example of the American government. The effect, however, was stated to have been that of rousing to arms the citizens on the frontier, of whom an ample force, with the addition of a few regulars, was proceeding towards the Michigan territory. A complaint was then made of a refusal on the part of the governors of Massachusetts and Connecticut to furnish the required detachments of militia towards the defence of the maritime frontier, in consequence of a novel exposition of the provisions of the constitution relative to the militia; and the bad effects of such a want of concurrence was pointed out. With respect to the overtures for an amicable termination of the differences with Great Britain, the president informed congress of the terms on which their chargé d'affaires at London was authorized to agree to an armistice. These were, that the orders in council should be repealed as they affected the United States, without a revival of the blockades violating acknowledged rules; that there should be an immediate discharge of American seamen from British ships, and a stop to impressments from American ships, with an understanding that an exclusion of the seamen of each nation from the ships of the other should be stipulated; and that the armistice should be improved into a final adjustment of all depending controversies. This advance, the president says, was declined by the English, from an avowed repugnance to suspending the practice of impressing during the armistice, and without any intimation that the arrangement proposed respecting seamen would be accepted.—The correspondence between lord Castlereagh and Mr. Russell, and between admiral Warren and Mr. Monroe, respecting an armistice and negotiation, was laid before congress, and afterwards printed in the American papers.

A third British frigate was lost to our navy at the close of the year.—The account from New York states, that "On the 29th of December, about ten leagues from the coast of Brasil, the United-States frigate *Constitution* fell in with and captured his Britannic majesty's frigate *Java*, of 49 guns, and manned with upwards of 400 men. The action continued an hour and fifty-five minutes—in which time the *Java* was made a complete wreck, having her bowsprit and every mast and spar shot out of her. The *Constitution* had 9 killed, and 25 wounded; the *Java*, 60 killed, (our Gazette-account says 22 only,) and 102 wounded. Among the latter was her commander, captain Lambert, a very distinguished officer, mortally.—The *Java* was rated at 38 guns, but mounted 49. She was



just out of dock, and fitted in the completest manner to carry out lieutenant-general Hislop, governor of Bombay, and his staff; captain Marshall, a commander in the British navy; and a number of naval officers, going to join the British ships of war in the East-Indies. Besides these, and having her own complement of officers and men complete, she had upwards of 100 supernumeraries, of petty officers and seamen for the admiral's ship and other vessels on the East-India station. She had also dispatches from the British government for St. Helena, the Cape of Good Hope, and to every British establishment in the East-India and China seas; and had copper on-board for a 74-gun ship, and two floops of war, building at Bombay; and it is presumed many other valuables; all of which were blown up in her on the 31st of December, when she was set on fire.—The Constitution was considerably cut in her spars, rigging, and sails; but the Java was made a perfectly unmanageable wreck. All the officers and seamen taken in the Java were paroled by commodore Bainbridge, and landed on the 3d of January at St. Salvador, Brasil.

In these several defeats sustained by the British navy, no honour was lost, since every thing was done in defence that could be effected by courage and conduct against superior force; but the unusual circumstance of English striking to foreign ships of a similar class, produced as much mortification on one side as triumph on the other; and both beyond the occasion.

At this time also, the West-Indian seas swarmed with privateers which made numerous captures; and, from the shelter they obtained in small islands of difficult access, were not easily discovered or avoided. A meeting of the merchants and others concerned in the coasting trade of Jamaica was held at Kingston on the 25th of September, in which a resolution was passed relative to its unprotected state; and a committee was appointed to wait upon vicemirador Sterling, requesting him to grant all the protection to the coast in his power to afford. He informed them that two cruisers were already stationed on the coasts; and that, upon the arrival of other vessels of war, they should be employed on the same service. It appears, however, that, during the remainder of the year, the defence of the commerce of the West-India islands was very inadequate to the means of annoyance possessed by the enemy.

In other respects, the West-India islands afforded very little interesting matter for the history of this year; but the tranquillity of the inhabitants, and their blissful apathy for political convulsions, was as usual disturbed by the periodical scourge of these parts of the globe, the hurricane, preceded by horror and silence, attended by gloom and devastation, and followed by the desolation of the land where it passes in its destructive career. But, before we proceed to the history of these horrors, we may just observe, that the negro-government of St. Domingo (Hayti) was this year a scene of that disorder and mutation which may always be expected where the strongest sword is the only source of authority. The mimic monarch, Christophe, whom we left last year (p. 263.) enjoying himself in great state, was encountered with superior force by his rival Petion, and, for the time at least, sunk under the contest. Petion is stated to have made the whole of Christophe's cavalry prisoners about the 15th of April. During his absence, however, from Port au Prince, Christophe had suddenly appeared before that place, and gained possession of a strong fort; on which account all the British shipping had been ordered away by captain Vashon. But this success was only temporary; Petion took from him St. Mark's, Cape Nicholas Mole, and Gonaives: Christophe was deserted by his staff-officers, and fled to the mountains; and, in fine, the feat of his power, Cape François, submitted without resistance to his rival. The treasure which Christophe had amassed by the most unjust exactions, to the amount of seven

millions of dollars, fell into the hands of Petion, who issued a proclamation, declaring that this money should be applied in re-establishing the affairs of the island.

The interest of the public had been powerfully excited by accounts received in London from Barbadoes and Nevis, of a preternatural darkness on the first of May; and a fall of volcanic dust, which indicated some great natural convulsion in that part of the world; and reports were actually circulated of the destruction of the islands of Martinico and Guadaloupe. At length, however, the following accounts from St. Vincent's explained the phenomena.

The Souffrier Mountain, the most northerly of the lofty chain running through the centre of this island, and the highest, had for some time past indicated much inquietude; and, from the extraordinary frequency and violence of earthquakes, which are calculated to have exceeded two hundred within the last year, portended some great movement or eruption. The apprehension, however, was not so immediate as to restrain curiosity, or to prevent repeated visits to the crater, which of late had been more numerous than at any former period, even to Sunday the 26th of April, when some gentlemen ascended it, and remained there for some time. Nothing unusual was then remarked, or any external difference observed, except a rather stronger emission of smoke from the interstices of the conical hill at the bottom of the crater. To those that have not visited this romantic and wonderful spot, a slight description of it, as it lately stood, is previously necessary. About 2000 feet from the level of the sea, on the south side of the mountain, and rather more than two-thirds of its height, opens a circular chasm, somewhat exceeding half a mile in diameter, and between 400 and 500 feet in depth; exactly in the centre of this capacious bowl rose a conical hill about 260 or 300 feet in height, and about 200 in diameter, richly covered and variegated with shrubs, brushwood, and vines, above half-way up; and the remainder covered over with virgin sulphur to the top. From the fissures of the cone and interstices of the rocks, a thin white smoke was constantly emitted, occasionally tinged with a slight bluish flame. The precipitous sides of this magnificent amphitheatre were fringed with various evergreens and aromatic shrubs, flowers, and many alpine plants. On the north and south sides of the base of the cone were two pieces of water; one perfectly pure and tasteless, the other strongly impregnated with sulphur and alum. This lonely and beautiful spot was rendered more enchanting by the singularly-melodious notes of a bird, an inhabitant of these upper solitudes, and altogether unknown to the other parts of the island: hence principally called or supposed to be invisible; though it certainly has been seen, and is a species of thrush.

The eruption of the Souffrier Mountain, on Thursday the 30th of April, after the lapse of nearly a century, was preceded on Monday the 27th at noon by a dreadful crash, with a severe concussion of the earth, a tremulous noise in the air, and a vast column of thick black ropery smoke, which, mounting to the sky, showered down sand, with gritty calcined particles of earth and favilla mixed, on all below. At night a very considerable degree of ignition was observed on the lips of the crater. The same awful scene presented itself on Tuesday the 28th; the fall of favilla and calcined pebbles still increasing, and the column from the crater rising perpendicularly to an immense height, with a noise at intervals like the muttering of distant thunder. On Wednesday the 29th, the column shot up with quicker motion, dilating as it rose like a balloon. At length, on Thursday the 30th in the afternoon, the noise became incessant, and resembled the approach of thunder still nearer and nearer, with a vibration that affected the feeling and hearing. The Charaibes settled at Morne Ronde, at the foot of the Souffrier, abandoned their houses, with their live stock, and every thing



thing they possessed, and fled precipitately towards the town. The negroes became confused, forsook their work, looked up to the mountain, and, as it shook, trembled, with the dread of what they could neither understand or describe—the birds fell to the ground, overpowered with showers of dust, unable to keep themselves on the wing—the cattle were starving for want of food, as not a blade of grass or a leaf was now to be found. The sea was much discoloured, but in no wise uncommonly agitated. About four o'clock P. M. the noise became more alarming, and just before sun-set the clouds reflected a bright copper colour, suffused with fire; and at length, about the close of day, the flame burst pyramidically from the crater through the mafs of smoke; the rolling of the thunder became more awful and deafening: flashes of lightning quickly succeeded, attended with loud claps, and a great variety of lightning and electric flashes, some forked zig-zag playing across the perpendicular column from the crater—others shooting upwards from the mouth, like rockets of the most dazzling lustre—others like shells with their trailing fuses lying in different parabolas. About seven in the evening the ebullition of lava broke out on the north-west side: this, immediately after boiling over the orifice, and flowing a short way, was opposed by the activity of a higher point of land, over which it was impelled by the immense tide of liquefied fire that drove it on, forming the figure V in grand illumination. Sometimes, when the ebullition slackened, or was insufficient to urge it over the obstructing hill, it recoiled back, and then again rushed forward, impelled by fresh supplies, and, scaling every obstacle, carried rocks and woods together in its course down the slope of the mountain, until it precipitated itself into a vast ravine. Vast globular bodies of fire were projected from the fiery furnaces, and bursting fell back into it, or over it, on the surrounding bushes, which were instantly set in flames. In about four hours from the time the lava boiled over the crater, it reached the sea. About half-past one in the morning, another stream of lava was seen descending to the eastward towards Rabacca. At this time the first earthquake was felt: this was followed by showers of cinders, that fell with the hissing noise of hail during two hours. At three, a rolling on the roofs of the houses indicated a fall of stones, which soon thickened, and at length descended in a rain of intermingled fire—the miserable negroes, flying from their huts, were knocked down or wounded; and many were killed in the open air. Several houses were set on fire. Had the stones that fell been heavy in proportion to their size, not a living creature could have escaped; but, having undergone a thorough fusion, they were divested of their natural gravity, and fell light, though in some places as large as a man's head. This dreadful rain of stones and fire lasted upwards of an hour, and was again succeeded by cinders from three till six o'clock in the morning. Earthquake followed earthquake almost momentarily, or rather the whole of this part of the island was in a state of continued oscillation;—not agitated by shocks, vertical or horizontal; but undulated like water shaken in a bowl. Darkness was only visible at eight o'clock in the morning: a chaotic gloom enveloped the mountain, and an impenetrable haze hung over the sea, with black sluggish clouds of a sulphureous cast. The whole island was covered with favilla, cinders, scoria, and broken masses of volcanic matter. It was not until the afternoon that the muttering noise of the mountain sunk gradually into a solemn but suspicious silence.

The above is from the St. Vincent's Gazette of the 2d of May. The Gazette of the 18th states, that the mountain had continued to be agitated up to the 7th, when its more violent paroxysms gradually subsided. By this dreadful calamity, the large and extensive rivers of Rabacca and Wallibon were dried up, and in their places was a wide expanse of barren land. The melted minerals which, with irresistible explosion, were dashed into the sea, had formed a promontory which jutted out some distance from

the main land, close to the post at Morne Ronde.—The merchants of Barbadoes, on hearing the calamity, loaded a vessel with provisions for the sufferers at prime cost; and the legislature subsequently voted 6400 dollars to be invested in the purchase of provisions for the same purpose. The British parliament afterwards voted 25,000l.

It is now ascertained, that a new crater has been formed to the north-east of the old one, from which it is only separated by a narrow ridge. This new crater throws out smoke and flames, and on the night of Tuesday the 9th of June made a show of another eruption; but nothing took place beyond an emission of stones and ashes, most of which fell back into the abyss from whence they came. The whole appearance of the mountain is changed, and the ascent, where it had been most difficult, rendered plain and easy, by the filling up of ravines, and swelling of precipices. The conical mount has been destroyed, and an immense lake of boiling water supplies its place; from this lake vast quantities of black sand are perpetually thrown up; and on the south-west side there is a large furnace, which is constantly seen to throw up red-hot stones.—We are farther informed, by a letter dated July 4, that, "on Sunday night, June 30, the Wallibon quarter witnessed a scene of horror and devastation, more terrific and destructive in its effects than even the memorable night of the awful eruption of the Morne Souffrier. Prodigious masses of ignited substances were ejected from the mouth of the Wallibon river; and a vast lake, in a constant state of effervescence, had formed near its source, which continued daily to increase, till it covered about four acres of land. On Sunday night, the diffusion of water, from the fall of heavy rains, became so great, that the frightful reservoir overflowed, and the prodigious flood burst through the barriers of volcanic combustibles with irresistible fury; and such was its destructive impetuosity, that it completely inundated the adjacent valley; and, besides its ravages in bearing down a number of negro-houses, several lost their lives, and others were dreadfully scalded from the river of liquid fire which overwhelmed them. The mountain, too, during the dreadful scene, had a return of one of its terrific fever-fits; its roarings caused a general consternation; and the following night, about eleven o'clock, a most violent concussion of the earth, such as the oldest inhabitants never experienced, was felt all over the island."

It was doubted whether those dreadful showers of dust and ashes, which had covered and destroyed every thing on the ground, would not also prevent a future crop from being raised. The minds of the proprietors of estates in St. Vincent's were happily relieved by a subsequent communication from that island, to the following effect: "At length our alarms about the volcano are beginning to subside; the horrors of it seem past; and perhaps good may come out of evil: for in many of the spots which appeared to suffer most under the late dreadful eruption, and where the cinders, &c. fell in most frightful excess, they already begin to show a most fertilising power, and to be exciting a vegetation of extraordinary force and fecundity!"

The last accounts from St. Vincent's are dated the 2d of August, 1813; by which it appears, that there have been several minor eruptions of Mount Souffrier since the above dreadful visitation. The Rabacca river now flows again from its springs, but not in the old direction; it has poured its unwelcome torrents through Langley Park, making a new bed in its wild and impetuous progress, and destroying vast quantities of sugar, &c. &c.

A hurricane happened in Jamaica on the night of October 12, 1812, which occasioned much damage in various parts, sweeping away out-houses and negro-habitations, unroofing buildings, tearing up trees by the roots, and destroying cane and other plantations. The mischief at sea was not very considerable, the duration of the tempestuous weather being short.

But in South America there occurred a most dreadful calamity.



calamity. The St. Thomas's Gazette, of the 9th of April, gave the following particulars:—"March 26 has been a day of woe and horror to the province of Venezuela. At four P. M. the city of Caraccas stood in all its splendour; a few minutes later, 4500 houses, 19 churches and convents, with all the public buildings, monuments, &c. were crushed to atoms by a sudden shock of an earthquake, which did not last a minute, and buried thousands of the inhabitants in ruins and desolation. That day happened to be Holy Thursday; and at the precise hour every place of worship was crowded to commemorate the commencement of our Saviour's passion by a public procession, which was to proceed through the streets a few minutes afterwards. The number of hapless sufferers was thus augmented to an incredible amount, as every church was levelled with the ground before any person could be aware of danger. The number of sufferers taken out of the churches (two days after this disaster) amounted alone to upwards of 300 corpses. The extent of the number of dead is differently stated, from 4 to 6, and as far as 8,000. Horrible as this catastrophe appears, it would be a matter of some consolation to know that the vicinity of that city offered some support or shelter to the surviving mourners; but the next town and seaport thereto, viz. La Guayra, has in proportion suffered still more, as well as its immediate coast. The following cities and towns also suffered: Cumana, New Barcelona, Valencia, and Magueta, nearly destroyed; Barquisimeto, Santa Rosa, and Candare, totally destroyed; St. Charles and Caramaocte, very much injured; Arilaqua sunk; and the inland town of St. Philip, with a population of 1200 persons, entirely swallowed up."

The occurrences this year in the East Indies were of no great importance.—The strong fortress of Kallinjur in Bundelcund submitted to the British arms, after a resistance which in the first instance was unsuccessful. Colonel Martindell, who commanded the force led against it, ordered an assault on the 2d of February. The troops advanced in three columns to storm a breach which had been made by the artillery; but, on arriving under the walls, they found a perpendicular precipice to be surmounted before it could be reached: ladders were applied, which were thrown down by the garrison; and in the mean time the assailants were exposed to a very destructive fire of cannon and musketry: they at length found it necessary to retreat, with a severe loss of officers and men. The action, however, was not thrown away; for the display of courage and enterprise made such an impression on the commander of the fort, that he soon after surrendered by capitulation.

An expedition fitted out at Batavia, under colonel Gillespie, and captain Sayer of the Leda, against Palambang, was completely successful. On its return, the army was employed against the rajah of Jacgocatra, who had shown symptoms of disaffection. His fortress and town were stormed, and himself taken prisoner, with the whole of his property. Though he had a force of 10,000 men, the loss of the victors was inconsiderable. The Dutch islands of Macassar and Timour were also captured by the same expedition; and the resources of Java were found sufficient, not only for its own security, but for aiding in the general defence of the British empire. The fort of Nowanugar, belonging to the Jam-rajah, submitted to the British arms on February 24, just as the troops brought against it under lieutenant-colonel Lionel Smith were on the point of storming.

A dangerous conspiracy was detected among the native troops at Travancore, the object of which was to massacre their European officers whilst assembled at an entertainment to be given by the British resident at that court. It was disclosed by a confidential spy, and the ringleaders were seized upon; two of whom, native officers, were blown from a cannon in front of the line drawn up to witness their punishment. Several nairs and faquirs, instigators of the mutiny, were afterwards hung.

A fire broke out in the printing-office at the Mission-house, Serampour, on the evening of the 11th of March, which destroyed 2000 reams of English paper, worth 5000l. and founts of type in fourteen languages, besides English. The loss could not be less than 12,000l. and all the literary labours of the missionaries were interrupted at once.

Accounts were received from Persia, that a definitive treaty of alliance between that government and Great Britain had been concluded by sir Gore Ouseley, on terms highly advantageous to this country.

If we come nearer home, we shall find that the attention of the French emperor was, during this year, so much engaged by his continental projects, that the mighty preparations he seemed to be making last year for contending with Great Britain on the ocean, produced no sensible addition to the power and enterprise of his navy, which for the most part lay quiet in port, and offered very few opportunities to the British commanders stationed in the European seas of gratifying that ardour for distinguishing themselves in their country's service by which they are so honourably characterized.

An account arrived at the admiralty, in February 1812, of the capture, on November 19, by the Eagle of 74 guns, captain Rowley, of the French frigate Corcyre, pierced for forty guns, but mounting only twenty-six 18-pounders on the main-deck, and two 6-pounders on the quarter-deck; with a complement of 170 seamen and 130 soldiers; laden with wheat and military stores, and bound from Trieste to Corfu. She had two companions, which escaped during the chase, that began off Fano, and terminated near Brindisi. The action was short, as, indeed, the inequality of force would have rendered a protracted resistance only a fruitless waste of lives. No one was hurt on-board the Eagle.

In the same sea, off Lissa, a very severe action was fought between three English and three French frigates, which did credit to the bravery and conduct of both parties; though success, as usual, remained to the English.—The French squadron having been despatched to the south of Lissa on November 28, the ships Alceste, Active, and Unité, were warped out of the harbour of St. George; and on the morning of the 29th came in sight of the enemy off the island of Augusta. The French commodore formed in line, and for a short time stood towards his antagonists; but, finding the English bearing upon him in close line under full sail, he bore away to the north-west. His rear-ship separating, captain Murray Maxwell, the British commodore, detached the Unité after her; and himself, in the Alceste, commenced action with the other two. On passing the rearmost to get at the commodore, a shot bringing down his main-topmast, he dropt a little astern, on which triumphant shouts of *Vive l'empereur* resounded from the French ships. Captain Gordon, however, in the Active, pushed on, and brought the sternmost to close action; whilst the French commodore, shortening sail, fairly engaged the Alceste. After a warm conflict of two hours and twenty minutes, the French commodore, in the Pauline, thought proper to bear away to the westward, the crippled state of the Alceste not suffering captain Maxwell to pursue. The other ship then struck; and proved to be the Pomone, of 44 guns, and 322 men, commanded by captain Rosamel, whose skill and courage are very honourably recorded by the victor. He had fifty men killed and wounded; his antagonist, the Active, had thirty-two, among whom were captain Gordon, who lost a leg, and his first lieutenant, who had an arm carried away. In the mean time, captain Chamberlayne in the Unité had overtaken his chase, which struck after a trifling resistance; and to his mortification proved to be only a store-ship of 26 guns and 190 men, named La Perianne. The Active was sent with the prizes and prisoners to Malta; and the two others were immediately refitted for service.

A letter from captain Taylor, of the Apollo, dated Feb. 14, mentions, that on the preceding day, on round-



ing Cape Corfe, he fell in with a French frigate-built store-ship and a corvette. On closing with them, the former vessel struck, and proved to be the *Merinos*, commanded by M. Honoré Coardonan, captain of a frigate, and a member of the legion of honour; the ship quite new, of 850 tons, pierced for thirty-six guns, but carrying only twenty 8-pounders, with 126 men. She was bound to Sagona for timber. The *Apollo* suffered no loss, though exposed for four hours to batteries on-shore. The corvette made her escape with the assistance of boats from the shore.

Capt. Talbot of the *Victorious*, senior officer of the upper part of the Adriatic, in company with the *Weazel* sloop, descried, Feb. 21, a large ship with several small ones proceeding from Venice to Pola in Istria. A signal for chase was made, the enemy being in a line of battle, with two gun-boats and a brig a-head of the large ship, and two brigs astern. The *Weazel*, Capt. Andrews, was directed to bring the brigs astern of the commodore to action, in order to induce him to shorten sail, which had the intended effect. At half past four in the afternoon, the *Victorious* commenced action with the line-of-battle ship the *Rivoli* of 74 guns, at the distance of half-pistol shot, neither ship having hitherto fired a gun; and, the water being smooth, every shot told, and the carnage on both sides was dreadful. At five, one of the brigs engaged with the *Weazel* blew up, and that vessel went in chase of the rest; but was recalled by captain Talbot, who thought that, as they were in only seven fathoms water, one or the other of the great ships might get aground, and want assistance. Capt. Andrew, on being recalled, placed his brig on the bow of the *Rivoli*, and raked her with three broadsides. That ship, for nearly two hours, had been rendered perfectly unmanageable, and had been able to keep up only a very slow fire. At nine o'clock she struck, and was taken possession of. She bore the broad pendant of commodore Barre, the French commander-in-chief of the Adriatic, who displayed great skill and valour in the action. He lost 400 killed and wounded, including his captain and most of his officers, out of 862 persons with whom he entered into action. The *Victorious* also sustained a severe loss of men. She had at the commencement only 506 actually on-board, of whom 60 were on the sick-list. Of the French brig engaged with the *Weazel*, which blew up, only three men were saved: the *Weazel* did not lose a single man. Few actions in any year have afforded more convincing proof of the superiority of British seamanship.

A spirited action on a small scale was reported in March by Mr. Harvey, commander of the sloop *Rosario*, off Dieppe. On the 27th of that month, in the morning, he observed an enemy's flotilla, consisting of twelve brigs, and a lugger, standing along-shore; and immediately made sail, with the intention of cutting off the leewardmost. The flotilla formed into a line, and engaged the *Rosario* as she passed; and, when she luffed up to attack the sternmost, they all bore up to support her, and endeavoured to close with the sloop. The commander, not choosing with his small force to run the risk of being boarded, bore away to a brig in the offing, which proved to be the *Griffin*, captain Trollope, and made the signal for an enemy, which was answered. He then immediately hauled his wind, and pursuing the flotilla, which was making all sail for Dieppe, began to harass the rear, and at length dashed into the midst of them, receiving and returning their whole fire. He disabled some, and ran others on-shore, before he was joined by the *Griffin*, which could not come up sooner. Capt. Trollope gallantly contributed his part; and the result was, the capturing three of the enemy, driving two on-shore, and much damaging the others. This flotilla was proceeding from Boulogne to Cherbourg: each brig carried three long brass 24-pounders and an eight-inch brass howitzer, with 50 men; and they were assisted by batteries on-shore, keeping up a constant fire of shot

and shells. The loss on-board the *Rosario* was, however, only five wounded.

The account of a successful attempt to intercept two French frigates and a brig off l'Orient, was communicated in a letter dated May 24th, from captain Hotham, of the Northumberland, to rear-admiral sir H. B. Neale.—The writer states, that, having, according to orders, proceeded off l'Orient with the *Growler* gun-brig in company, the French vessels were descried on the morning of the 22d, crowding all sail to get into the port of l'Orient. The enemy, after some consultation, at length bore up in a close line with every sail set, and made a bold attempt to run between the Northumberland and the shore, under cover of the numerous batteries with which it is there lined. Capt. Hotham bore up, and steered parallel to them at the distance of two cables length, giving them broadsides, which were returned by a very brisk fire from the ships and batteries, highly destructive to the Northumberland's sails and rigging. It was captain Hotham's object to prevent them from passing on the outside of a dry rock; and the French ships, attempting, as the only alternative, to sail between the rock and the shore, all grounded. During the falling tide, the Northumberland was employed in repairing damages; she was then brought to anchor with her broadside bearing upon the enemy's ships, which had all fallen over on their sides next the shore as the tide left them. A continued fire was kept on them for more than an hour; when, their crews having quitted them, their bottoms pierced with shot, and one of them completely in flames, captain Hotham got under sail, leaving the *Growler* to prevent by its fire the return of the men to their vessels. In the evening, the first frigate blew up with a dreadful explosion; and soon after, the second appeared to be on fire: she also blew up during the night; and a third explosion, heard on the next day, was doubtless that of the brig; and thus the work of destruction was completed. Captain Hotham was informed that these vessels were l'Ariane and l'Andromache, of 44 guns and 450 men each; and the Mamaluke brig, of 18 guns and 150 men; and that since January they had been cruising in various parts of the Atlantic, and had destroyed thirty-six vessels of different nations, the most valuable parts of the cargoes of which they had on-board.

On July the 7th, Capt. Stewart, of his majesty's ship *Dictator*, with the *Calypso* armed brig, being off Mardoe, on the coast of Norway, observed the mast-heads of a Danish squadron over the rocks. The *Calypso*, Capt. Weir, led the way through a passage of twelve miles among the rocks, in some places so narrow that there was scarcely room for setting out their studding-sail booms, till at length they came within reach of the enemy, who had been retiring before them under a press of sail. These consisted of the *Nayaden* frigate of 38 guns, but mounting 50, three stout brigs, and twenty-five gun-boats, lying anchored close together in the small creek of Lyngoe. The *Dictator* ran her bow on the land with her broadside to the enemy; and, being seconded by the *Calypso*, their fire was so powerful, that in half an hour the frigate was battered to pieces, and flames were seen bursting from her hatchways; the brigs had struck, and most of the gun-boats were beaten, and some sunk. At three in the afternoon, the *Dictator*, *Calypso*, and prize-brigs, were returning through the passages, when they were assailed by a division of gun-boats so placed behind the rocks, that no gun could be brought to bear on them. In this situation, the prize-brigs ran aground, and it was necessary to abandon them in the state of complete wrecks, humanity forbidding setting them on fire, on account of the many wounded they had on-board. In this bold enterprise, the English squadron suffered a loss of 50 in killed and wounded; that of the Danes was at least 300.

Of minuter successes, one most worthy of notice was communicated by Capt. Josias Rowley, of the *America*, in a letter dated off Languilla, May 10. It states, that the



the America, in company of the *Leviathan* and *Eclair*, having, on the preceding day, fallen in with a convoy of eighteen sail of the enemy deeply laden, which took shelter under the town and batteries of Languillia, on the coast of Genoa, it appeared to him and captain Campbell practicable to destroy them by getting possession of the batteries. For this purpose, the marines of the America and *Leviathan* were landed at day-break on the 10th; and, whilst a party was detached to carry a battery to the eastward, which was effected, the main body, rapidly advancing through a severe fire of grape, carried the battery adjoining the town of Languillia, consisting of four 24 and 18 pounders, though protected by a strong body of the enemy posted in a wood and in several contiguous buildings. The fire of the *Eclair* having in the mean time driven the enemy from the houses on the beach, the boats proceeded to bring out the vessels, which were secured by various contrivances; and, sixteen being towed off, the marines were re-embarked without molestation, though a strong party was advancing from the town of Allasio to reinforce their friends. The loss in the spirited attack on the batteries was much less than might have been expected; but the America's yawl was unfortunately struck by a chance-shot, and ten marines and a seaman were drowned.—Another attempt was made, on June 27th, to carry off a convoy from the towns of Languillia and Allasio, by the *Leviathan*, Capt. Campbell, who had also under his command the *Curaçoa*, *Imperieuse*, and *Eclair*: The marines landed on this occasion were attacked, as soon as formed on the beach, by treble their number; but, rushing on with their bayonets, they drove the enemy from their batteries, killing many, spiked the guns, and destroyed the carriages, and re-embarked with several prisoners. The vessels were, however, so firmly secured, that they could not be brought away; and they were destroyed by the fire from the ships.

The naval success in the Danish sea was in some degree balanced by the loss, on the 13th of August, of his majesty's brig *Attack*, which, being surrounded by fourteen gun-vessels off Forenefs in Jutland, was obliged, after a gallant resistance, to yield to a vast superiority of force. The brig had a smaller crew on-board than that of each of her antagonists; and the commander, Lieut. Simmonds, was most honourably acquitted for the surrender, by a court-martial.

These were the most memorable occurrences respecting the British navy in the European seas during the year 1812; and, if not highly important, they were such as sufficiently evinced that the zeal and activity of our countrymen engaged in this service had suffered no diminution for want of adequate antagonists.

In addition to the naval losses by shipwreck at the close of the last year, that of the *Manilla* frigate of 36 guns, captain Joyce, was reported by admiral Winter, commander of the Dutch *Texel*-fleet, as occurring near the end of January. This ship having struck on the *Haakland* in a dreadful gale on the evening of the 28th, made signals of distress; upon which some fishing-boats were sent out to her relief. These were obliged to return without being able to reach her; but, on the next day, the weather becoming more moderate, they approached her, when the chief pilot risked his life by venturing upon the shallows and *funken* rocks; and, the English having made a raft of empty barrels, he was enabled to bring off thirty-five of them. During the 30th and 31st, all the rest of the crew were brought safe to land, whence they were marched as prisoners to Amsterdam; the whole loss from the wreck appearing to have amounted only to six men. The ship went entirely to pieces. On this occasion, the exertions of the Dutch to preserve the lives of the sufferers were highly meritorious.

About the same time the *Laurel*, captain S. C. Rowley, a fine new frigate, was lost in Quiberon-bay. This ship, with two other frigates, had been ordered to pursue three French frigates which had escaped from the Loire; and,

on the morning of January 31, they weighed anchor, and made sail through the passage *Taigneufe*. It blew hard, and the weather became hazy; when the *Laurel* struck upon a *funken* rock, and had a large hole made in her bottom. She was backed off, and the men continued pumping, till the vessel was reported to be sinking, when the cable was cut, and she was run ashore on a reef of rocks about a mile from the French coast. In this situation, a heavy fire being opened upon her from the enemy's batteries, a flag of truce was hoisted. The firing was, however, continued, till three boats, with about 70 men and four officers, were sent on-shore from the ship, who delivered themselves up as prisoners. The French are then said, with an inhumanity which appears to have been merely gratuitous, to have refused permission for the boats to return for the remainder of the crew, who would have been their prisoners; and they must all have perished, had not captain Somerville, against the remonstrance of his pilot, gallantly worked his ship up among the rocks, brought her to anchor, and taken the men off the wreck, after they had been upon it in a very perilous situation for several hours. The French fired on the boats till they were out of reach.

The Alban cutter, lieutenant Key, was driven, on the 18th of December, from her station on the coast of Holland; and, being forced on-shore at Aldborough in Suffolk, became a complete wreck. Out of a crew of 56 men, only one seaman was saved. The surgeon, Mr. Thompson, came on-shore with some life in him, but died immediately after. There were also three women and two children on-board; of whom one woman, the servant of Mrs. Key, was saved. The cutter had been cruising, or was going to cruise, on the coast of Holland. Owing, it is supposed, to the ignorance of the pilot, she had struck on a sand-bank, when they were obliged to throw the guns overboard, and cut away their mast; after which they drifted at the mercy of most tremendous weather for three days, when they were driven, on Friday morning, at eight o'clock, on the beach in front of the town of Aldborough. The surf was so high, that no boat could be put off; but, the beach being steep, the vessel was thrown up very high, and the tide retreating, the people of the town were soon able to reach the vessel. Though all the crew seemed to be safe at eight, by nine there were only three remaining alive—a young man, a woman (servant to the captain's wife), and the surgeon. The crew consisted of 56, Mrs. Key, wife of lieutenant Key, who commanded the vessel, and two children. The great loss of lives seems to have been occasioned by the state of intoxication of the men, some of whom were found drowned in the vessel. As the cutter did not go to pieces, it is difficult otherwise to account for such a melancholy catastrophe.

On the 20th of February, 1812, Ebenezer Aldred, (or All-dread,) a dissenting minister, from the High Peak in Derbyshire, appeared in a boat upon the Thames, dressed in a white linen robe, with his long hair flowing over his shoulders, and announced that the seven vials, mentioned in the book of Revelation, were to be poured out upon the city of London.—This prophecy, however, does not seem to be fulfilled, as the domestic affairs we have to relate are not of a very calamitous nature, at least not more so than usual. The vials of wrath appear to have been rather poured out upon France, or at least upon Frenchmen, as our history of the campaign in Russia has fully shown.

Our print-sellers' windows generally attract the curiosity of the moving populace, but chiefly on account of the curious caricatures which they exhibit; a department of the art of drawing, in which no nation can pretend in any degree to a competition with the London artist. No foreign nation ever attained the curious knack of turning the most serious objects into ridicule; and, whenever they attempt it, their productions are in general so overcharged—*caricature*—that they excite disgust instead of laughter. Among the few



few successful ones exhibited at Paris, the following was much noticed about this time.—The emperor Napoleon is represented as sitting at a table in the imperial nursery, with a cup of coffee before him, into which he is squeezing, with all his might, the crimson juice of a beet-root. The young and hopeful king of Rome is seated by his daddy, and is seen sucking most voraciously one of the legs of the bifid root; whilst the nurse, who is steadfastly observing the royal brat, is made to say, “Suck, dear, suck; your father says it is sugar.” We doubt not but the ingenuity of the French may extract a few pounds of sweets out of an acre of beet-root; but it will always be a poor substitute for the produce of the cane. This, however, was one of his plans for ruining English commerce.

On the 6th of March came on, in the court of King’s Bench, the remarkable trial of Daniel Isaac Eaton, a bookseller, for blasphemy.—It was on an information, filed *ex officio* by the Attorney-general against the defendant for the publication of a blasphemous and profane libel on the holy scriptures, being the Third Part of Thomas Paine’s *Age of Reason*. After the pleadings had been opened by Mr. Abbott, the Attorney-general mentioned the motives which had induced him to file the information, and characterised the publication in question in terms of the greatest abhorrence. The libel, he said, asserted that the holy scriptures were, from beginning to end, a fable and an imposture; that the apostles were liars and deceivers. The author denied the miracles, the resurrection, the ascension, of Jesus Christ; nay, his very existence as the Son of God; and even as a man on earth. He asserts his whole history to be nearly fabulous, and places it on a level with the legends of the heathen mythology; concluding with taking upon himself to describe infidelity in these words, “He that believes in the story of Christ is an infidel to God.” The attorney-general then enlarged on the mischiefs that must result from disseminating such doctrines, which struck at the foundation of all that was sacred in Christian societies, and all the sanctions of legal proceedings. He showed that blasphemy had always been considered by the law of the land as one of the highest of misdemeanors, and adduced various cases of decisions to this purpose. He then noticed the plea which might be brought for the defendant, that he was only the publisher of the libel; and said that, whoever was the author, it would be proved that the defendant was well acquainted with its contents, and had been at the pains of importing it from America, and had assured the purchasers that they might rely upon its being the genuine publication of Thomas Paine. After he had concluded his speech, the passages were read which were charged in the information.

The defendant then began to read his defence, which contained a history of his life and opinions; and also digressed to such free strictures on the books of scripture and their authors, that he was several times interrupted by lord Ellenborough. At length his lordship said, that, upon mature deliberation, he thought the public would be better served by letting him read every line he had written. When the defendant had finished his paper, he personally addressed the jury, stating that the work had been six or seven years in circulation in America, without being prosecuted; and mentioning the hardships he himself had undergone from six former prosecutions.

Lord Ellenborough made a short address to the jury, in which he said that the defence from the beginning to the end had been a tissue of opprobrious reviling of the books of the Old and New Testament. He confirmed the law laid down by the attorney-general; and said, that though it was competent for America, or any other independent state, to administer their laws as they pleased, yet in this country the Christian religion was strongly fenced about by the laws of the land. He should leave it to the jury, as Christian men, sworn upon the Gospel of Christ, to say whether the present was not an atrocious libel on the Christian religion.

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The jury immediately found the defendant guilty; and, on the 30th of April, the attorney-general prayed the judgment of the court against Eaton, who was brought up in custody. The defendant put in the affidavits of five respectable persons, stating that they had been acquainted with him several years, during which he had conducted himself as a peaceable moral man, who never in conversation attempted to enforce his own particular opinions, either in politics or religion. He also put in an affidavit by himself, stating that he published the libel without any evil intention or design to disturb the peace, or affect the dishonour of God, as charged; and mentioning that the pamphlet in question contained many passages in which the perfections of the Deity were deduced, and praise was given to the morality of the gospel—together with other allegations tending to excite the mercy of the court.

Mr. Prince Smith then addressed the court at considerable length in mitigation of punishment. He said he did not deny the existence or propriety of the law upon which the information was filed; but all human laws were founded upon circumstances, and changed with the lapse of time, and the character and manners of a people. He then proceeded to show how the rigour of ancient intolerance had been gradually softened; and that in the last century great latitude had been allowed to the discussion of religious doctrines. He contended for the right of this free discussion; and adverted to the advantage which had accrued to the Christian religion by the attacks upon it, as having given rise to so many excellent defences. He said *it would have been better to have answered the pamphlet in question than to have prosecuted it; since the latter proceeding might be thought to imply a necessity for using the strong arm of the law in its refutation.* He understood that the attorney-general had claimed some merit for lenity, in not prosecuting the defendant upon the statute of William III. If he had done so, their lordships would have had no discretion in apportioning the punishment; but, on the common-law prosecution, they were open to every argument of humanity and philosophy. The information charged, that this libel was published against the king’s crown and dignity; but that infidelity did not militate against these was proved by the many millions in the East who were not Christians, and yet were such material additions to the crown and dignity of the king of England. If deists were tolerated and formed into a sect, would any injury ensue to those morals of which the court was guardian? Many who had written with as much audacity, but more artifice, had gone unpunished—this he instanced in Hume, Gibbon, &c. He also adverted to a new translation of Lucretius, advertised with the name of the attorney-general as a subscriber.

The Attorney-general made a brief reply, in which he observed that there was nothing in the pamphlet which was not drawn from the very dregs of infidelity, and which had not been answered again and again; and that, where one person might be injured by the literary works alluded to, five hundred would be by one of this kind. It rested with the court to determine the defendant’s crime and punishment as the libel regarded the peace of the country; and, if there were no authorities on the subject, reason and principle must decide that this was an offence against that peace which it had a direct tendency to disturb.

The defendant was then ordered to be remanded to custody; and, on the 8th of May, his sentence was pronounced by Mr. Justice Grose, which was, “imprisonment in Newgate for eighteen months, and to stand in the pillory during the first of those months.”

On the 18th of March died, aged 76, Mr. John Horne Tooke, a distinguished political and literary character for a long series of years. On the 25th of May died Mr. Malone, the celebrated commentator on Shakespeare.—For particulars of the lives of these distinguished persons, see MALONE and TOOKE.

On the 26th of March, Mr. Henry Hafe, chief cashier



of the bank, presented an account of the total amount of the notes brought for payment, and refused, from being forged, for the eleven years from 1st January 1801, to 31st December 1811.—The nominal value was 101,661*l.* including the forged notes supposed to have been fabricated on the continent.

In the month of April, a German adventurer, who had assumed the name of Baron Geramb, and who had for a year or two past made a very conspicuous figure in the metropolis, was ordered out of the country, under the alien-act. This singular person ushered himself into public notice in London, by publishing a most inflated and ridiculous letter, which he dedicated to earl Moira; wherein he described himself as an Hungarian baron, who had headed a corps of volunteers in the cause of Austria against Bonaparte; and stated, that after the peace he went to Spain, to give the benefit of his courage and profound military experience to the oppressed patriots of the peninsula. He accompanied this production with every other mode of obtaining notoriety, such as filling print-shop windows with three or four different engravings of his person, in various costumes, which a few fools bought: a star, a death's head and cross-bones, and other terrific emblems, adorned the person of the baron. Nobody who had walked the public-streets for some time past but must have known this redoubtable nobleman. Wherever notoriety could be acquired, there was the baron Geramb. At the funeral of the lamented duke of Albuquerque, he exhibited himself in all the parade of grief, in a jet-black uniform. Where money alone could not gain admittance, the magnificent exterior of this seeming magnate of Hungary was sure of procuring an introduction. At the opera, at the theatres, and the park, his furred mantle and resplendent stars were seldom missed. When that wonderful master of the histrionic art, Mr. Coates, played, or rather attempted to play, Lothario, at the Haymarket, the Hungarian baron sat with indescribable dignity in the stage-box, and appeared the patron of the absurdities of the night, consoling the white-plumed Lothario with his nods, and bows, and cheers, for all the coarse and severe, but justly-merited, raillery which was unsparingly dealt out to him from the pit and galleries. But the baron was formed to embellish a court as well as to dignify a play-house. He was frequent in his inquiries after the health of the British sovereign at St. James's; and appeared with more than usual splendour at the celebrated fête of the prince-regent at Carlton-house. The fascinations of that scene of courtly festivity and princely elegance became the subject of the baron's pen; and he accordingly published a letter to Sophie, describing, in the most romantic language, all the splendid objects of the night, and the feelings with which his chivalrous mind was impressed. What the baron had been doing to get himself sent out of the country we cannot exactly say. It is said that he alleges he had proposed to engage 24,000 Croat troops in the service of England, a proposal which he pretends to have considered as favourably received by our ministers abroad, because they (Mr. Bathurst, general Oakes, and Mr. Henry Wellesley, to whom he appeals) did not hesitate granting him passports to enable him to come to England to submit his plan; and for this service his charges were—Journey from London to Cadiz, 250*l.* establishment in London, twenty-two months, at two hundred pound per month, 4400*l.*—return to Hungary, 700*l.*—total, 5350*l.* The baron, it seems, while the police-officers were besieging his castle, told them he had two hundred pounds of gunpowder in his house, and, if they persevered, he would blow up himself and that together; but, finding them not intimidated, he surrendered. The baron, it is reported, had uncommon success in certain gaming-houses. He is said to be a German Jew, who, having married the widow of an Hungarian baron, assumed the title.

The following month brought a stranger to our shores who may well console us for the loss of baron Geramb.

—This was a child under eight years of age, who, without any previous knowledge of the common rules of arithmetic, or even of the use and power of the numerals, and without having given any particular attention to the subject, possesses (as if by intuition) the singular faculty of solving a great variety of arithmetical questions by the mere operation of the mind, and without the usual assistance of any visible symbol or contrivance. His name is Zerah Colburn; he was born at Cabot, a town lying at the head of Onion-river, in Vermont, in the United States of America, on the 1st of September, 1804. About the month of August 1810, although at that time not six years of age, he first began to show those wonderful powers of calculation which have since so much attracted the attention and excited the astonishment of every person who has witnessed his extraordinary abilities. The discovery was made by accident. His father, who had not given him any other instruction than such as was to be obtained at a small school established in that unfrequented and remote part of the country, (and which did not include either writing or ciphering,) was much surprised one day to hear him repeating the products of several numbers. Struck with amazement at the circumstance, he proposed a variety of arithmetical questions to him, all of which the child solved with remarkable facility and correctness. The news of this infant prodigy soon circulated through the neighbourhood; and many persons came from distant parts to witness so singular a circumstance. The father, encouraged by the unanimous opinion of all who came to see him, was induced to undertake, with this child, the tour of the United States. They were every-where received with the most flattering expressions; and, in the several towns which they visited, various plans were suggested to educate and bring up the child, free from expense to his family. Yielding, however, to the advice of his friends, and urged by the most respectable and powerful recommendations, as well as by a view to his son's more complete education, the father brought the boy to this country, where they arrived on the 12th of May; and the inhabitants of this metropolis had for about three months an opportunity of seeing and examining this wonderful phenomenon, and of verifying the reports that had been circulated respecting him.

Many persons of the first eminence for their knowledge in mathematics, and well known for their philosophical inquiries, made a point of seeing and conversing with him; and all were struck with astonishment at his extraordinary powers. It is correctly true, as stated of him, that "he will not only determine, with the greatest facility and dispatch, the exact number of minutes or seconds in any given period of time; but will also solve any other question of a similar kind. He will tell the exact product arising from the multiplication of any number, consisting of two, three, or four, figures, by any other number consisting of the like number of figures; or, any number, consisting of six or seven places of figures, being proposed, he will determine, with equal expedition and ease, all the factors of which it is composed. This singular faculty consequently extends, not only to the raising of powers, but also to the extraction of the square and cube roots of the number proposed; and likewise to the means of determining whether it be a prime number (a number incapable of division by any other number); for which case there does not exist, at present, any general rule amongst mathematicians." All these, and a variety of other questions connected therewith, are answered by this child with such promptness and accuracy (and in the midst of his juvenile pursuits) as to astonish every person who has visited him.

At a meeting of his friends which was held for the purpose of concerting the best methods of promoting the views of the father, this child undertook, and completely succeeded in, raising the number 8 progressively up to the sixteenth power; and, in naming the last result, viz. 281,474,976,710,656, he was right in every figure. He was.



was then tried as to other numbers, consisting of one figure; all of which he raised (by actual multiplication, and not by memory) as high as the tenth power, with so much facility and dispatch, that the person appointed to take down the results was obliged to enjoin him not to be so rapid! With respect to numbers consisting of two figures, he would raise some of them to the sixth, seventh, and eighth power: but not always with equal facility; for the larger the products became, the more difficult he found it to proceed. He was asked the square root of 106,929; and, before the number could be written down, he immediately answered 327. He was then required to name the cube root of 268,336,125; and with equal facility and promptness he replied, 645. Various other questions of a similar nature, respecting the roots and powers of very high numbers, were proposed by several of the gentlemen present; to all of which he answered in a similar manner. One of the party requested him to name the factors which produced the number 247,483, which he immediately did by mentioning the two numbers 941 and 263; which indeed are the only two numbers that will produce it. Another of them proposed 171,395; and he named the following factors as the only ones that would produce it, viz.  $5 \times 34279$ ,  $7 \times 24485$ ,  $59 \times 2905$ ,  $83 \times 2065$ ,  $35 \times 4897$ ,  $295 \times 581$ , and  $413 \times 415$ . He was then asked to give the factors of 36,083; but he immediately replied that it had none; which, in fact, was the case, as 36,083 is a prime number. Other numbers were indiscriminately proposed to him; and he always succeeded in giving the correct factors, except in the case of prime numbers, which he discovered almost as soon as proposed. One of the gentlemen asked him how many minutes there were in forty-eight years; and, before the question could be written down, he replied, 25,228,800; and instantly added, that the number of seconds in the same period was 1,513,728,000. Various questions of the like kind were put to him; and to all of them he answered with nearly equal facility and promptitude, so as to astonish every one present, and to excite a desire that so extraordinary a faculty should (if possible) be rendered more extensive and useful.

It was the wish of the gentlemen present to obtain a knowledge of the method by which the child was enabled to answer, with so much facility and correctness, the questions thus put to him; but to all their inquiries upon this subject (and he was closely examined upon this point) he was unable to give them any information. He positively declared (and every observation that was made seemed to justify the assertion), that he did not know how the answers came into his mind. In the act of multiplying two numbers together, and in the raising of powers, it was evident (not only from the motion of his lips, but also from some singular facts which will be hereafter mentioned), that some operation was going forward in his mind; yet that operation could not (from the readiness with which the answers were furnished) be at all allied to the usual mode of proceeding with such subjects; and, moreover, he is entirely ignorant of the common rules of arithmetic, and cannot perform, upon paper, a simple sum in multiplication or division. But, in the extraction of roots, and in mentioning the factors of high numbers, it does not appear that any operation can take place, since he will give the answer immediately, or in a very few seconds, where it would require, according to the ordinary method of solution, a very difficult and laborious calculation; and, moreover, the knowledge of a prime number cannot be obtained by any known rule. It has been already observed, that it was evident, from some singular facts, that the child operated by certain rules known only to himself. This discovery was made in one or two instances, when he had been closely pressed upon that point. In one case he was asked to tell the square of 4395; he at first hesitated, fearful that he should not be able to answer it correctly; but, when he applied himself to it, he said it was 19,316,025. On being questioned as to the cause of his hesitation, he

replied that he did not like to multiply four figures by four figures; but, said he, "I found out another way; I multiplied 293 by 293, and then multiplied this product twice by the number 15, which produced the same result." On another occasion, his highness the duke of Gloucester asked him the product of 21,734 multiplied by 543; he immediately replied, 11,801,562; but, upon some remark being made on the subject, the child said that he had, in his own mind, multiplied 65,202 by 181. Now, although, in the first instance, it must be evident to every mathematician that  $4395$  is equal to  $293 \times 15$ , and consequently that  $(4395)^2 = (293)^2 \times (15)^2$ ; and further, that, in the second case, 543 is equal to  $181 \times 3$ , and consequently that  $21734 \times (181 \times 3) = (21734 \times 3) \times 181$ ; yet, it is not the less remarkable, that this combination should be immediately perceived by the child; and we cannot the less admire his ingenuity in thus seizing instantly the easiest method of solving the question proposed to him.

It must be evident, from what has here been stated, that the singular faculty which this child possesses is not altogether dependent upon his memory. In the multiplication of numbers, and in the raising of powers, he is doubtless considerably assisted by that remarkable quality of the mind; and in this respect he might be considered as bearing some resemblance (if the difference of age did not prevent the justness of the comparison) to the celebrated Jedediah Buxton, and other persons of similar note. But, in the extraction of the roots of numbers, and in determining their factors (if any), it is clear, to all those who have witnessed the astonishing quickness and accuracy of this child, that the memory has little or nothing to do with the process. And in this particular point consists the remarkable difference between the present and all former instances of an apparently similar kind. It has been recorded as an astonishing effort of memory, that the celebrated Euler could remember the first six powers of every number under 100. This, probably, must be taken with some restrictions; but, if true to the fullest extent, it is not more astonishing than the efforts of this child; with this additional circumstance in favour of the latter, that he is capable of verifying, in a very few seconds, every figure which he may have occasion for. It is not intended to draw a comparison between the humble, though astonishing, efforts of this infant prodigy and the gigantic powers of that illustrious character to whom a reference has just been made; yet we may be permitted to hope and expect that those wonderful talents, which are so conspicuous at this early age, may, by a suitable education, be considerably improved and extended; and that some new light will eventually be thrown upon those subjects, for the elucidation of which his mind appears to be peculiarly formed by nature; since he enters into the world with all those powers and faculties which are not even attainable by the most eminent at a more advanced period of life. Every mathematician must be aware of the important advantages which have sometimes been derived from the most simple and trifling circumstances; the full effect of which has not always been evident at first sight. To mention one singular instance of this kind: the very simple improvement of expressing the powers and roots of quantities by means of indices, introduced a new and general arithmetic of exponents; and this algorithm of powers led the way to the invention of logarithms, by means of which, all arithmetical computations are so much facilitated and abridged. Perhaps this child possesses a knowledge of some more important properties connected with this subject; and, although he is incapable at present of giving any satisfactory account of the state of his mind, or of communicating to others the knowledge which it is so evident he does possess, yet there is every reason to believe that, when his mind is more cultivated, and his ideas more expanded, he will be able not only to divulge the mode by which he at present operates, but



also point out some new sources of information on this interesting subject. Upon this expectation, a number of gentlemen have taken young Zerah under their patronage, and have formed themselves into a committee for the purpose of superintending his education. A gentleman of science, well known for his mathematical abilities, has consented to take the child under his immediate tuition; and the committee have therefore withdrawn him, for the present, from public exhibition, in order that he may fully devote himself to his studies.

Some years ago, a plan was formed, and a company established, for the purpose of cutting a subterraneous passage or tunnel through Highgate-hill, in a direction from Holloway, to the right of the late great road. The design was partly executed, when, on Monday the 13th of April, between four and five in the morning, the superincumbent earth gave way, and choked up the passage. The labour of several months was thus in a few moments converted into a heap of ruins. Some of the workmen, who were coming to resume their daily labour, describe the noise that preceded it like that of distant thunder. It was the crown-arch, near Hornsey-lane, that first gave way; and the lane, in consequence, fell some feet deep, and instantly became impassable. The houses in the vicinity felt the fall like the shock of an earthquake. The number of persons whom the fineness of the weather attracted on the preceding Sunday, to inspect the works, was not less than 800.—The plan of a tunnel was then abandoned, and the proprietors determined to cut an open road through the hill, at very nearly the level of the tunnel, and to connect the cross road to Hornsey, &c. by means of a grand bridge over the valley. This vast design is now (1814) completed; the road has been for several months in a perfect state, for the passage of the numerous vehicles which enter the metropolis in this direction. The height of the work is 60 feet, so that a perpendicular ascent of that height is saved in a distance of about 800 yards. In addition to the cut through the hill, another company have completed a new and most beautiful road from Holloway to Kentish Town, so as to make the archway serve as an entrance to the east and the west ends of London. The archway alone has cost 100,000*l*.

On the 30th of April, the queen held a drawing-room at St. James's Palace. It being the first which her majesty had held since the king's birth-day in 1810, and there having been no court for the ladies during a lapse of nearly two years, great preparations were made by the higher ranks for their appearance on this occasion. The public splendour of the court was likewise considerably increased, on this revival of it, by the invitations of the prince-regent, which were issued to the number of four hundred, to a magnificent entertainment given in the evening at Carlton-house, by his royal highness, to her majesty, the princesses, and the nobility and gentry. The palace of St. James's and the vicinity bore rather the appearance of the celebration of a birth-day than the holding of a drawing-room in the usual manner. Parties of the life-guards were stationed in the morning at all the avenues, and in the front of the palace, who, with the assistance of the police, preserved great regularity and order in the passing of the carriages and sedans to and from the palace. At noon, Bond-street, St. James's-street, and Pall-mall, were all in a bustle, thronged with superb carriages and elegant equipages, and the windows filled with spectators. All the arrangements resembled those for birth-days; and numbers of tickets were issued from the lord-chamberlain's office, for spectators in the anti-rooms, guard-chamber, &c. Her majesty, with the princesses Augusta and Mary, left the queen's house about one o'clock, and alighted at the duke of Cumberland's apartments at St. James's, where her majesty and the princesses dressed, the royal jewels having been previously brought thither from the bank. After partaking of some refreshments in the duke's apartments, they proceeded with a numerous train of at-

tendants through the gallery and the ball-room, and entered the grand council-chamber, where her majesty received the company, and the numerous persons who had the honour of being presented.—The prince-regent went from Carlton-house to St. James's palace; and appeared in full state for the first time since the establishment of the regency. The procession of his royal highness consisted of three carriages, drawn by two horses each; within them, his aides-de-camp, pages of honour, &c. The servants wore their state-liveries, and new state-hats, adorned with blue feathers. Then followed the state-coach of his royal highness, drawn by six bays in superb red-morocco harness, decorated with red ribands. On the sides of the carriage walked four helpers. The coachman and four footmen wore black velvet caps, like those of his majesty's servants. The prince-regent was in military uniform: he was accompanied by the duke of Montrose (master of the horse), and lord John Murray (lord in waiting). The procession was escorted by a party of the life-guards; and arrived at St. James's at half-past three. Earl Cholmondeley (lord steward), the earl of Macclesfield, and other officers of state, waited at the bottom of the grand staircase for the prince-regent; and conducted his royal highness to the grand council-chamber, where he paid his respects to his royal mother: he remained in the drawing-room half an hour. Their royal highnesses the princesses of Wales, the duchesses of York, the dukes of York, Clarence, Kent, Cumberland, Cambridge, and Sussex, their highnesses the duke of Gloucester, and the princess Sophia of Gloucester, and his serene highness the duke of Brunswick, were also present.

On the 20th of May, a lamentable accident happened in a coal-mine at Orrell, near Liverpool. The workmen had been warned not to approach a certain part with fire or light; notwithstanding which, one of them entered it with a lighted candle; when a tremendous explosion took place, by which all in that part of the mine, consisting of nine men and one woman, lost their lives.—But on the 25th of the same month, one of the most terrible accidents on record, in the history of collieries, took place at Felling, near Gateshead, Durham, in the mine belonging to C. J. Brandling, esq. which was the admiration of the district for the excellence of its ventilation and arrangements. Nearly the whole of the workmen were below, the second set having gone down before the first came up; when a double blast of hydrogen gas took place, and set the mine on fire, forcing up such a volume of smoke as darkened the air to a considerable distance, and scattered an immense quantity of small coal from the upper shaft. In this calamity no fewer than 93 men and boys perished.

At Southray, a village three miles from Bardney, in Lincolnshire, three boys were killed by lightning on the 28th of May. They were tending geese, in company with another, named Charles Blakey, who escaped in a most providential manner. When the storm approached, they retired to a hovel, and sat down on the ground; Blakey having two companions on one side, and one on the other. After some time, he jumped up in a fright, saying, "Come, boys, let us go home; we shall all be killed in this place." His companions did not speak; and he ran home, where he informed his mother, he thought his companions were all killed by the lightning, as they did not speak or stir. Several of the neighbours went to the place immediately, and there found them all lying dead: the lightning seemed to have fallen on their heads, and run down their bodies, burning their necks, shoulders, and breasts, in a dreadful manner, and causing large brown sores. Two of their shirts were burned, but their outward garments were not damaged.

From the abstract of a return of the number of non-resident and resident incumbents in England and Wales, presented to the house of commons and ordered to be printed on the 28th of May, it appears, that the number of  
Incumbents



Incumbents in England and Wales, is	- - -	10261
Of which are resident	- - -	4421
Non-resident from exemption	- - -	2671
Non-resident by licences	- - -	2114
Non-residents not included in licences or exemptions	- - -	1017
Miscellaneous cafes of non-residents	- - -	38
Total non-residents	- - -	5840

Which shows that, of the whole number of incumbents; the number of non-residents exceeds the number of residents by 1419

On the 1st of June, there was a grand installation of Knights of the Bath; for a full account of which ceremony, see vol. xi. p. 891, 2.

No sale of books ever engrossed a larger share of public attention than the extensive and valuable library of the late John duke of Roxburgh. The catalogue was judiciously compiled by Messrs. G. and W. Nicol, and the books were sold by Mr. Robert Evans of Pall Mall, who for that especial purpose commenced book-auctioneer. The library was sold at his grace's late residence in St. James's square; and so numerous and valuable were the lots, that the sale lasted forty-five days, commencing on the 18th of May, and closing on the 8th of July. The total produce of the library (which it is believed did not cost its late noble owner more than 5000l.) was about 23,341l. The following are among the most remarkable articles dispersed at this sale; with the prices they brought:

The Festival; printed by Caxton. 105l. Bought by lord Spencer.

The Prouffyttable Boke for Mane's Soul, called the Chastyng of Godde's Chyldren; printed by Caxton. 140l. Lord Spencer.

Lyf of Saint Katherin of Senis; printed by Caxton. 95l. Mr. Clarke.

Sessions' Papers and Trials at the Old Bailey, from 1690 to 1803. 2 vols. in folio, and 80 vols. in 4to. 378l. Mr. Reed.

A Translation of Cicero on Old Age; printed by Caxton. 115l. Mr. Nornaville.

The Boke of Scynt Albons; printed at St. Albans, 1486. imperfect. 147l. Mr. Triphook.

The Mirroure of the World; printed by Caxton, in 1480. 351l. 15s. Mr. Nornaville.

The Kalindayr of the Shyppers, folio; printed at Paris, 1503. 180l. Mr. Nornaville.

Callimachi Hymni. Florence, 1472. 4to. 63l. Mr. Payne.

A Discourse of English Poetrie, by W. Webbe, 1586. 4to. 64l. Mr. Triphook.

Paradise of Daintie Devises, 4to. 1580. 55l. 13s. Mr. Rice.

A Collection of Old Ballads, in 3 vols. folio. 477l. 13s. Mr. Harding.

Guy Earl of Warwick, a metrical Romance; printed by Copeland, 4to. 43l. 1s. Mr. Heber.

Love's Martyr, or Rosalin's Complaint; by Chester, 4to. 1601. 24l. 3s. Mr. Dubois.

Gower's Confessio Amantis; printed by Caxton, 1493. folio. 336l. Mr. Payne.

Chaucer's Canterbury Tales, a manuscript on vellum; folio. 357l.

The Passetyme of Pleasure, by Stephen Hawys; printed by Wynkyn de Worde, 1517. 81l. Rev. Mr. Dibdin.

The Exemple of Vertu, by Stephen Hawys; W. de Worde, 1530. 60l. Mr. Rice.

The Complaynt of a Lover's Life, 4to. printed by Wynkyn de Worde. 58l. Mr. Nornaville.

The Castell of Pleasure, 4to. by W. de Worde. 64l. Rev. Mr. Dibdin.

Watson's Translation of Brant's Ship of Fools, 4to. 64l. Mr. Nornaville.

Churchyard's Works, 2 vols. 4to. 96l. Mr. Triphook.

Le Mystere de la Vengeance de Notre Seigneur J. Christ, 2 vols. folio, MS. 493l. 10s. Mr. Payne.

Shakespeare's Plays, folio, 1623. 100l. Mr. Nornaville.

A Collection of 627 Prints of Theatrical Scenes and Portraits of Performers; 3 vols. folio. 102l. 18s.

The Nice Wanton, a Comedy, 4to. 1560. 20l. 9s. 6d. Mr. Nicol.

Marlow and Nash's Tragedy of Dido, 1594. 17l. 17s. Mr. Heber.

Morlini Novellæ, 4to. Neapolis, 1520. 48l. Mr. Triphook.

Recueil des Romans des Chevaliers de la Table Ronde, 3 vols. folio, an ancient manuscript. 78l. 15s. Mr. Triphook.

Le Romant de Fier à Bras le Geant, folio, Genev. 1478. 38l. 17s. Mr. Triphook.

Recueil des Histoires de Troyes, par Raoul Le Fevre, folio. 116l. 11s. Lord Spencer.

*Il Decamerone di Boccaccio, folio; first edition, printed at Venice by Valdarfer, 1471. 2260l. being the largest sum ever given for a single volume. Marquis of Blandford.*

The Boke of the Fayt of Armes, and of Chyvalrye; printed by Caxton. 336l. Mr. Nornaville.

The Veray trew History of the Valiant Knight Jafon. 94l. 10s. Mr. Ridgway.

*The Recuyell of the Histories of Troye, by Raoul Le Fevre. Caxton, 1471. 1060l. 10s. Duke of Devonshire.*

The moost pytefull History of the Noble Appolyn, Kyng of Thyre, 4to. 110l. Mr. Nornaville.

History of Blanchardyn and the Princes Eglantyne; printed by Caxton. 215l. 5s. Lord Spencer.

Delphin Classics, 67 vols. 504l. Duke of Norfolk.

Painter's Palace of Pleasure, 1575, 4to. 2 vols. 45l. Rev. Mr. Dibdin.

Hearne's Collection of Ballads, 12mo. 12l. 12s. Rev. Mr. Dibdin.

Voyage de Breydenbach, fol. 1488. 84l. Lord Berners's Froissart, by Pinfon, 1525. 63l.

Boece's Croniklis of Scotland, by Bellenden, folio. 1474. 65l.

The Complaynt of Scotland, 12mo. original edition, wanting the title. 31l. 10s.

Dugdale's Monasticon, 3 vols. 67l. 4s.

The fame in English, with Steevens's Continuation, 3 vols. 49l.

The two articles which are printed in Italics, and which brought such unexampled prices, were sold on Wednesday the 17th of June; and on that day a party of noblemen and gentlemen, distinguished for their attachment to rare and curious books, and many of them for the fine collections in their own possession, dined together at the St. Alban's tavern, St. Alban's street, under the denomination of the ROXBURGH CLUB. Lord Spencer was in the chair, supported by lord Gower, sir Mark M. Sykes, bart. sir Egerton Brydges, and Mr. Roger Wilbraham. The Rev. Mr. Dibdin took the bottom of the table, flanked by Messrs. R. Heber, Bolland, Utterton, and other distinguished bibliomaniacs. Messrs. Dent, Freeling, and Lang, formed the connecting chain between such respectable upper and lower circles. The duke of Devonshire, lord Blandford, and lord Morpeth, were voted into the club, to complete the number of 31.—Some will be apt to despise the club and its pursuits, as tending to put an imaginary value upon old rubbish which has no real intrinsic worth; but for our parts we cannot but admire that generous emulation, which exalts the national character, and makes the fruits of intellectual industry the noble contest of the rich.

In the renewed turnpike-acts passed this session, a new clause was introduced, enacting—that, if any person or persons shall ride upon any causeway or foot-path, or shall drive any horse, cattle, swine, cart, or carriage, thereon, or shall wilfully cause any damage whatever to be done, he or they shall, for every such offence, be liable to a fine of 20s. half to go to the informer, and the other half to be applied to the purposes of the act; and the collector of the tolls for the time being must affix on a board, in legible characters, his christian and surname over his door, under a penalty of 10l.

On Sunday the 26th of June, a melancholy accident occurred



occurred on the river Thames.—Eleven persons, all married men, engaged a sailing-boat of the wherry-kind. The wind, which had been very high, becoming more moderate, they made fast the main-sail to the side of the boat; soon after which, a sudden gust of wind upset the wherry, and six of the unfortunate men were drowned. Another account states that nine lost their lives. Most of them have left large families.

An official return of the prisoners of war in Great Britain, laid before the house of commons about this time, states the number of French prisoners at 52,649, Danish 1868; grand total 54,517. And, as a proof of the good treatment of prisoners of war in this country, the following comparative statement of those sick and in health will be the best answer to the calumnies of the *Moniteur*:

	<i>Thursday, August 20.</i>	In health.	Sick.
On-board the prison-ships in Hamoaze	-	6100	61
In Dartmoor depot	-	7500	74

This small proportion of sick is scarcely the common average of persons not confined as prisoners of war. At Dartmoor depot, 500 prisoners, such as labourers, carpenters, smiths, &c. are allowed to work from sun-rise to sun-set; they are paid 4d. and 6d. per day, according to their abilities, and have each their daily rations of provisions, viz. a pound and a half of bread, half a pound of boiled beef, half a pound of cabbage, and a proportion of soup and small beer. They wear a tin plate in their caps, with the title of the trade they are employed in; and return every evening to the depot to be mustered.

Another of those atrocious outrages against human nature, which have recently stained the annals of this country, occurred on the 22d of July, at Barnes. The count and countess d'Antraignes, (French noblesse,) who resided on Barnes Terrace, had ordered their carriage, to go to London, at a quarter before nine o'clock. When going through the hall Lawrence, an Italian footman, who was desired by a female servant to open the coach-door, came in from the terrace, passed his lady, and fired a pistol at the count, which slightly grazed his hair. The monster, Lawrence, then exclaimed, "Not killed!" rushed up stairs, and immediately defended with a pistol in one hand, and a dagger in the other. The latter he plunged in the breast of the count, who walked out of the door, and made a few steps on the terrace, during which time Lawrence stabbed the countess in the right breast. She staggered a few steps, then fell down at the threshold of the door, cried out, "'Tis Lawrence! 'tis Lawrence!" and then expired. The assassin then rushed up stairs to the count's bed-room, and discharged a pistol into his own mouth, which killed him immediately. The count had followed him; and, when the servants entered, Lawrence was lying dead on the floor, and the count upon his bed speechless: he died in about a quarter of an hour. The coroner's inquest sat on the bodies on the 23d. The verdict was, That Lawrence had murdered the count and countess, and had afterwards committed suicide, *being in his senses*.—What was Lawrence's motive for these horrible murders, is not even conjectured. He does not appear to have had the least thought of escaping. There is no account of any quarrel between his master and him. All the servants agree that he was very sober. He could not have been influenced by political motives, since his revenge was directed equally against the countess. He had been in the family only three months. Besides his house on Barnes Terrace, count d'Antraignes had a town-estabishment in Queen-Anne-street West. He was 56, and the countess 52, years of age. The count had eminently distinguished himself in the troubles which have convulsed Europe for the last two-and-twenty years. In 1789, he was actively engaged in favour of the revolution; but, during the tyranny of Robespierre, he emigrated to Germany, and was employed in the service of Russia in 1797. In 1806, he was sent to England with credentials from the emperor of Russia, who had granted him a pension. He received here letters of denization; and was

often employed by our government. The countess was the once-celebrated Mad. St. Huberti, an actress of the Theatre François; and had amassed a very large fortune by her professional talents. They left one child, a son, who is studying the law at Manchester.

The poisoning some race-horses at Newmarket, in the year 1809 and 1811, had struck the racing and gambling world with consternation. More exertions were made, and greater rewards offered, for discovering the offenders, and prosecuting them to conviction, than had ever been held out for the detection of the most cruel murderers of human beings. At length an accomplice was induced to come forward; and, at the Cambridge assizes, one Dawson was arraigned on an indictment with numerous counts, viz. for poisoning a horse belonging to Mr. Adams of Royston, and a blood-mare belonging to Mr. Northey, at Newmarket, in 1809; and also for poisoning a horse belonging to sir Frank Standish, and another belonging to lord Foley, in 1811, at the same place. He was tried and convicted on the first case only.

The principal witness was Cecil Bishop, an accomplice with Dawson, and had furnished him with corrosive sublimate to sicken horses; on the prisoner complaining that the stuff was not strong enough, he prepared him a solution of arsenic. Witness described this as not offensive in smell; the prisoner having informed him that the horses had thrown up their heads, and refused to drink of the water into which the corrosive sublimate had been infused. The prisoner still complained the stuff was not strong enough; and, on being informed that if it was made strong it would kill the horses, he replied, he did not mind that; the Newmarket frequenters were rogues; and, if he, meaning witness, had a fortune to lose, they would plunder him of it. The prisoner afterwards informed witness he used the stuff, which was then strong enough, as it had killed a hackney and two brood-mares.

Mrs. Tillbrook, a housekeeper at Newmarket, where the prisoner lodged, proved having found a bottle of liquid concealed under Dawson's bed, previous to the horses having been poisoned; and that Dawson was out late on the Saturday and Sunday evenings previous to that event, which took place on the Monday. After Dawson had left the house, she found the bottle, which she identified as having contained the said liquid, and which a chemist proved to have contained poison. Witness also proved that Dawson had cautioned her that he had poison in the house for some dogs, lest any one should have the curiosity to taste it. Other witnesses proved a chain of circumstances which left no doubt of the prisoner's guilt.

Mr. King, for the prisoner, took a legal objection, that no criminal offence had been committed, and that the subject was a matter of trespass. He contended, that the indictment must fall, as it was necessary to prove that the prisoner had malice against the owner of the horse, to impoverish him, and not against the animal. He also contended that the object of the prisoner was to injure, and not to kill. The objections, however, were over-ruled without reply, and the prisoner was convicted.—The judge pronounced sentence of death on the prisoner, and informed him, in strong language, he could not expect mercy to be extended to him.—He was hanged.

At York assizes, Elizabeth Woodger and Susannah Lyall were charged with the wilful murder of a new-born male infant. The following is a sketch of this extraordinary case:—On the 12th of March, the wife of G. Needham, of Blackburn, near Rotherham, was delivered of two children, a girl and a boy. The former was perfectly formed; but in the boy there was a deficiency in the superior part of the head, the brain not being protected by any bony matter, but merely covered by a membrane. Woodger, a midwife, conceiving that it was not likely to live, formed the design of putting a period to its existence, which was accomplished by drowning it in an earthen vessel. It was then buried, but was taken up again on the 17th of



March, for the purpose of the coroner's inquest. The surgeon who examined the body stated, that the child was perfectly formed; except his head, which was deficient in the superior part an inch and a half: any pressure upon it must have produced dangerous consequences; and he did not think it possible that the child could have survived more than a few hours. The prisoners used no concealment; and it was clear that they acted under mistaken apprehensions as to the law, and thought they were justified in what they did. Several ladies gave them a most excellent character for humanity. The evidence having been gone through, his lordship, in his address to the jury, said, "I think this prosecution may be of great use to the public, in removing an erroneous opinion, that the law allows the right of deliberately taking away the life of a human being under any circumstances whatever. It is therefore highly necessary that the contrary should be known." The jury found the prisoners guilty, but recommended them to mercy, on account of the mistaken notion under which they acted. His lordship said he should not pass sentence upon the prisoners, but should write by that night's post to the secretary of state, to make a representation of the case to the prince-regent.—They were pardoned.

Another new comet was discovered on the 20th of July by M. Pons, at Marseilles, and on the 1st of August following by M. Bouvard at Paris. According to the calculations of these astronomers, it passed its perihelion on the 15th of September, at 32' 27" past one in the morning, when its distance from the sun, taking that of the earth at unity, was 0.77835. In a very clear night, and in the absence of the moon, it was just visible to the naked eye. The following remarks upon it are extracted from a paper read to the French Institute on the 31st of August:—"The motion of the comet is direct: in addition to its slow motion, it affords a remarkable uniformity in longitude and latitude—and these two circumstances have rendered the calculations more difficult of execution. It approaches the earth very slowly. There are some days when we know its place in the heavens, and when the absence of the moon admits of our observing it, on which it may be seen with the naked eye: its tail is nearly two degrees long. It may appear striking to those who shall be able to choose a convenient time and place for observing it; but, whatever may be the favourable circumstances under which it presents itself to our vision in France, it is far from being so luminous as the comet of last year. But this is of little consequence to astronomers, who do not found their observations upon the fugitive characters which attend these phenomena. The comet in question was at first seen and calculated upon without a tail, and might have disappeared in that state without causing the least regret among astronomers. If they now pursue its progress until it disappears, it will only be to perfect its elements, and to ascertain if their series of observations furnishes any index on the subject of its revolution. At present

The longitude of its ascending node is	253° 18' 50"
That of the perihelion on the orbit	- - 91 58 30
Its inclination on the ecliptic	- - - 74 20 30

The ceremony of depositing in Whitehall-chapel the eagles and colours heroically wrested from the French in Spain, took place on the 30th of September. Soon after nine in the morning, the first regiment of guards, who were to do the duty of the day, formed on the parade facing the Horse-guards, with their right resting on the wall of the Treasury. On their left the second regiment formed, with side-arms only, their left terminating near the great gun. The third regiment, also, with side-arms only, formed with the Admiralty-garden in their rear. On their left were stationed, with fixed bayonets, thirty rank and file of grenadiers of the first regiment, thirty of the second, and thirty of the third, and nine serjeants, who were to carry the eagles and colours. The line was continued to the Horse-guards; and consisted of the horse

and foot artillery stationed in the metropolis, with the several recruiting-parties belonging to the cavalry and infantry. In the rear of the first line, facing the Horse-guards, were formed the two regiments of life-guards, with their full bands, their left extending to the wall of Carlton-house. About half-past nine, general sir Harry Burrard arrived, and assumed the command, when the bands belonging to the three regiments, in their full dress, took their stations, each in the centre of its regiment. Soon after ten o'clock, the duchess of York arrived; her majesty and the princesses, in two carriages, soon followed, and were received by the troops with presented arms, the different bands playing "God save the king." They then took their station in the levee-room of the Horse-guards, which commands a view of the parade. The prince-regent, on a white charger, came from Carlton-house at half-past ten, accompanied by the duke of York on foot, the duke of Kent, colonels Bloomfield, Congreve, and Torrens, and several other officers, on horseback. His royal highness, on reaching the parade, was received with the usual honours, and took his station in front. The prince-regent then proceeded to the right of the line, accompanied by his royal brothers, their aides-de-camp, &c. and passed down the whole, the duke of York on foot at his right hand, and again resumed his station. The usual ceremony of the parade commenced; the bands belonging to the second and third regiments proceeding to troop the colours. This being gone through, the subdivisions of grenadiers stationed on the left of the line were ordered to wheel on the right, and, preceded by the band of the first regiment, marched round the square, and halted facing the Tilt-yard. At this instant the bands of the horse and foot regiments began playing; and the eagles, five in number, were brought out and given to the serjeants, who marched in the rear of the first subdivision. Three standards, and one regimental colour, were next brought, and given to the remaining serjeants, who marched in the rear of the second subdivision. The band of the first regiment began the Grenadiers March, and they proceeded round the square. On reaching the station of the prince-regent and the royal family, the eagles and colours were lowered amid the acclamations of thousands of spectators. The three subdivisions then halted, and advanced their arms, and in ordinary time paraded round. On reaching the colours of the first regiment, the whole of the trophies were lowered to the ground. They again passed the royal family, the eagles and colours being dropped, and marched through the Horse-guards to Whitehall-chapel. The remainder of the infantry were ordered to wheel on their left backwards, and, in open order, passed the prince-regent to the chapel, with the exception of the guard for the day: the life-guards followed in the same manner, and occupied their original ground. The prince-regent, dukes of York and Kent, &c. proceeded to Whitehall to hear divine service. The concourse of people assembled on the occasion was immense; and the spectacle altogether was of the most gratifying description. It was impossible to view, without feelings of exultation, those trophies which bore witness to the prowess of British soldiers, and which were won from no despicable enemy, but from troops whose military reputation stands so high in Europe. The eagles were five in number. Two of them, taken at the battle of Salamanca, were very much mutilated; two others, taken at Madrid, were in a more perfect state; and the fifth, we understand, was found in the channel of a stream near Ciudad Rodrigo, into which it was thrown when the rear of Massena's army was closely pressed by the British cavalry, on its retreat from Portugal. There were also four standards: but they were in such a tattered state, that there was not a device or letter legible. The garrison-flag of Badajoz was like a sieve, and great part of it quite red with human blood.

Drury-Lane Theatre opened on Saturday the 10th of October, with Hamlet, to an immense audience. The public



public expectation had been so much excited, that the doors were crowded at an early hour; and the difficulty of entrance was excessive. When at length the crowd had slowly laboured their way into the hall, they found other difficulties; and the passages to the doors for receiving money were scenes of nearly as much struggle and danger as the street. No serious accident, however, occurred.—The Address with which the theatre opened was attended with a very remarkable circumstance. The committee, while the house was building, had advertised to request the communication of poetical addresses from all quarters; from these, one was to be selected, and the rest returned to the writers by means of a private mark, so that the names of the unsuccessful candidates might not be known unless they chose it. Out of a hundred and twelve pieces which had been sent, not one was thought fit for the purpose; and, a very short time before the opening of the house, the committee sent to lord Byron, to request him to favour them with an address. His lordship complied; and with that address the house opened. This circumstance created a great sensation among the disappointed candidates; and one of them, Busby by name, insisted upon reciting his composition in the theatre, which occasioned a vast deal of noisy mirth. As many others of the competitors were public writers in newspapers, magazines, &c. it may be supposed that the decision of the theatrical committee would be very much impugned, and that lord Byron's composition would be decried as much as possible. This has been the case; but, for our own parts, we think his lordship's lines have great merit, are well suited to the occasion, and will stand the test of time. We shall therefore present them to the reader.

In one dread night our city saw, and sigh'd,  
Bow'd to the dust, the drama's tower of pride;  
In one short hour beheld the blazing fane,  
Apollo sink, and Shakespeare cease to reign.

Ye who beheld, O fight admir'd and mourn'd,  
Whose radiance mock'd the ruin it adorn'd!  
Through clouds of fire the maily fragments riven,  
Like Israel's pillar, chase the night from heav'n;  
Saw the long column of revolving flames  
Shake its red shadow o'er the startled Thames;  
While thousands throng'd around the burning dome,  
Shrunk back, appall'd, and trembled for their home;  
As glar'd the volum'd blaze, and ghastly shone  
The skies, with lightnings awful as their own;  
Till blackening ashes and the lonely wall  
Usurp'd the Muse's realm, and mark'd her fall;—  
Say—shall this new nor less aspiring pile,  
Rear'd, where once rose the mightiest in our isle,  
Know the same favour which the former knew;  
A shrine for Shakespeare—worthy him and *you*?

Yes, it shall be—the magic of that name  
Defies the scythe of time, the torch of flame,  
On the same spot still consecrates the scene,  
And bids the drama *be* where she hath *been*:—  
This fabric's birth attests the potent spell;  
Indulge our honest pride, and say, *How well!*  
As soars this fane to emulate the last,  
Oh! might we draw our omens from the past.  
Some hour propitious to our prayers, may boast  
Names such as hallow still the dome we lost.  
On Drury first your Siddons' thrilling art  
O'erwhelm'd the gentlest, storm'd the sternest, heart.  
On Drury, Garrick's latest laurels grew;  
Here your last tears retiring Roscius drew,  
Sigh'd his last thanks, and wept his last adieu.  
But still for living wit the wreaths may bloom  
That only *waste* their odours o'er the tomb.  
Such Drury claim'd, and claims,—nor you refuse  
One tribute to revive his slumbering muse;  
With garlands deck your own Menander's head;  
Nor hoard your honours idly for the dead!

Dear are the days which made our annals bright,  
Ere Garrick fled, or Brinsley ceas'd to write.  
Heirs to their labours, like all high-born heirs,  
Vain of *our* ancestry as they of theirs;  
While thus Remembrance borrows Banquo's glass,  
To claim the sceptred shadows as they pass,  
And we the mirror hold, where imag'd shine  
Immortal names-embazon'd on our line;  
Pause—ere their feebl' offsprings you condemn,  
Reflect how hard the task to rival them.

Friends of the stage—to whom both players and plays  
Must sue alike for pardon or for praise;  
Whose judging voice and eye alone direct  
The boundless power to cherish or-reject;—  
If e'er frivolity has led to fame,  
And make us blush that you forbore to blame;  
If e'er the sinking stage could condescend  
To soothe the sickly taste it dare not mend;—  
All past reproach may present scenes refuse,  
And censure, wisely loud, be justly mute!  
Oh! since your fiat stamps the drama's laws,  
Forbear to mock us with misplac'd applause:  
So pride shall doubly nerve the actor's powers,  
And reason's voice be echo'd back by ours!  
This greeting o'er,—the ancient rule obey'd,  
The drama's homage by her herald paid,  
Receive *our* welcome too—whose every tone  
Springs from our hearts, and fain would win your own.  
The curtain rises—may our stage unfold  
Scenes not unworthy Drury's days of old!  
Britons our judges, Nature for our guide,  
Still may *we* please, long—long may *you* preside.

The new parliament met on Tuesday the 24th of November. Here it may not be amiss to present a statement of the number and duration of parliaments within the reign of his present majesty.

Met.	Dissoived.	Existed.
		y. m. d.
19 May 1761	11 March 1768	6 9 22
10 May 1768	30 Sept. 1774	6 4 21
29 Nov. 1774	1 Sept. 1780	5 9 4
31 Oct. 1780	25 March 1784	3 4 26
18 May 1784	11 June 1790	6 0 25
10 Aug. 1790	20 May 1796	5 11 3
12 July 1796	31 Dec. 1800	
United Kingdom.		
22 Jan. 1801	29 June 1802	5 11 18
31 Aug. 1802	24 Oct. 1806	4 2 25
15 Dec. 1806	29 April 1807	0 4 15
22 June 1807	29 Sept. 1812	5 3 7
24 Nov. 1812		

The rest of the week was employed in the house of commons in swearing-in members and in choosing a Speaker: to this office the Rt. Hon. Charles Abbott was unanimously re-elected.

His royal highness the prince-regent was pleased to open this new parliament in person. This was accordingly done, in great state, on Monday the 30th; and, eight years having elapsed since a speech had been delivered from the throne, great interest was made for tickets of admission to the house of peers. The princesses Augusta, Elizabeth, and Mary, came to town from Windsor; and, with the princess Charlotte of Wales, were conducted to the house by the duke of Cumberland. At one o'clock the prince-regent went from Carlton-house to St. James's, where he was received by the lord-chamberlain and the officers of the household. His royal highness was dressed in regimentals; and was conducted to the levee-room, where he remained till the state-carriages were announced to be in readiness; when his royal highness and his attendants entered the carriages, of which there were four. In the first carriage were the equerries and page of honour; in the second, the earl of Macclesfield, captain of the yeomen of the guard, the grooms in waiting,



waiting, and the gentlemen-ushers; in the third, the earl of Harrington, gold stick in waiting; and, in the fourth, the prince-regent, attended by the duke of Montrose, master of the horse, and earl Poulett, the lord in waiting. The carriages were preceded by a numerous body of the royal horse-guards, who were followed by four marshalsmen, sixteen footmen in state-liveries, and a party of the yeomen of the guard. The procession arrived at the house of peers at two o'clock; and the prince-regent, being robed, ascended the throne, and delivered the speech. His royal highness's robes were held up by general Keppel and Mr. Cavendish Bradshaw. On returning from the house, the prince wore a blue great coat trimmed with gold lace, gold frogs, fringe, &c. It being the first time the cream-coloured horses had worked in harness, a groom was appointed to attend each of them, and they were ordered to be very particular in taking the angle from Cleveland-row into the Stable-yard; unfortunately they took too great a sweep; and, the off hind-wheel of the coach coming in contact with the post at the corner of the foot-path leading to the marquis of Stafford's house, the shock tore up three of the curb-stones, broke a sway-bar, and threw the state-coachman off the box; he fell between the wheel-horses, but received no other injury than cutting his lip; he did not lose his reins, and was on the box again instantly. This accident detained the procession for some time. Notwithstanding the wetness of the day, the streets, houses, and public buildings, were filled with spectators. A military band was placed at St. James's palace, and another at the house of peers; and the cannon in St. James's park fired a salute when his royal highness descended from the throne. The park and streets through which the procession passed were kept clear by two regiments of dragoons.

The speech from the throne was very long; and his royal highness delivered it with great propriety and dignity.—After touching upon his majesty's lamented indisposition, and the diminished hopes of his recovery, his royal highness adverted to the successes in the peninsula under the conduct of lord Wellington, and their final good effects, notwithstanding his retreat from Burgos, and the evacuation of Madrid. He then mentioned the restoration of peace and friendship with the courts of Petersburg and Stockholm, and spoke in terms of eulogy of the resistance made by Russia to the arms of their invaders, auguring a happy termination of the contest. He informed parliament of a supplementary treaty entered into with his Sicilian majesty, and hinted at the new measures concerted with the government of that island, for an active co-operation in the common cause. With respect to the declaration of war by the United States of America, he observed, that it was made under circumstances which might have afforded a reasonable expectation that the amicable relations between the two countries would not be long interrupted; but that the conduct and pretensions of that government had hitherto prevented any arrangement for that purpose. He took notice of the defeat of the attempts against Canada; and said that his efforts were still directed to the restoration of peace; but that, until this object could be attained without sacrificing the maritime rights of Great Britain, he should rely on their support for a vigorous prosecution of the war. The conclusion of the speech recommended an early consideration of a provision for the effectual government of the Indian provinces, in consequence of the approaching expiration of the charter of the East-India Company. It adverted also to the success of the means employed for suppressing the spirit of outrage and insubordination which had appeared in some parts of the country; and expressed a hope that atrocities so repugnant to the British character would never recur; and ended with the usual declaration of confidence in the wisdom of parliament, and the loyalty of the people.

The accustomed complimentary address was moved in both houses, and passed as of course.

Thanks to lord Wellington, and a grant to him of 100,000*l.* to be laid out in land, were the subjects which next engaged both houses of parliament; but, as they exercised the oratory rather than the argumentative powers of the different speakers—since there was scarcely any other contention than which party should most highly extol the merits of that illustrious general—it is unnecessary in this place to record any particulars. The votes on both questions passed unanimously.

A second reading of the renewed gold-coin bill being the order of the day in the house of commons on December the 8th, Mr. Creevey rose to state his objections to the bill. He said that, when the bullion-committee sat upwards of two years ago, gold was at 4*l.* 10*s.* an-ounce, but was at present 5*l.* 5*s.* so that the depreciation of paper was 35 per cent. The obligation to take paper at its nominal value was therefore an enormous violation of property, by which all classes were losers, except the bank.—One of the most material circumstances which occurred, was a question put by Mr. Ponsoby to the Chancellor of the Exchequer, what price he gave for bills to remit abroad? which for some time he declined to answer; but at length he said, 67 pence per milrea.—In answer to a complaint of an excessive issue of paper-currency by the bank, Mr. Manning stated that the amount yesterday was 22½ millions, whereas in July and August 1810 it was near 25 millions.—The general opinion in the house seemed to be, that the measure, however objectionable in its principles, was at this time necessary; and, on a division, the second reading was carried by 129 against 19.

On bringing up the report, December 11, Mr. Whitbread, in order, he said, to bring the matter to a test, moved the rescinding the third resolution of May last, (see p. 248.) which stated the opinion of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, "that, in all cases wherein coin might be used for legal purposes, the promissory notes of the bank of England, and guineas, were, in public estimation, considered equivalent, and were generally so accepted." Upon this motion the house divided: Nays, 63; ayes, 26; majority against it, 37.

Mr. Huskisson then rose, and said, that he had been informed that government had sent a great number of bank-notes to Canada for the payment of our troops and other establishments in that province; and that, being estimated according to their real value, they were sold there at a discount of 30 per cent. From the necessity of the case, he had approved of that part of the bill which virtually made bank-notes a legal tender; but he could see no use in that part which made it criminal to sell gold-coin at more than the legal value. A few low and ignorant people had been convicted upon it; while millions of guineas had been exported, notwithstanding all the vigilance of government. He was not alarmed at the idea of a gold-price and a paper-price, which had prevailed in Ireland, and now subsisted in Portugal, where the effect was, that their gold-coin was still in circulation, while ours had all disappeared. Instances were given by other members of the actual existence of two prices in this country; and several of the former arguments on the subject were recapitulated. The report was, however, agreed to. The debate was resumed on the motion for the third reading of the bill, December 14; but the reading was carried on a division, by 80 against 15.—In the house of lords, the bill underwent but little discussion; and it passed into a law before the recess.

On the 17th of December, a message was sent to both houses from the prince-regent, recommending the granting a relief to the suffering subjects of his majesty's good and great ally, the emperor of Russia. It was ordered to be taken into consideration in both houses on the following day.

In the house of lords, on the 18th, the earl of Liverpool rose to move an address pledging the house to concur in the object of the message. He made an introductory speech, in which he stated that the invasion of Russia had



had been attempted with 360,000 men, including 60,000 cavalry—no nation had ever made such exertions or sacrifices as Russia—a population of 200,000 souls had voluntarily devoted their habitations to the flames, sooner than they should afford a shelter to the invaders. Besides Moscow, no fewer than 100 villages were left and consumed on the advance of the enemy, and their inmates retired for shelter and security to the woods and forests. Russia had been invaded because she refused to accede to the continental system; and a deadly blow was intended to be struck, through her, against Great Britain.

Lord Holland said, that he found himself placed in a very painful situation by the considerations on which this motion was urged; for, whilst he must doubt whether this was a wise or politic grant, he felt, that, when once proposed, it might be unwise and unsafe to reject it. He then stated some reasons why he thought that it would have little efficacy in producing the intended relief; yet he would not oppose it, principally because he would not have it imagined that any member of that house could be insensible to the merits or the sufferings of the Russians. He further hoped, that the proposal might be regarded as evidence of a complete co-operation and concert between the two governments, not merely for carrying on the war, but as to its objects, and the grounds on which a general peace might be established.—The address was then unanimously agreed to.

In the house of commons, the house having resolved itself into a committee of supply, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, after some preliminary statements of his motives and views, moved, "that a sum not exceeding 200,000*l.* should be granted to his majesty, to be applied towards the relief of the sufferers in Russia."

Mr. Ponsonby said, he should vote for the grant, but not for the reasons assigned by the last speaker. It would not afford either speedy or effectual relief to the sufferers; but he looked upon it in the light of a gift to the emperor of Russia, and as a mark of gratitude for the extraordinary efforts made by that country in resisting the power of France, and opposing the continental system which was attempted to be forced upon it.

Mr. Whitbread said, that, after fully exercising his judgment upon the question, he could not suffer the vote to pass unanimously. He thought the proposed grant would prove ineffectual; and that it was inconsistent with the sentiments which the house was bound to entertain for the distresses of their own countrymen. The sum was too paltry to be of any real use; and it was the duty of the Russian government to protect its own people, and to alleviate their wretchedness, occasioned by an act unparalleled in the history of the world—the conflagration of Moscow. The sum appeared to be in reality a contribution to carry on the war, and no other than a paltry and contemptible subsidy.

Lord Castlereagh strongly disclaimed the appellation given to the grant by the last speaker; and said, that, by the vote now proposed, we were subsidizing the sensibilities and generous feelings of all the world.

Sir Francis Burdett could not consent to give away money, which, whilst it could not be effectual to relieve the calamities of Russia, would add to the burdens already so severely felt by the community at home. He thought it was hard that the people of this country should be called upon to support the wretched of all nations; and yet, when relief was requested for our starving manufacturers, the answer was, that, in times like this, economy must be attended to; and it was impossible for the house to grant relief to an extent that would be of any avail.

Mr. Wilberforce did not doubt that the sum asked for would be of material benefit to the Russians, as similar grants had been in other cases. It would show at least the sympathetic feelings of the house for the distresses of the Russian people; and he could not conceive why nations should not be generous, as well as individuals.—The resolution was then agreed to.

It should be recorded, that, in addition to the parliamentary aid granted to Russia, considerable private subscriptions were entered into for the relief of the sufferers in that country.

Nothing farther of importance occurred in either house before their adjournment for the Christmas recess. This adjournment took place on the 22d of December, and extended to the 2d of February.

1813.—The events of the last and present year will display a glow of returning splendour from the political atmosphere, too long obscured by night and storm and tempest. At length the exulting nations may encourage the cheering hopes, that they are no longer to bow under the iron rod of the oppressor; no longer to see desolation spread over their fields, their paternal inheritance the prey of the spoiler, their children made to pass through the fire of the modern Moloch. We have to congratulate our countrymen upon a succession of victories the most important, the most splendid, the most glorious, that are found to adorn the page of history. Armies beyond all example numerous and powerful, who meditated the destruction of empires, and the consolidation of one unbounded rule of despotism, have been levelled with the dust, with no monumental record to mark the spot where they perished! Let us be animated with the noble conviction, that in the depression of a tyranny the most barbarous, the most ambitious, the most insatiable, that ever was exercised, the valour, the perseverance, the patriotism, of Britons, have, by the acknowledgment of all the world, largely and effectually contributed. Once more the auspicious wings of favouring winds waft our deeply-laden barks to every quarter of the universe. Hope is revived, industry quickened, commerce in activity; and literature indulges the most pleasing and consolatory speculations. One act of justice we owe to ourselves: in the deepest gloom, spread by the melancholy aspect of events, the British nation has never given way to despondency. From a similar principle in this great and awful reverse of events, we impose a restraint upon our emotions of exultation: it is enough that we have seen the tyrant fallen, incapable, at length, of again loosening the sacred bonds which united nations together in the amicable interchange of good offices. The further events we leave to him whose goodness has brought about the present; but, with the most delightful complacency of expectation, we may now hope to listen to the sounds of the lute of peace; and, under the sweeter influence of its inspiring melody, the disciples of the muses may each, under the sacred shade of his own vine, cultivate, without danger of molestation, his favourite pursuit. Such are our wishes, and such the flattering prospect of the present period!

On the 9th of January, the London Gazette contained the prince regent's Declaration upon the situation of England towards America, with relation to the causes of the war which had unfortunately broken out between the two countries. His royal highness most solemnly declares, (and we can easily believe it,) that no desire of conquest, or other ordinary motive of aggression, can be imputed to Great Britain. Then he contemplates the conduct of this government towards the United States of America; and shows that a spirit of amity, forbearance, and conciliation, has ever characterized her transactions. His royal highness next enters into the speculations of the ruler of the French, in issuing his decrees of Berlin and Milan, and expatiates at large, and with much clearness, upon the rights of this country, and the pretensions of the United States, in a long but interesting official piece, which ends by declaring, "that, disappointed in his just expectation, the prince-regent will still pursue the policy which the British government has so long and invariably maintained, in repelling injustice, and in supporting the general rights of nations; and, under the favour of Providence, relying on the justice of his cause and the tried loyalty and firmness of the British nation, his royal highness confidently

looks



looks forward to a successful issue to the contest in which he has thus been compelled most reluctantly to engage."

This Declaration was of course laid before both houses of parliament; and, on the 18th of February, lord Bathurst, in the upper house, moved an address upon the subject. Referring to the declaration of war by America, he said he believed it was precipitated by the expectation of intercepting our homeward-bound fleet from the West Indies; for commodore Rodgers sailed immediately upon the eve of that declaration. While the British government showed a disposition to restore seamen who were proved to be natives of America, the United-States government constantly refused to restore British seamen who had deserted. This was a proof that the American government was hostile to this country. They likewise claimed a right of cancelling the allegiance of subjects of other states. He alluded to their practice of granting letters of naturalization. For this purpose all that was requisite was, for two persons stating themselves to be citizens of the United States, and vouching before a magistrate for a third to be a citizen, and, having resided five years there, obtained him a certificate of citizenship. These proofs might be fabricated, and no contrary interest existed in the courts to investigate them. It was impossible, therefore, we could give up the right of impressment, upon which our maritime greatness depended. His lordship concluded by moving an address to the prince-regent, approving of the rejection of the proposition from America; lamenting the necessity of the war, but acknowledging its justice; and expressing a determination to support his royal highness in carrying on the war with vigour.

The marquis of Lansdowne was glad he could concur in the address; but regretted, that, owing to the disposition of our naval force, such triumphs had been afforded to the Americans. War, once commenced, ought to be vigorously prosecuted, that it might be sooner terminated.—Lord Melville said, whenever the detail was entered into, it was capable of proof, that, at the time of the breaking out of the war, the force on the American station was amply sufficient for all the purposes required of it.—The earl of Liverpool adverted to the numerous escapes of the enemy's fleet during the better part of lord Nelson's career, to show that it might so happen without attaching blame to the admiralty.

Lord Holland would not concur in the address, because it was so worded as to imply, that the American government had peremptorily insisted on our surrender of the right of impressing seamen; and to this he could not agree on the face of the evidence.

Lord Erskine disapproved of the address, and could not consider the war as the consequence of the question of the right of impressing. It originated in the former irritations between this country and America, previous to the orders in council; and, until these were removed, there could be no conciliation. It had been said that this war, if the Americans persisted in their claims, must be eternal. If so, our prospects were disheartening; for America was a growing country; and in a lengthened contest, all the advantages were on her side, and against this country.—We believe that few Englishmen would be of lord Erskine's opinion, as to the ulterior issue of a contest between America and England; for surely the resources and power of this country are not of such a nature as soon to be exhausted and destroyed by the trans-atlantic pretence to authority on the bosom of the seas.

The same subject was warmly agitated in the commons on the same day.—Lord Castlereagh concluded a long speech by stating, that the seamen in our service, who claimed their discharge as natives of America, were in 1811, 3500; and in 1812, 3100—instead of 15 or 20,000, as stated by the American government. He considered the latter as anxious to enter into the war with this country, in order to assist the cause of France. He moved the following address: "That, while we deeply lament the failure of the endeavours of his royal highness to preserve

the relations of peace and amity between this country and America, we highly approve of the resistance opposed to the unjustifiable pretensions of the government of the United States; being satisfied that those pretensions were not admissible, without surrendering some of the most ancient, important, and undoubted, rights of the British empire. That, impressed with these sentiments, and fully convinced of the justice of his royal highness's cause, his royal highness may rely on our zealous and cordial support, and our affording every means necessary for prosecuting the war with vigour, and for bringing it to a safe and honourable termination."

Mr. Ponsonby warmly approved the conduct of ministers in resisting the demands of America; and declared, that, while they showed a due spirit of conciliation, he would give them his support.

Mr. A. Baring said, that an earlier repeal of the orders in council would have prevented war; but that there was a strong party in that country inimical to England, and which industriously inflamed the public opinion. He thought we had not shown a spirit of conciliation; and that, if there were no more than six hundred American seamen in the British service, America had a right to demand redress.

Mr. Foster attributed the war to the disposition shown by America to revive forgotten causes of dispute. As long as Washington presided over their councils, America was true to her own interests; but, when he descended into the grave, and the influence of his policy had subsided, a new system and new measures were adopted.

Mr. Whitbread declared, that he considered America to have been ill-treated by both belligerents; and, after a protracted series of aggravated insults, had declared against us, but not for France. He considered the frauds and perjuries of the practice of granting certificates only to be equalled by the perjuries and horrors of the license-system.—Mr. Canning, in an able speech, supported the address, but regretted the manner in which the war had been conducted.—The address was carried unanimously in both houses.

It was not unreasonable to expect, that at this moment the claims of the head of the house of Bourbon to the usurped throne of France would be publicly renewed. Willing to disclose to the inhabitants of the French empire his real dispositions, and the conduct he intends to follow, when Providence shall replace him upon the throne of his ancestors, the titular sovereign, Louis XVIII. published the following proclamation, dated Hartwell, Feb. 1, 1813.

"The moment is at length arrived, when Divine Providence appears ready to break in pieces the instrument of its wrath. The usurper of the throne of St. Louis, the devastator of Europe, experiences reverses in his turn. Shall they have no other effect but that of aggravating the calamities of France; and will she not dare to overturn an odious power, no longer protected by the illusions of victory? What prejudices or what fears can now prevent her from throwing herself into the arms of her king; and from recognizing, in the establishment of his legitimate authority, the only pledge of union, peace, and happiness, which his promises have so often guaranteed to his oppressed subjects? Being neither able nor inclined to obtain, but by their efforts, that throne which his rights and their affection can alone confirm, what wishes should be adverse to those which he has invariably entertained? what doubt can be started with regard to his paternal intentions? The king has said in his preceding declarations, and he reiterates the assurance, that the administrative and judicial bodies shall be maintained in the plenitude of their powers; that he will preserve their places to those who at present hold them, and who shall take the oath of fidelity to him; that the tribunals, depositaries of the laws, shall prohibit all persecutions bearing relation to those unhappy times of which his return will have for ever sealed the oblivion; that, in fine, the Code polluted



polluted by the name of Napoleon, but which, for the most part, contains only the ancient ordinances and customs of the realm, shall remain in force, with the exception of enactments contrary to the doctrines of religion, which, as well as the liberty of the people, has long been subjected to the caprice of the tyrant. The senate, in which are seated some men so justly distinguished for their talents, and whom so many services may render illustrious in the eyes of France and of posterity—that corps, whose utility and importance can never be duly appreciated till after the restoration—can it fail to perceive the glorious destiny which summons it to become the first instrument of that great benefaction which will prove the most solid as well as the most honourable guarantee of its existence and its prerogatives? On the subject of property, the king, who has already announced his intention to employ the most proper means for conciliating the interests of all, perceives, in the numerous settlements which have taken place between the old and the new land-holders, the means of rendering those cares almost superfluous. He engages, however, to interdict all proceedings by the tribunals, contrary to such settlements; to encourage voluntary arrangements; and, on the part of himself and his family, to set the example of all those sacrifices which may contribute to the repose of France, and the sincere union of all Frenchmen. The king has guaranteed to the army the maintenance of the ranks, employments, pay, and appointments, which it at present enjoys. He promises also to the generals, officers, and soldiers, who shall signalise themselves in support of his cause, rewards more substantial, distinctions more honourable, than any they can receive from an usurper—always ready to disown, or even to dread, their services. The king binds himself anew to abolish that pernicious conscription, which destroys the happiness of families and the hope of the country. Such always have been, such still are, the intentions of the king. His re-establishment on the throne of his ancestors will be for France the happy transition from the calamities of a war which tyranny perpetuates, to the blessings of a solid peace, for which foreign powers can never find any security but in the word of the legitimate sovereign.

LOUIS.”

This proclamation did not appear to have any effect at the time; but at the present moment it will be read with interest. When mentioned in the British parliament, it was declared not to be a measure concerted with or encouraged by the government of this country. The time was not yet come, for us openly to espouse the cause of the Bourbons.

Sir Francis Burdett, on the 23d of February, after exposing several encroachments made upon the constitution in consequence of the unfortunate indisposition under which his majesty is suffering, moved for leave to bring in a bill to provide against any interruption of the exercise of the royal authority, in the event of the death of the prince-regent in his father's life-time. He was desirous it should be understood, that he intended the presumptive heir to the throne, the princess Charlotte of Wales, should in such case exercise the royal authority. This would prevent both ministers and parliament from rendering the royal authority subservient to their will.—The motion, after a short debate, was negatived by 238 to 73.

It is with painful feelings that we find ourselves called upon, by our duty of annalists, to record transactions which had better been buried in oblivion than to appear before the public; but as, at the times now under our consideration, they caused a great deal of interest and concern in the nation at large, and especially in the metropolis, we cannot refuse presenting the principal features of the facts to our readers.

So far back as the year 1796, the prince of Wales thought proper to send the following letter to his illustrious consort.—It is dated Windsor Castle, April 30.

“Madam; As lord Cholmondeley informs me that you wish I would define in writing,\* the terms upon which

we are to live, I shall endeavour to explain myself upon that head with as much clearness and as much propriety as the nature of the subject will admit. Our inclinations are not in our power; nor should either of us be held answerable to the other, because *Nature has not made us suitable to each other*. Tranquil and comfortable society is, however, in our power.—Let our intercourse, therefore, be restricted to that; and I will distinctly subscribe to the condition which you required through lady Cholmondeley,† that, even in the event of any accident happening to my daughter, which I trust Providence will in its mercy avert, I shall not infringe the terms of the restriction, by proposing at any period a connection of a more particular nature. I shall now finally close this disagreeable correspondence, trusting that, as we have completely explained ourselves to each other, the rest of our lives will be passed in uninterrupted tranquillity.—With great truth and sincerity, your's,

GEORGE P.”

\* The substance of this letter had been previously conveyed in a message through lady Cholmondeley to her royal highness; but it was thought by her royal highness to be infinitely too important to rest merely upon a verbal communication, and therefore she desired that his royal highness's pleasure upon it should be communicated to her in writing.

† Upon the receipt of the message alluded to, her royal highness, though she had nothing to do but to submit to the arrangement which his royal highness should determine upon, desired it might be understood, that she should insist that any such arrangement, if once made, should be considered as final; and that his royal highness should not retain the right, from time to time, at his pleasure, or under any circumstances, to alter it.

The answer to the foregoing letter conveys the most afflicting demonstration of the fact, that differences and disgusts had arisen between the royal pair very soon after their nuptials.

“The avowal of your conversation with lord Cholmondeley neither surprises nor offends me: it merely confirmed what you have *tacitly insinuated for this twelvemonth*. But, after this, it would be a want of delicacy, or rather an unworthy meanness in me, were I to complain of those conditions which you impose upon yourself.—I should have returned no answer to your letter, if it had not been conceived in terms to make it doubtful whether this arrangement proceeds from you or from me; and you are aware that *the credit of it belongs to you alone*.—The letter which you announce to me as the last, obliges me to communicate to the king, as to my sovereign and my father, both your avowal and my answer. You will find enclosed the copy of my letter to the king. [Not published.] I apprise you of it, that I may not incur the slightest reproach of duplicity from you. As I have at this moment no protector but his majesty, I refer myself solely to him upon this subject; and, if my conduct meets his approbation, I shall be, in some degree at least, consoled. I retain every sentiment of gratitude for the situation in which I find myself, as princess of Wales; enabled by your means to indulge in the free exercise of a virtue dear to my heart—I mean charity.—It will be my duty likewise to act upon another motive—that of giving an example of patience and resignation under every trial.—Do me the justice to believe that I shall never cease to pray for your happiness, and to be your much-devoted

CAROLINE.”

Her royal highness therefore lived in retirement at Blackheath. In the year 1802, in “the exercise of that virtue so dear to her heart, charity,” she took into her house an infant, the son of a poor woman, and brought it up with great care and tenderness. Her enemies insinuated that the child was her own; and, in 1806, certain written declarations were laid before the prince of Wales, who referred them to his majesty; and his majesty was pleased to order a commission, consisting of lord-chancellor Erskine, and the lords Grenville, Spencer, and Ellenborough,



borough, to inquire into the truth of these declarations, and to examine evidence. These noble lords made a Report on the 14th of July, 1806, from which we must make a few extracts. "We first examined on oath the principal informants, sir John Douglas and Charlotte his wife; who both positively swore, the former to his having observed the fact of the pregnancy of her royal highness, and the latter to all the important particulars contained in her former declaration, and above referred to. Their examinations are circumstantial and positive. The most material of these allegations being thus far supported by the oath of the parties from whom they had proceeded, we then felt it to be our duty to follow up the inquiry by the examination of such other persons as we judged best able to afford us information as to the facts in question. We thought it beyond all doubt, that in the course of inquiry many particulars must be learnt, which would be necessarily conclusive on the truth or falsehood of these declarations; so many persons must have been witnesses to the appearance of an actual existing pregnancy; so many circumstances must have been attendant upon a real delivery; and difficulties so numerous and insurmountable must have been involved in any attempt to account for the infant in question as the child of another woman, if it had been in fact the child of the princess, that we entertained a full and confident expectation of arriving at complete proof, either in the affirmative or negative, on this part of the subject.—This expectation was not disappointed. We are happy to declare our perfect conviction, that there is *no foundation whatever* for believing that the child now with the princess of Wales is the child of her royal highness, or that she was delivered of any child in the year 1802; nor has any thing appeared to us which would warrant the belief that she was pregnant in that year, or at any other period within the compass of our inquiries. The identity of the child now with the princess, its parents, age, the place and date of its birth, the time and circumstance of its being first taken under her royal highness's protection, are all established by such a concurrence both of positive and circumstantial evidence, as can in our judgment leave no question on this part of the subject. That child was, beyond all doubt, born in Brownlow-street hospital, on the 11th day of July, 1802, of the body of Sophia Austin; and was first brought to the princess's house in the November following.

"We do not, however, feel ourselves at liberty, much as we should wish it, to close our Report here. Besides the allegations of the pregnancy and delivery of the princess, those declarations contain other particulars respecting the conduct of her royal highness, such as must, especially considering her exalted rank and station, necessarily give occasion to very unfavourable interpretations. From the various depositions and proofs annexed to this Report, particularly from the examination of Robert Bidgood, William Cole, Frances Lloyd, and Mrs. Lisle, your majesty will perceive that several strong circumstances of this description have been positively sworn to by witnesses, who cannot, in our judgment, be suspected of any unfavourable bias, and whose veracity, in this respect, we have seen no ground to question. On the precise bearing and effect of the facts thus appearing, we conceive it to be our duty to report—that, as on the one hand the facts of pregnancy and delivery are to our minds satisfactorily disproved, so on the other hand we think the circumstances to which we now refer, particularly those stated to have passed between her royal highness and captain Manby, must be credited until they shall receive some decisive contradiction; and, if true, are justly entitled to the most serious consideration."

As this Report left some little stain, on the score of levity, upon the character of the princess, her royal highness addressed a letter to his majesty, commenting on the evidence, and indeed "protesting against the legality of the commission, and all proceedings under it." In January 1807, his majesty (with the advice of his cabinet-

council) was pleased to send a Message to the princess, stating, that "it is no longer necessary for him to decline receiving the princess into his royal presence. The king sees with great satisfaction the agreement of his confidential servants, in the decided opinion expressed by the four lords, upon the falsehood of the accusations of pregnancy and delivery brought forward against the princess by lady Douglas. On the other matters produced in the course of the inquiry, the king is advised, that none of the facts or allegations stated in the preliminary examinations, carried on in the absence of the parties interested, are to be considered as legally or conclusively established. But in those examinations, and even in the answer drawn in the name of the princess by her legal advisers, there have appeared circumstances of conduct on the part of the princess, which his majesty could never regard but with serious concern. The elevated rank which the princess holds in this country, and the relation in which she stands to his majesty and the royal family, must always deeply involve both the interests of the state, and the personal feelings of his majesty, in the propriety and correctness of her conduct; and his majesty cannot, therefore, forbear to express, in the conclusion of the business, his desire and expectation, that such a conduct may in future be observed by the princess, as may fully justify those marks of paternal regard and affection which the king always wishes to show to every part of the royal family. His majesty has directed that this Message should be transmitted to the princess of Wales by his lord-chancellor; and that copies of the proceedings which have taken place on this subject should also be communicated to his dearly beloved son, the prince of Wales."

A minute of council followed on the 22d of April, 1807, which was most consolatory to the princess. "After the most deliberate consideration of the evidence which has been brought before the commissioners, and of the previous examinations, as well as of the answer and observations which have been submitted to your majesty upon them, they feel it necessary to declare their decided concurrence in the clear and unanimous opinion of the commissioners, confirmed by that of all your majesty's late confidential servants, that the two main charges alleged against her royal highness the princess of Wales, of pregnancy and delivery, are completely disproved; and they further submit to your majesty their unanimous opinion, that *all the other particulars of conduct*, brought in accusation against her royal highness, to which the character of criminality can be ascribed, are either satisfactorily contradicted, or rest upon evidence of such a nature, and which was given under such circumstances, as render it, in the judgment of your majesty's confidential servants, *undeserving of credit*. Your majesty's confidential servants, therefore, concurring in that part of the opinion of your late servants, as stated in their minute of the 25th of January, that there is no longer any necessity for your majesty being advised to decline receiving the princess into your royal presence, humbly submit to your majesty, that it is essentially necessary, in justice to her royal highness, and for the honour and interests of your majesty's illustrious family, that her royal highness the princess of Wales should be admitted, with as little delay as possible, into your majesty's royal presence; and that she should be received, in a manner due to her rank and station, in your majesty's court and family."

The princess was now received at court; it was hoped that every thing was forgotten and forgiven; and some good people indulged themselves with the fond expectation of seeing the prince and princess of Wales united in supporting the true dignity and character of the court.—Vain hopes! The same wicked spies and informers were at work; and, in the year 1812, when the king's disorder was become hopeless, by which the princess had lost her best friend, the former accusations against her royal highness began to be repeated with aggravations; and fresh insinuations were propagated as to levity of conduct. The



consequence was, that his royal highness the prince-regent thought fit to restrict his daughter the princess Charlotte in the frequency of her visits to her mother, and also to refer certain documents which he had received to the investigation of some of the privy council. Her royal highness now thought fit to appeal to the British parliament for the final clearing of her character. She sent a letter to the Speaker of each house, with a request that it might be read immediately to the assembled members. The Speaker of the house of lords, lord-chancellor Eldon, never took the least notice of it; but, in the house of commons, on the 2d of March, 1813, Mr. Abbott said, that in the afternoon of yesterday he had received a paper, which purported to be a letter from the princess of Wales: it not having any signature, and being delivered to one of the door-keepers, he had thought it his duty, previously to laying it before the house, to authenticate it. Having so done, he would, with their permission, read the letters.

“Montague House, Blackheath, March 2.

“The princess of Wales, by her own desire, as well as by the advice of her counsel, did yesterday transmit to Mr. Speaker a letter, which she was anxious should have been read without delay to the house of commons; and the princess requests that the said letter may be read this very day to the house of commons. The princess of Wales incloses Mr. Speaker a duplicate of the letter alluded to.”

“Montague House, Blackheath, March 1.

“The princess of Wales informs Mr. Speaker, that she has received from the lord viscount Sidmouth, a copy of a report made to his royal highness the prince-regent, by a certain number of the members of his majesty’s privy council, to whom it appears that his royal highness had been advised to refer the consideration of documents and other evidence respecting her character and conduct. The report is of such a nature, that her royal highness feels persuaded no person can read it without considering it as conveying aspersions upon her; and, although their vagueness renders it impossible to discover precisely what is meant, or even what she has been charged with, yet, as the princess feels conscious of no offence whatever, she thinks it due to herself, to the illustrious houses with which she is connected by blood and by marriage, and to the people among whom she holds so distinguished a rank, not to acquiesce for a moment under any imputations affecting her honour. The princess of Wales has not been permitted to know upon what evidence the members of the privy council proceeded, still less to be heard in her defence. She knew only by common rumour of the inquiries which they have been carrying on, until the result of those inquiries was communicated to her; and she has no means now of knowing whether the members acted as a body to whom she can appeal for redress, at least for a hearing, or only in their individual capacities, as persons selected to make a report upon her conduct. The princess is therefore compelled to throw herself upon the wisdom and justice of parliament, and to desire that the fullest investigation may be instituted of her whole conduct during the period of her residence in this country. The princess fears no scrutiny, however strict, provided she may be tried by impartial judges known to the constitution, and in the fair and open manner which the law of the land prescribes. Her only desire is, that she may either be treated as innocent, or proved to be guilty. The princess of Wales desires Mr. Speaker to communicate this letter to the house of commons.”

Mr. Cochrane Johnstone gave notice of a motion upon the subject of this letter. It came on upon the 5th of March; when, in direct opposition to the wishes of his majesty’s ministers, Mr. Lygon moved the exclusion of strangers.—Mr. Cochrane Johnstone, then, after declaring that he should not wound the feelings of any branch of the royal family, and stating that he had no authority for his motion from the princess of Wales, proceeded to notice the commission granted by the king, in 1806, to ex-

amine into certain allegations that had been preferred against the princess of Wales; and read the whole of the Report made by the commissioners in 1806. He next proceeded to state, that the paper he should now read was a document which, he was ready to prove at the bar of the house, was dictated by lord Eldon, Mr. Perceval, and sir Thomas Plomer, though signed by the princess of Wales: it was a letter to the king, on the 9th of October, 1806, as a protest against the report of commissioners just detailed. The hon. member observed, that he fully concurred in the sentiments it expressed upon the subject of the commission; and he insisted that the charge against the princess before that tribunal, by sir John and lady Douglas, was nothing short of treason; that, if the commissioners had power to acquit her royal highness of the crime charged, they had equally the power to convict her. What was the state of that country in which such a thing was even possible? Besides, he inquired, what became of sir John and lady Douglas? If he were rightly informed, they still persisted in the same story; if all they maintained were so notoriously false, why were they not prosecuted? The hon. member went on to remark, that he understood no proceedings of the late privy council, except the Report, had been transmitted to the princess of Wales. This was the case in 1806; but he submitted that copies of all those examinations should be given to her. The hon. member then concluded by moving, first, a very long resolution, containing nearly the whole of the report of the commissioners in 1806, with his own reasoning upon the illegality of such a commission; and terminating with expressing the expediency of a new and different trial of, or inquiry into, the same subject: the second motion was for a variety of papers connected with this subject, from 1806 to the present time.

Lord Castlereagh defended the commissioners of 1806, and insisted that their appointment was agreeable to historical precedent. He did not think the house of commons a proper place either to try the princess of Wales for treason, or to sit in judgment upon the levity of her manners. The birth of the child had been traced, and proved; its mother was Anne Aulfin. The commissioners had acquitted the princess, as had his majesty’s then ministers, upon oath, not only of actual criminality, but of imputed levity; and likewise a subsequent administration. A prosecution had been recommended by the first cabinet against sir John and lady Douglas, which had not been instituted; not that there was any doubt of punishment being brought down upon their degraded heads, but to avoid bringing such subjects before the public.

Mr. Whitbread conceived that the noble lord had not furnished all the information that was necessary regarding the late letter. He conceived the princess unhappily and unfortunately situated. He then adverted to her defence in 1806, which had been conducted by Mr. Perceval, lord Eldon, and sir T. Plomer; the papers they had drawn up, arraigning the commission, and the evidence of the witnesses. The noble lords (Eldon and Castlereagh) doubted the legality of the commission, as appeared by the cabinet-minute of 1807, though that commission pronounced a verdict of acquittal; and yet they refer the privy council, which lately met, to the evidence taken before it—thus trying the princess a second time, not for her conduct in 1807, 1808, and 1809, or any subsequent year, but in 1806. Mr. Perceval, to his dying day, always publicly proclaimed the innocence of the princess; but, as for her other surviving friends, they were mute. Mr. Whitbread concluded an animated speech amidst shouts of applause; and moved an amendment, for the production of the late report of the privy council.

Lord Castlereagh said, that it was not for the house to judge of the merits of the parties, under the long separation that had existed. No punishment had been inflicted on the princess by the restraints that were placed on the intercourse between her royal highness and the princess Charlotte. When the princess Charlotte went to Wind-



for, the prince altered the arrangement under which the princess had been accustomed to see her, from once a-week to once a-fortnight, that less interruption of her studies might happen by frequent journeys to London; and it was not intended to require the alteration to continue longer than during the princess's residence at Windsor. This was the whole of what was magnified into a great infliction of punishment and inference of guilt, by the princess.

Mr. Brand thought the country exposed to difficulty and danger in regard to the succession. It was not enough to say that the regent had the sole prerogative of educating his daughter: statements had been handed about, in which it was said, the princess was accused by suborned witnesses; and to suffer the matter to rest here was a denial of justice to the princess.

Mr. Wortley, as a man of honour and a gentleman, felt warmly, and expressed himself warmly. On this occasion he used the expressions which we have quoted in our article LIBERTY of the PRESS, vol. xii. p. 605. and which therefore we need not repeat. He concluded by saying, that no man was more attached to the house of Brunswick than himself; but, if he had a sister in the same situation, he should say she was exceedingly ill-treated.

Mr. W. Smith fully participated in this sentiment; if his sister had been treated as the princess had been, he should feel extremely sore.

The Attorney-general (sir T. Plomer) said, that he gave his professional advice to the princess in 1806. He would not disclose its purport; but he would say that he never discovered any just foundation for the charges against her.

Mr. Whitbread said that the noble lord and his colleagues had not dared to answer the defiance of the princess. They could inquire into her conduct—nay, search her very heart—and they had declared her guiltless. So completely did she now appear acquitted of all possible imputation of blame, even by the persons from whom the aspersions were by the world supposed in the last report to have been thrown upon her, that it was in his mind unnecessary to press the matter to a division. Her innocence was acknowledged entire—complete. To such restrictions as the prince-regent, in his capacity of father to the princess Charlotte, or by the advice of his ministers, might think proper to impose upon her intercourse with her daughter, she must submit; it was her lot. But she had the satisfaction of knowing, that her reputation henceforward was, by the confession of all, without imputation or reproach.

Mr. Canning complimented the last member on his candour. The innocence of the princess had been established by repeated acquittals, and the declaration of lord Castlereagh. There was no necessity for any further proceedings. As a father, his royal highness had a right to controul his own family; and, as a sovereign, to educate the heir to the throne.

Here the matter ended, as the resolution and amendment were not pressed to a division. Addresses were presented to the princess, from the city of London, and from a great number of other places, congratulating her H. R. on the full and entire clearing of her character and fame.—Sir John Douglas is since dead; lady D. lives, in no very enviable state.

The business of the lord high chancellor of England having so much increased, chiefly in consequence of the vast number of bankrupt-cases, and of appeals from the law-courts to the supreme and final decision of the house of lords;—it was thought necessary to introduce a bill for the purpose of appointing a vice-chancellor, to assist his lordship in the court of chancery.—Lord Castlereagh, in moving the second reading of this bill, on the 11th of February, dwelt upon the necessity of such an appointment; and stated, that it had received the approbation of the law-lords. The salary to be granted to the vice-chancellor would be 4000l.—one half of which it was proposed to

take from the fund formed by the profits accruing to the court of chancery, and the other half from the interest upon unclaimed property in that court, of which, after paying the masters in chancery (each 200l. a-year) and other officers, 9000l. a-year remained unappropriated.

Messrs. Stephen, Weatherall, Best, and the Solicitor General, spoke in support of the bill; which was warmly opposed by Messrs. Banks, Macdonald, Smith, Courtenay, Canning, Taylor, Ponsonby, and sir S. Romilly. The principal arguments urged were—That the arrear of business in the house of lords had been accumulating eleven years, without any attempt having been made to discharge it—that the adoption of a process to compel the members of that house to attend to hear appeals, would be a more effectual mode of lightening it than what was proposed by the present bill, which merely suggested as a remedy to relieve another person in another court—that these appeals might be heard in the absence of the lord-chancellor, for which purpose a temporary speaker of the house of lords might be appointed—that the creation of a vice-chancellor would multiply the number of appeals, so that the time of the chancellor would ultimately be consumed in re-hearings and appeals from his deputy and the master of the rolls—that it would be a temptation for ministers to make a person chancellor, not the first lawyer of his day, unlike the great men who had of late filled the office, but the first politician, the ablest debater, of his day—and that it would be in fact introducing a new, perhaps an unconstitutional, judicial officer into our judicature.—Mr. Bankes's amendment, that the bill be considered this day six months, was negatived by 201 to 122.

On the 15th of February, on the question for going into a committee on the bill, Mr. Leach observed, that there could be no possible reason for creating a new and permanent office for a temporary object; and proceeded to show the necessity of preventing the creation of an office at once so expensive and so useless.—Sir Samuel Romilly spoke to the same purpose. After several able speeches for and against the measure, the bill passed through the committee.

On the 22d of the same month, the debate was resumed.—Mr. Taylor said, that the whole of the lord-chancellor's emoluments did not amount to more than from 18 to 20,000l. a-year. The fees from bankrupts were about 5000l. a-year, and he had seen them exaggerated to 17,000l.

Mr. Canning suggested, that, as the evil was temporary, it was but fitting that the remedy should also be of a limited nature.—Sir S. Romilly, Messrs. Ponsonby and Gordon, spoke shortly against the bill; as did Messrs. Stephen, Bragge, Bathurst, and Abercromby, in its favour. The amendments were then agreed to.

On the third reading, Mr. M. A. Taylor, after urging various objections against the creation of a vice-chancellor, moved for the appointment of a committee, to consider the propriety of relieving the lord-chancellor from the cognizance of bankrupt-cases.—Mr. Leach said, that these cases did not occupy more than thirty-six days in a year; and it would not be right to go to the expense of a separate establishment for this purpose.—After some discussion, the motion was negatived without a division. The bill was read the third time after a division, when the numbers were 127 to 89.—Mr. Canning's clause, that the office should last but seven years, was negatived by 145 to 114.

The royal assent was given to this bill on the 23d of March; and on the 5th of May, being the first day of term, the vice-chancellor made his first formal appearance in the court, accompanied by the chancellor and the master of the rolls. He merely took his seat for a few minutes on the right hand of the chancellor, on the side of the court next the bench-door, the master of the rolls being on the left of the chancellor.

On the 3d of February, several petitions were presented to the house of lords, from both laity and clergy, against the catholic claims.—The bishop of Norwich lamented the activity



activity of the clergy in raising the cry of "No Popery." He deeply regretted that uncharitable and illiberal sentiments of that nature should disgrace most of the petitions presented to parliament.

In the house of commons, on a petition against the catholic claims being presented from the county of Anglesea, sir Henry Parnell stated, that the signatures to this petition had been obtained under an erroneous impression. The person who proposed the petition at the meeting, had enforced its necessity on the allegations contained in a book which he read to the meeting. This book pretended to be the Third Part of the Statement of the Penal Laws of the Catholics; but, so far from being published by the catholic board as alleged, it was written and industriously circulated by their enemies.—Mr. Whitbread; with a warmth befitting his good intentions, said, that the arguments of the opponents of the catholics were founded in falsehood, and that their support was obtained by forgery.—And Mr. Canning stated, that this fabrication had to his own knowledge occasioned many friends to the claims of the Roman-catholics to change their sentiments.—The petition was laid upon the table.

The question came regularly before the house on the 25th of February; when Mr. Elliott, after moving the resolution of last session, for taking into consideration the Roman-catholic claims, presented a petition from the Roman-catholics of England.

Mr. Grattan, in a speech distinguished for its eloquence, urged the justice and policy of admitting the catholics to a participation of the same rights and privileges as protestants, upon proper securities being given for the maintenance of the constitution in church and state. He read the oath of the 33d of the king, by which people of that persuasion abjure the doctrine that it is lawful to injure or kill a heretic; that the pope can absolve a subject from his allegiance, or that he has even any temporal power in these realms; and concluded by moving that the house do now form itself into a committee on the claims.

Mr. Tomline considered the catholics of the present day as persecuting as their ancestors. It was unwise to grant the claims of a few, and expose the safety of many. We wanted none but protestants in our senate, or to command our fleets and armies. The Roman-catholics of Ireland were the authors of the rebellion in that country.

Sir H. Heron affirmed that those great men, Pitt, Fox, Burke, and Windham, were in favour of the Roman-catholics. He reprehended the unworthy means taken by the clergy to excite the prejudices of the people. There were even certain dignitaries, some of them with mitres on their heads, and some of them with mitres in their heads, who certainly had done more than became their situation. A learned prelate had even misrepresented the opinions of Mr. Fox on this subject, in order to excite groundless fears.

Mr. Bankes professed his opinion to be changed since last session; perhaps his judgment had been perverted by the extraordinary abilities of Mr. Canning; but he thought that the concessions would be attended with danger. What was to become of the test and corporation acts? and would the catholics agree to the *veto*? They had met conciliation by fresh demands, and a domineering and threatening tone. Besides, the people of England were evidently against any farther concessions, contrary to the opinion that prevailed last session.

The debate was lengthened out till half past two in the morning, and then adjourned till the 1st of March; on which day, sir John Newport, Messrs. W. Pole and Whitbread, sir T. Acland, hon. F. Robinson, and lord Palmerstone, spoke at some length in favour of the motion; which was opposed by Messrs. Peele, Ryder, H. Davies, H. Lascelles, and sir T. Sutton.

Mr. Whitbread recommended that concessions should be made to the catholics, without taunting them by fixing impossible conditions, such as renouncing their creed. In regard to the city-petition with its 6000 signatures,

presented by sir W. Curtis, he observed, that the infant and its nurse were both of a large growth.

Mr. W. Pole said, that matters could not continue in their present state in Ireland. They must sooner or later re-enact the old disabling laws—raise a rebellion—or agree to conciliate the catholics, which he recommended. The debate was then adjourned till next day; when

Sir W. Scott urged, in strong terms, the danger of concession, since the catholics had refused the proper securities; and the protestants, especially the clergy, had petitioned against it. He was followed on the same side by Messrs. M. Sutton and Rose.

Lord Castlereagh recommended going into the committee, though he thought he saw insurmountable difficulties to the accomplishment of the proposed object.—The sense of the house being against farther adjournment, a division took place, when there appeared:—for going into a committee, to consider of relief to the catholics, 264; against it, 224; majority in favour of the motion, 40.

The house accordingly went into the committee on the 9th of March; when Mr. Grattan, after a very long speech, concluded by moving the following resolution:—"That the house would take measures for restoring to the catholics the privileges of the constitution; subject, however, to certain exceptions, and under such regulations as might be deemed necessary to support the protestant establishment in church and state." He added, that, if this were agreed to, he should then move for leave to bring in a bill; but he was not desirous of precipitating the measure. He thought that time ought to be given for the spirits to cool—that they should not legislate without consulting the feelings of the people; and that in the mean time they should repose upon the good sense of both countries, and not take any step that should deprive the cause of the benefit of that good sense.

The Speaker said, he was willing that the range of catholic privileges should be extended in such a way, that all objects of honour, distinct from political power, should be opened to them. He would lay open to them all military situations, even the staff-appointments, with the exception, however, of the highest situation in the profession, that of commander-in-chief in England, Scotland, and Ireland. He would likewise admit the catholics to all the honours of the bar—protect the soldier in the exercise of his religion in this country—and protect mass-houses in the same manner as other places of worship. But, as long as the Roman-catholics acknowledged the foreign influence of the pope, he could not content to arm them with political power.

We must beg leave to observe here, that to require the Roman-catholics to give up their submission to the pope in *spiritual affairs*, would be the same as desiring them to subvert the whole system of their religion; the doubt is, how far the spiritual influence of the bishop of Rome upon the consciences of individuals may affect them as to the impartial exercise of political power.—Several very able speeches were made both for and against the motion; and at length, after a loud and peremptory cry of *Question!* a division took place; when Mr. Grattan's resolution was carried by 186 against 119.

On the 30th of April, Mr. Grattan brought in his bill. It allowed Roman-catholics to sit in either house of parliament on taking an oath therein specified, instead of the oath of supremacy, and against transubstantiation: it also allowed them to be members of any corporation; and to be officers of the king's household, with certain exceptions.—The bill was read a first time, and ordered to be printed. Mr. Grattan then moved a call of the house for the second reading on the 11th of May, which was agreed to.

On that day, sir J. C. Hippisley rose to urge the necessity of delay, and to require further security; and, after stating that 30,000l. had been collected by the Jesuits to build a college near Dublin, moved for a committee of inquiry, with instructions to obtain returns from the colonies, and information from foreign countries, respecting



the guards upon catholics and against the power of the pope.

Mr. Grattan observed, that the effect of agreeing to this motion would be to put off the question for an indefinite period. They were to wait until this select committee should have examined all the laws made since the reformation and before it,—until they had examined all our colonial institutions, and all the laws of every country in Europe! Nor was this all: the committee were expected to read all the books of controversy which had been written, and to make a report on all those points. The motion, then, was for appointing a committee charged with such a task, that they could not be expected to present a report for many years; and could it be supposed that any person who wished for the success of the catholic cause would be satisfied with such a delay?—After various pertinent remarks, Mr. G. gave an account of the bill already brought in upon this important subject. The catholic bill consisted of four parts. The first was to allow the catholics seats in parliament; the second, to give them the right of voting at elections; the third, to give them corporate rights; and the fourth, to allow them to hold civil and military offices. The bill amounted to the principle of incorporating the catholics with the rest of the community. There were many penalties now existing in the books, but which were never enforced; and it would, of course, be desirable that they should no longer exist even in the books. The main object of the bill, however, was a communication of rights and privileges to the catholics, under such restrictions as should be considered sufficient securities for the protestant church. Having stated that the present bill gave emancipation to the catholic, he had next to state the securities it gave to the protestant. Those securities were to be found principally in the exceptions which were contained in the bill, and in the alteration of the oath. The offices which the catholics were excluded from by this bill, were the offices of lord-chancellor, and lord-lieutenant of Ireland. The first was considered, in a great degree, an ecclesiastical office, from the patronage it possessed in the church; and, as to the lord-lieutenant, as he is the representative of the king, who must be a protestant, it was thought right that he also should be a protestant. The second exception related to the right of holding advowsons, or presenting to livings. By the next exception, they would be excluded from any places in the ecclesiastical courts, or any courts of appeal and review on ecclesiastical matters. Next followed an exclusion from all situations in ecclesiastical schools and colleges. There was also an exclusion of foreigners and non-residents from the high situations of the catholic priesthood. Lastly, there followed the oath which was recommended instead of that now taken. This oath abjured the regicidal power attributed to the pope, as also that of deposing kings. It abjured all temporal power of the pope in these realms, as also the opinion of the pope's infallibility. It abjured the doctrine imputed to the catholics, "that no faith was to be kept with heretics." It also swore the catholics to support the protestant succession, and the present state of property; to discover all plots or treasons that should come to their knowledge; not to exercise the power they might possess in the state to overthrow or to disturb the protestant church; and the clergy were also to swear, that, in the election of persons to be recommended to the apostolic functions, they would never choose any person whose loyalty and good conduct were not known to them. They were also to swear, that they would have no communication with the see of Rome on any matters that were not purely ecclesiastical. Some gentlemen might be surprised at the committee having framed an oath so long and so particular. They, however, thought that it was necessary that the oath should increase instead of diminishing the securities now existing. They had therefore added to the present oath the obligation of disclosing treason, and of not recommending any clergyman whose loyalty was not well known. They had also extended the application of

the oath. The former oath was only required to be taken on the acceptance of some office: the present oath, however, was proposed to be extended generally to the clergy as well as the laity. To the securities so provided, the right hon. gentleman (Mr. Canning) had added some clauses which would give all the effect of domestic nomination, without giving too great a power of interference to the crown. He conceived that the bill, with such clauses, would amount to emancipation for the catholics, and security to the protestants.

Mr. Ryder said, that he should vote for going into the committee, *because* it would produce delay; and he did not feel himself at all ready to agree with the bill. If ever there was a bill demanding the serious attention of the house, and in the deliberation upon which they should avoid the slightest appearance of hurry, it was the present; a measure which had excited the fears of so many persons, and against the adoption of which the table was loaded with petitions!

Mr. B. Bathurst supported the motion, which lord Castlereagh opposed; and after a reply from sir J. C. Hippisley, the house divided, and the motion was lost by 235 against 187; majority, 48.

The second reading was moved on the 13th; when Dr. Duigenan declared, with vehemence, that the bill would restore the Roman-catholic religion, and establish the supremacy of the pope. He argued, at great length, that concession to the catholics would destroy the protestant ascendancy in Ireland, would give them 100 votes in parliament, which they would employ to overturn the establishments of church and state. He declared that whatever oaths the catholics took would not be considered binding, if the pope or the clergy chose to absolve them. To admit them to political power, was the height of impudence; it was injurious to the protestant succession, and *acknowledging that the Stuart family had been unjustly deprived of the crown.*

Sir F. Flood commented with much severity on the speech of the doctor. He complained of the slanders and falsehoods uttered against the catholics, whom he wished half the English would go to Ireland to see. The speech of sir J. C. Hippisley on a former night, he characterised as the "most multifarious, complicated, circuitous, oration," he had ever heard.

Lord Castlereagh thought other securities should be provided besides the oath, which, he admitted, was comprehensive and satisfactory. The catholics, by being admitted into parliament, would legislate for our church; and they ought to prove their conciliatory spirit, by granting the protestants some security in the appointment of the bishops. He thought the crown ought to have a voice in the rejection of a priest who might be disloyal. He disapproved of the commissioners under the present bill, as they were to act without the influence of the crown, save their nomination. It tended to establish a new estate in the country highly dangerous, and to transfer from a foreign power, to a power within ourselves, a right of interference seriously detrimental to the catholic body, to itself, and to the constitution. The noble lord concluded by declaring, that he wished the house to go into a committee on the bill.

Mr. Wilberforce complained that the noble lord had not stated his ideas distinctly; he would place the framers of the bill in a very painful situation, unless he would state in the house, or in private, what his views were.

Mr. Canning declared, that he was willing to meet and confer with the noble lord, and adopt his views, should they appear most conducive to produce that effect which they both wished.

The house then divided, when Dr. Duigenan's amendment, for deferring the second reading for three months, was negatived, by 245 to 202. The bill was then read a second time, and committed for the 19th; on which day, Mr. Grattan gave in his clauses to the chairman, without any observations.



Mr. Plunkett said, that, as it would not be in his power to be present on the day fixed for the discussion of this important question, he hoped the house would indulge him with a very few words, that he might give his opinion upon it now. He had read the clauses prepared by the right hon. gentleman with the greatest attention, and he most cordially agreed with the whole of them. They appeared to him to embrace the most perfect security to the protestants; and, whilst they respected the principles of the catholics, were calculated to meet and soften the prejudices of every kind.

Lord Castlereagh expressed his satisfaction that the honourable and learned gentleman had made this declaration. He also expressed his approbation of the clauses of the right hon. gentleman, (Mr. Canning;) and said the bill *should have his cordial assistance.*

The report was received, and ordered to be taken into farther consideration on Monday, the 24th.—On that day it received that solemn decision which we alluded to in p. 292, 3. and which we had in some degree anticipated under the article LIBERTY OF CONSCIENCE, in the preceding volume, (p. 591-601.) while the bill was before the house.

On the 24th of May, therefore, the house being in a committee on the bill, and having appointed a chairman, Mr. Abbott (the speaker) immediately rose, and spoke to the following effect. He said, that the honourable gentleman, with whom this bill originated, had declared that conciliatory arrangements were the only object which he had in view; that he wished not any measure of this sort to be carried without the consent of protestants as well as catholics; but what prospect, he (Mr. Abbott) would ask, was there of any such concord? The leaders of the Roman-catholic party exclaimed against the bill, as inadequate and confined in its provisions; while Dr. Troy, the titular archbishop of Dublin, and Dr. Milner, the vicar-apostolic for the Midland District, had declared that, in regard to the appointment of their bishops, it was more exceptionable than the Veto itself; and one of them had declared that, rather than consent to such provisions, it would be the duty of the catholic clergy to lay down their lives on a scaffold. All our legislators and statesmen had agreed that the civil authority should be vested in those who conformed to the religion of the state; while, at the same time, the measure of the danger to be avoided was to be the measure of the extent of that exclusion. Such was the frame of the government as established at the revolution: it gave the most ample religious toleration to protestant dissenters of every description; it even relaxed the laws against them, on account of their tried loyalty and exemplary conduct. The religious doctrines of the catholics, on the contrary, contained in them something hostile to the civil constitution of the country. He agreed with Mr. Burke, that it was just to exclude the catholics from offices of state, though not from those of the army and navy, considering the former as belonging to the sovereignty of the country. But he would never consent to lay open to them the two houses of parliament, where some one of their body, of splendid talents, but perverted ambition, might become a leader of a party, and, joining with some other faction, might form a combination of force extremely dangerous to the constitution of the country. Were parliament thrown open to the catholics, there would be little chance of the present representatives for Ireland sitting in that house. He should likewise object to their appointment to judicial offices. In administering the rights of the protestant church, they could never give that satisfaction which was so desirable and essential. It was not the object of the framers of the bill to secure ample toleration to the catholic; or why was not the right of the catholic soldier to exercise his own religious worship secured by law, and their places of worship protected? The real object of the bill was, to give the catholics *political ascendancy.* If the barriers were once broken down, it would be too late to think of repairing the breach, when

the full flood of innovation had burst in upon us. He did not undervalue the oaths contained in the bill; but the catholics lived in too great a darkness and subjugation to their priests for much reliance to be placed upon them. Their clergy was daily increasing in this island; Jesuits, Benedictines, and Dominicans. It was well known that the two last orders were devoted to the pope, whose verbal commands were implicitly obeyed; while they, in their turn, expected the same obedience from the people. It was this very principle which made Locke as a philosopher, lord Somers as a statesman, and William III. as a sovereign, declare the catholic ecclesiastical polity incompatible with the safety of the state. We had seen it blaze forth lately in Spain; and surely it would not be a blaze concomitant of the British constitution. The main clause, however, which he should oppose, was that which went *to admit catholics into parliament:* he should move that it be struck out.

Mr. Whitbread said, that the right hon. gentleman so rarely delivered his opinion on public questions, that it must necessarily have great influence on the committee: he regretted, however, that when, some six years ago, a bill was brought in to open the army to the catholics, the house had not been favoured with his sentiments. He concluded an argumentative speech in favour of the bill.

Messrs. Ponsonby, Grattan, and lord Castlereagh, replied at great length to the arguments of the Speaker; and concluded by declaring, that, as the clause admitting the catholics to parliament was substantially the essence of the bill, if the former were rejected, the latter would be stripped of all those qualities from which the salutary effects of conciliating the catholic body were expected to flow.

The question was then clamorously called for, when the Speaker's amendment was carried by 251 to 247.—Mr. Ponsonby then moved, that the report be received this day three months; which being put and carried, the bill was altogether lost.

It was not without reason that Mr. Abbott had declared in his speech, that, had the above bill been approved and passed, it would have failed of conciliating Ireland, or being received as a boon by the catholics.—At a general meeting of the Roman-catholic prelates of Ireland, held May 27, 1813, the most reverend Richard O'Reilly, D.D. president; it was resolved unanimously, "That, having seriously examined the copy of the bill now in progress through parliament, purporting to provide for the removal of the civil and military disqualifications under which his majesty's Roman-catholic subjects labour, we feel ourselves bound to declare, that the ecclesiastical clauses or securities therein contained are utterly incompatible with the discipline of the Roman-catholic church, and with the free exercise of our religion; and that, without incurring the heavy guilt of schism, we cannot accede to such regulations; nor can we dissemble our dismay and consternation at the consequences which such regulations, if enforced, must necessarily produce." And, at a sitting of the catholic board at Dublin, on the 23d of October, notice was given of a motion, that a communication be had with Mr. Grattan, and a bill put into his hands, which will enable him definitely to say what form of emancipation would content the catholics of Ireland. But lord Donoughmore and Mr. Grattan have both since declined having any communication with the board upon the form or substance of any emancipation-bill.—We hope therefore to hear no more upon the subject.

The last measure of importance which we shall notice during the proceedings of this session, is the renewal of the East-India Company's charter, which was to expire in March 1814.—On the 12th of February, 1813, the earl of Hardwicke presented a petition from the officers employed in the naval service of the company; representing the hardships of their situation, should the charter not be renewed.—On the 19th of the same month, a petition was presented from the Society in Scotland for propagating



Christian Knowledge, soliciting, that, in the event of the renewal of the said charter, a clause should be reserved, permitting the society to send missionaries to propagate the gospel in that country.

On a petition from the city of London being presented to the house of lords (Mar. 16) in favour of the renewal, lord Grenville declared that he approved the views of ministers in throwing the trade open, and would support them.—The earl of Liverpool said the resolutions would be submitted to the other house in a few days by lord Castlereagh.

Accordingly, on the 22d of March, the house of commons having resolved itself into a committee on India-affairs, and to consider the petition for the renewal of the company's charter; lord Castlereagh, after acknowledging the very great ability of the company's civil servants, both in this country and in India, and discussing the various propositions, as he read them, for the future regulation of the company's affairs, concluded by submitting a series of resolutions, of which the following is the substance.

That it is expedient that all the privileges, authorities, and immunities, granted to the United Company of Merchants trading to the East Indies, by virtue of any act or acts of parliament now in force, and all rules, regulations, and clauses, affecting the same, shall continue and be in force for a future term of twenty years; except as far as the same may hereinafter be modified and repealed.

That the existing restraints respecting the commercial intercourse with China shall be continued, and that the exclusive trade in tea shall be preserved to the said company, during the period aforesaid.

That, subject to the provisions contained in the preceding resolution, it shall be lawful for any of his majesty's subjects to export any goods, wares, or merchandise, which can now or may hereafter be legally exported, *from any port in the united kingdom* to any port within the limits of the charter of the said company, as herein-after provided; and that all ships navigated according to law, proceeding from any port within the limits of the company's charter, and being provided with regular manifests from the last port of clearance, shall respectively be permitted to import any goods, wares, or merchandise, the product and manufacture of any countries within the said limits, *into any ports in the united kingdom* which may be provided with warehouses, together with wet docks or basins, or such other securities as shall, in the judgment of the commissioners of the treasury in Great Britain and Ireland respectively, be fit and proper for the deposit and safe custody of all such goods, wares, and merchandise, as well as for the collection of all duties payable thereon, and shall have been so declared by the orders of his majesty in council in Great Britain, or by the order of the lord-lieutenant in council in Ireland. Provided always, that copies of all such orders in council shall be laid before both houses of parliament in the session next ensuing.

Provided also, That no ship or vessel of less than 350 tons, registered measurement, shall be permitted to clear out from any port in the united kingdom, for any port or place within the limits aforesaid, or be admitted to entry in any port of the united kingdom from any place within those limits.

That no ship or vessel shall proceed to any place within the limits of the company's charter, without a license to be granted for that purpose; and that no ship or vessel clearing out from any port within the united kingdom, shall proceed to any port or place within the limits of the company's charter, and under the government of the said company, except to one of their principal settlements of Fort William, Fort St. George, Bombay, and Prince of Wales's Island; and that every ship so proceeding shall be furnished with a license for that purpose from the court of directors.

That nothing herein contained shall be construed to prevent any ship or vessel from proceeding to any place

upon the continent of Asia, between the river Indus and the nearest point to Prince of Wales's Island, and not one of the principal settlements under the special authority of the commissioners for the affairs of India; but that all applications for licenses to proceed to any such place shall be made to the court of directors, who, unless they shall have thought fit to grant the same, shall, within fourteen days from the date thereof, transmit the same to the board of commissioners for the affairs of India, with any representation which the said court may think proper to make upon the subject of such application; and that the said court, if directed so to do by the commissioners for India, shall issue their license or licenses accordingly.

That no ship or vessel clearing out from any port within the united kingdom, shall proceed to any port or place within the limits of the charter of the said company, and not being upon the continent of Asia, between the River Indus and the nearest point to Prince of Wales's Island, without a license from the commissioners for the affairs of India; and that the said commissioners shall from time to time make known the rules and regulations under which such licenses shall be granted; and that, in any case of such license being granted otherwise than under such rules and regulations, the special circumstances under which such license shall have been granted shall be recorded in the books of the office of the said commissioners;

That no ship shall be permitted to clear out from any port of the united kingdom for India, unless attested lists in duplicate shall have been delivered to the principal officer of the customs at the port of clearance, specifying the number and description of all persons embarked on-board of the said ship, and all arms laden therein; and that all persons proceeding upon such ships, shall, upon their arrival in India, be subject to all the existing regulations of the local governments, and to all other rules and regulations that may hereafter be established, with regard to the European subjects of his majesty resident in India.

That, upon any application made to the court of directors, by or on behalf of any person desirous of proceeding to India, the court of directors (unless they shall think fit to grant a license for that purpose) shall transmit every such application, within the term of one month from the delivery thereof, to the commissioners for the affairs of India; who, if they shall see no objection thereto, may, and they are hereby authorized to, direct, that such person or persons should, at the special charge of him or them, be permitted to proceed to India; and that any such person or persons, so desiring to proceed, shall be furnished with a certificate by the court of directors, according to such form as shall be prescribed by the said commissioners, signifying that such person or persons have so proceeded with the cognizance and under the sanction of the said court of directors; and that all such certificates shall be considered by the governments in India as entitling such persons, while they shall properly conduct themselves, to countenance and protection in their several pursuits; subject to all such provisions and restrictions as now are in force, or may hereafter be judged necessary, with regard to persons residing in India; provided always, that the said court shall be at liberty to offer such representations to the said commissioners, respecting persons so applying for permission to reside in India, as they may at any time think proper.

That no such ship, which shall have proceeded as aforesaid, shall be admitted to entry in any port of the united kingdom, without a regular manifest, duly certified, according to such regulations as may hereafter be enacted.

That no article manufactured of silk, hair, or cotton-wool, or any mixture thereof, shall be entered or taken out of any warehouse, except for exportation, unless the same shall have been brought into the port of London, and deposited in the warehouses of the said united company; and that all such articles shall by them be exposed to public sale by auction, in order to ascertain the duties payable thereupon;



thereupon; and in all other ports, as well as the port of London, such articles, when entered and taken out for exportation, shall be charged according to their value, under the regulations legally applicable in other cases to duties payable *ad valorem*.

That, on the return of every ship from India, lists of her crew, specifying the number and description of all persons embarked on-board the said ship, and all arms laden therein, shall be delivered to an officer of the customs at the first port at which she shall arrive, and shall be by him transmitted to the court of directors, according to and subject to such provisions as may be made with a view to the discovery of any British subject who may have gone to or remained in India contrary to law.—Provision was also to be made for the support and return of the lascars brought to Europe in private vessels.—There were also regulations as to the order of the application of the revenues of the company: 1. To the payment of the troops and support of the forts. 2. To liquidate debts on bills of exchange. 3. Other debts except bond-debts. 4. To pay a dividend of ten per cent. and a contingent half per cent. 5. To liquidate the bond-debts until they amount only to 3,000,000*l*. 6. The surplus profit to be divided in the ratio of 5-6ths to government and 1-6th to the company, with a provision for repaying the capital stock.—Regulations respecting the employment of India shipping.—Provision to enable the company to grant pensions and gratuities.—Provision for the appointment of different presidencies, and to render necessary the approbation of the crown.—Appointment of a bishop and three archdeacons, to be paid by the company.

Messrs. R. Thornton, Grant, and Gordon, spoke against the noble lord's propositions, as the height of injustice to the company.—Mr. Tierney thought it would be necessary to examine evidence at the bar; which was agreed to.

Warren Hastings, esq. was the first witness called on the part of the company; this was on the 30th of March. A chair was placed for the witness near the bar.—Mr. Hastings was examined both as to the probable effects of an unrestrained intercourse of Europeans with the natives of India, and as to the probability of extending the trade to that country. In his opinion, the unrestrained intercourse of Europeans with the natives would be ruinous to the company's interests, and to the peace of the country. The natives were naturally timid, but might be provoked to all the ferocities of insurrection, as it was not unlikely that, in such a case, the superiority which they now allow to Englishmen might then be converted to the purposes of tyranny and oppression over them. Any cause that would give them such provocation as to make them dissatisfied, would naturally tend to encourage the neighbouring natives to an invasion of our empire there. As to the trade, the mass of the people in India had no wants which could not be supplied at their own doors, and had no means of purchasing luxuries. The wealthier class of the Hindoos were also simple in their habits, and not accustomed to spend much of their superfluous wealth in the purchase of European luxuries. The habits of the nation had been nearly stationary from the time we first came into the country.—Mr. Hastings, after having finished his evidence, addressed the committee. He said, that, twenty years ago, he had written a letter to the company, and he then pointed out the dangers from an irruption of European adventurers. Being questioned as to the propriety of a church-establishment, he said it was a point of great difficulty and delicacy; much would depend on the temper and demeanour of the persons raised to the sacred office; but he could not help saying, that he wished some other time had been chosen for this experiment, as a surmise had gone abroad, that there was an intention of forcing our religion on the natives; an opinion which might tend to the greatest mischief, especially if propagated among the native infantry, who were the great defence of the empire.—Being asked, what he thought of missionaries being sent over to convert the natives of India

from their religion, by telling them Mahomet was an impostor, &c. and what would be the effect? he said, he thought any attempt to change the religion of the country by declaring Mahomet to be an impostor, might cause a religious war. There had been instances of Mahometan enthusiasts being very ferocious; and, in such a case, there was no knowing what might be the consequence. In answer to a question respecting the danger of admitting a great number of Europeans to resort to India, he thought there would be danger.

On the following day, Mr. Cowper was examined. He had been thirty years in India; and generally agreed in opinion with Mr. Hastings on the policy to be continued in India.—Lord Teignmouth, however, who was also examined, was of opinion that the attempt to convert the natives would not be attended with danger.

Colonel Sir John Malcolm was examined on the 5th of April. He said, that he had been in the military service of the company since the year 1783; and conceived that unrestrained intercourse would be mischievous and ruinous. He thought that, from the quietness of the Mahometans and Hindoos, they were satisfied with the British government. He did not think that, by throwing open the trade to India, the use of British manufactures would be much increased. He added, (April 7,) that the native population of Calcutta was about 500,000; and Bombay was not inferior to Calcutta. The Persians had no prejudices against the importation of European articles, except brandy and wine, which were forbidden; and the nobles were very fond of our fire-arms, if they could obtain them for nothing. Woollens had been imported into India. In regard to increasing the knowledge of the natives of India, it would certainly *add to the comforts* of their own situation; but, with respect to the *political interests* of the company, he thought it would be best to keep them as nearly as possible in their present state. The superior states of India had great means of rebellion in their power, and were not dependent on the British government. No doubt, the inhabitants would purchase British manufactures, if they were more wealthy. They could never rival us in the woollen manufacture, as they had no wool among them. He had observed that Europeans were fond of resorting to India, and the lower classes in particular, who, when once arrived there, showed no inclination to leave it again. Any great increase of Europeans in India would tend to lessen the respect in which the natives held the British character and government.

Gen. Kidd, Messrs. Young, Vanderheyden, Prendergast, and Halliburton, were examined on the day following. Their testimony was similar to that of preceding witnesses; that unrestrained intercourse would be dangerous; and that the consumption of British manufactures in India was not likely to be increased. Gen. Kidd, to show how strong the religious prejudices of the natives were, said, that two young dragoon-officers, having gone out to shoot, happened to pass by one of the Hindoo temples, where they saw several monkeys. Thinking them fair game, they began to fire upon them; but the consequence was, that they were so violently attacked by the priests of the temple (the monkeys being deemed holy) as to be obliged to throw themselves into the Ganges, with a view of swimming across; in which attempt both of them were unfortunately drowned.

Col. Monroe was examined on the 12th. He had been thirty-two years in India, and was particularly acquainted with the Malabar and Coromandel coasts. He was convinced that the natives were much attached to their own manners and religion, and that the permission to English traders to reside in the interior of India would be attended with mischievous consequences to the company. He thought the new-comers, from not knowing the customs of the country, would be liable to commit acts of violence against the prejudices of the natives, and would thereby create great discontents; which, though not amounting to insurrections, would certainly have the effect



fect of lessening the high character of the British in India; which, in his opinion, is the main pillar of our government there.

On the 18th of May, Mr. Wilberforce, in presenting a petition from the committee of the Baptist Missionary-Society, praying that no obstructions might be interposed to their endeavours to convert the Hindoos, took the opportunity of correcting a mistake which had gone abroad, respecting their intentions. It had been erroneously stated, that it was their object to propagate their own peculiar tenets, instead of the general faith of Christianity. This was a great misapprehension of their designs. No persons had, under the same disadvantages, rendered such essential service to the work in which they were engaged. Dr. Carey had made such incredible progress in the knowledge of the native languages of India, that he had been placed at the head of the college at Calcutta by lord Wellesley; and lord Minto had borne ample testimony to his merit, by saying, that his acquaintance with the tongues of Hindoostan exceeded that of sir W. Jones. He then passed an high eulogium on the members of the society, who had expended all their earnings on the great work which they had undertaken.—The petition was ordered to lie on the table.

On the 31st of May, the first resolution, which proposed the renewal of the company's charter for twenty years, was discussed. The principal speakers in its favour were Messrs. Grant, sen. and jun. (the very eloquent speech of the latter made a great impression), Bruce, Ponsby, Robinson, Gen. Gascoyne, and sir J. Newport. Messrs. Marryatt and Canning opposed its being renewed for so long a period. It was finally carried without a division.

The second resolution, for continuing the monopoly of the China-trade to the company, was discussed on the 1st of June. Messrs. Marryatt, Protheroe, G. Phillips, and Ponsby, strongly opposed it, as being founded on suppositions injurious to the character of the British traders, by imputing to them misconduct, imbecility, and incapacity. It was stated, but controverted by Messrs. Grant, that the China-trade being thrown open would cause a saving of one million and a half sterling annually, by the reduction in the price of tea. This resolution was carried without a division. The 3d resolution being complex, and containing thirteen articles, they were separately discussed, and afterwards agreed to.

The resolution respecting the extension of the India-trade to the outports was supported by Mr. Rickards, who stated that, since the adoption of the zemindary-system, the estates had been transferred from the landed proprietors to government, in payment of the arrears of taxes; and that the peasantry were oppressed by the impositions of an army of tax-gatherers. He conceived the trade capable of being greatly extended. Mr. R's speech was received by loud cheering.

Mr. Tierney spoke with great warmth against the proposed extension, as pregnant with danger; and was followed by the Messrs. Grant. The debate was then postponed till the 16th; when Mr. Baring proposed an amendment, that the shipments from India should be confined to the port of London alone.—This occasioned a lively discussion.

Mr. Canning contended, that, without a freedom of importing from India, the liberty of exporting would be of no advantage to the outports, and impose an intolerable fetter upon trade: this the company was fully aware of, and their object was to make the merchants renounce it at the expiration of four years. He likewise recommended that the resident-governors of India should not have the power of imposing arbitrary duties on the private merchants—they had recently imposed a duty of 8 per cent. upon all cotton exported by private merchants, while they themselves paid no duty whatever.—Viscount Castlereagh said, he would introduce a clause to prevent this abuse.—Mr. Baring's amendment was then negatived

by 131 to 43; and the original resolution for throwing open the trade to and from India to the outports was carried.

The other resolutions were successively carried, and sent up to the house of lords; where the earl of Buckinghamshire, on the 21st of June, explained the nature of them. No possible injury, he observed, could arise to the East-India company from the proposed extension of the trade, as it appeared that the trade of the Americans with India amounted, in 1806-7, to not less than 2,500,000*l.* which exceeded by 500,000*l.* the private trade by the merchants. By the proposed extension, our own merchants would be enabled to occupy the greater portion of this traffic. It was proposed to renew the company's charter for twenty years; but this did not preclude such alterations, during that period, as experience might suggest. It was not proposed to deprive the company of the exclusive trade to China, because it was not supposed that they would be able to meet the demands upon them unless they enjoyed the tea-trade. There were other reasons: it was not supposed the country would be so regularly supplied, or at so cheap a rate, as by the company. It was not intended to interfere with the government of India. To prevent the evils which might arise from an indiscriminate intercourse with the company's possessions in India, licenses and certificates were directed, without which individuals could not go there. A superintending church-establishment would be highly necessary, as there were 143,000 persons in India belonging to the church of England. If the company rejected the proposition made to them, he was confident that the appointments might be placed under that species of management as not to injure the principles of the constitution by increasing the influence of the crown.

The marquis of Lansdown said, that the resolutions were so complex, and involved such conflicting interests, as to require the utmost deliberation. After remarking on the leading resolutions, he declared that his radical objection to the plan was, that it appeared to be a system of compromise, which, while it retained the monopoly of the East-India company where it was most valuable, affected to hold out to the country the advantages of free trade. He feared that this promise was a fallacious one; and that, in a country governed by an arbitrary sovereign, and that arbitrary sovereign itself a trader, monopoly must either overturn the free trade, or that, in the struggle between both, the whole system might be endangered. Feeling that the future state of India would constitute either the shame or glory of the government and the legislature—the imperishable monument of their wisdom, or the melancholy memorial of their folly and precipitation—he should move, as an amendment, that the report be received this day three months.

Lord Grenville blamed the indecent hurry in which it was proposed to pass these resolutions. He did not attend the committee, because it was impossible to recollect the oral evidence; and sufficient time had not been afforded to look over the printed examinations; in short, there did not appear to be a single noble lord in that house who was at present sufficiently informed to discuss that momentous subject. He had understood that the territorial revenue of the company was raised by a most iniquitous and oppressive land-tax; he had, however, been able to obtain no information from the opposite bench on this and other topics; he should, if the motion for delay was negatived, withdraw himself from a decision to which he was not competent.—After a few words from the earls of Roslyn, Clancarty, and Liverpool, the amendment was negatived by 49 to 14.

The bill, as formed upon these resolutions, finally passed in the house of lords on the 20th of July; and received the royal assent, by commission, on the 21st.

On the 22d, soon after two o'clock, the prince-regent came in state to the house, for the purpose of proroguing the parliament with a speech from the throne. The ar-



rival of the prince in the royal chamber, adjoining the house of lords, was announced by a salute of twenty-one guns. The side-benches of the house were previously occupied by ladies of the first distinction. The Russian, Spanish, and Portuguese, ambassadors, were on the right of the throne; and a considerable number of peers and judges were also assembled in their robes. The prince then entered, and took his seat on the throne, having the great ministers of state on each side of him, with their different emblems of office. The prince was in military uniform.—The usher of the black rod then proceeded to summon the attendance of the house of commons, the members of which, with the Speaker at their head, soon after appeared at the bar; when the Speaker, rather unexpectedly, addressed the Prince Regent as follows:

“May it please your Royal Highness; We, his majesty’s most dutiful and loyal subjects, the commons of Great Britain and Ireland, in parliament assembled, have closed the supplies for the service of the present year; and, reflecting upon the various transactions which have come before us, we look back with satisfaction upon those which concern our domestic policy; entertaining also a confident hope in the prosperous issue of those great events which must regulate the settlement of our foreign relations.—Under the pressure of great burdens at home, and the still continuing necessity for great exertions, a plan has been devised and executed, which, by a judicious and skilful arrangement of our finances, will for a considerable period postpone or greatly mitigate the demands for new taxation, and at the same time *materially accelerate* the final extinction of the national debt.—Our reviving commerce also looks forward to those new fields of enterprise which are opening in the East; and, after long and laborious discussions, we presume to hope, that (in conformity with the injunctions delivered to us by your royal highness at the commencement of the present session) such prudent and adequate arrangements have been made for the future government of the British possessions in India, as will combine the greatest advantages of commerce and revenue, and provide also for the lasting prosperity and happiness of that vast and populous portion of the British empire.—But, sir, these are not the only subjects to which our attention has been called: other momentous changes have been proposed for our consideration. Adhering, however, to those laws by which the throne, the parliament, and the government, of this country, are made fundamentally protestant, we have not consented to allow, that those who acknowledge a foreign jurisdiction should be authorized to administer the powers and jurisdictions of this realm;—willing as we are, nevertheless, and willing as, I trust, we ever shall be, to allow the largest scope to religious toleration. With respect to the established church, following the munificent example of the last parliament, we have continued the same annual grant for improving the value of its smaller benefices; and we have at the same time endeavoured to provide more effectually for the general discharge of those sacred duties of a church-establishment, which, by forming the moral and religious character of a brave and intelligent people, have, under the blessing of God, laid the deep foundations of British greatness.—Sir, by your royal highness’s commands, we have also turned our views to the state of our foreign relations. In the north, we rejoice to see, by the treaties laid before us, that a strong barrier is erected against the inordinate ambition of France; and we presume to hope, that the time may now be arriving which shall set bounds to her remorseless spirit of conquest.—In our contest with America, it must always be remembered, that we have not been the aggressors. Slow to take up arms against those who should have been naturally our friends by the original ties of kindred, a common language, and (as might have been hoped) by a joint zeal in the cause of national liberty, we must, nevertheless, put forth our whole strength, and maintain with our ancient superiority

upon the ocean those maritime rights which we have resolved never to surrender.—But, sir, whatever doubts may cloud the rest of our views and hopes, it is to the peninsula that we look with sentiments of unquestionable delight and triumph; there the world has seen two gallant and independent nations rescued from the mortal grasp of fraud and tyranny by British councils and British valour; and, within the space of five short years from the dawn of our successes at Roleia and Vimiera, the same illustrious commander has received the tribute of our admiration and gratitude for the brilliant passage of the Douro—the hard-fought battle of Talavera—the day of Buçaco—the deliverance of Portugal—the mural crowns won at Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz—the splendid victory of Salamanca—and the decisive overthrow of the armies of France in their total rout at Vittoria; deeds which have made all Europe ring with his renown, and have covered the British name with a blaze of unrivalled glory.—Sir, that the cause of this country, and of the world, may not, at such a crisis, suffer from any want of zeal on our part to strengthen the hands of his majesty’s government, we have finished our supplies with a large and liberal aid, to enable your royal highness to take all such measures as the emergencies of public affairs may require, for disappointing or defeating the enterprises and designs of the enemy.—The bill which I have to present to your royal highness for this purpose, is entitled An Act for enabling his Majesty to raise the Sum of Five Millions for the Service of Great Britain, and for applying the Sum of 200,000*l.* for the Service of Ireland;—to which bill his majesty’s faithful commons, with all humility, intreat his majesty’s royal assent.”

The royal assent was given in the usual form to this bill; and also to another, for the regulation of penitentiary-houses.—The prince-regent then delivered his speech from the throne; after which the lord-chancellor declared the parliament to be prorogued.

The circumstance of the Speaker addressing the regent in a speech embracing so many topics, was thought very extraordinary at the time; and that must be our apology for inserting it, while we omit that of the regent. It was certainly almost unexampled; and very opposite opinions have been formed as to the prudence or the propriety of it. It was by some thought indecorous to anticipate the chief points of the regent’s speech; more so to contradict or differ from any of them, if indeed that can be called contradiction which is uttered first. In respect to Mr. Vansittart’s measure of taking some money from the sinking fund, the regent is made cautiously to say, “By the regulations you have adopted for the redemption of the national debt, you have established a system which *will not retard* its ultimate liquidation, whilst at the same time it provides for the vigorous prosecution of the war with the least practicable addition to the public burthens.” This indeed is quite as much as can possibly be affirmed: but we have seen that Mr. Abbott asserts, that this measure will “*materially accelerate* the final extinction of the national debt!”—For these and other reasons, but principally on account of the opinion expressed on the catholic question, notice was given by lord Morpeth, in the house of commons, of a motion upon the subject, which stands for this day, April 22, 1814.

We shall again avail ourselves of the recess of parliament to detail the events of the campaign.—If we anticipate, for a while, the transactions which have taken place during the course of this year, though we consider them at a distance, and as if still among the eventual possibilities of this sublunary world, we must fairly confess that they shake our very soul with astonishment. The northern empires, that had been awed by the dreadful visitation of the French eagles, and had suffered so materially from their rapacity, now saw them turn their destructive wings back again towards the west, seek for refuge in their native aires on the other side of the Rhine, and lie there dormant



dormant for security.—The olive of peace was fast sprouting in Europe, the greatest part of which loudly hailed the dawn of freedom, and the whole of the world was rejoicing at the pleasing and long-expected prospect of tranquillity. The work of blood seemed to have ceased for centuries to come, and the Russian and Prussian phalanxes had already hung up their spears and shields, and fought for repose under the laurels they had so dearly bought.—But these appearances were fallacious; the contest was still to be renewed. And now—though we still bear on the tablets of our memory the days of old, the battles of Marathon, the retreat of the ten thousand, and the Thermopyles—though we still hear the shock of armies at Cannæ, and in all parts of Italy—though fresh are still in our minds the victories of Charles XII. the tremendous conflicts under Louis XIV. and the never-to-be-forgotten achievements of the second Frederic—yet all these military wonders shrink into mere stage-fencing and boys-fights when compared with the convulsions which this year has witnessed. The number of men under arms, the high rank and ability of their leaders, the havoc which was the effect of their furious encounters, will be to posterity, as well as to the present generation, an object of surprise, of regret, and, we hope, a warning against ambitious pretensions, the end of which is the wanton destruction of our fellow-creatures.

After Bonaparte had quitted his army at the close of the preceding year, (see p. 299.) its retreat from the Beresina to the Niemen, and from the Niemen to the Vistula, was one continued scene of dismay, rout, and confusion. The Cofacs hovered continually in crowds on their rear, and were able, not indeed absolutely to stop their retreat, but to render it uniformly disastrous, and to cut off every thing which for a moment separated itself from the main body. Meantime the wings of the Russian army followed close on the flanks; and, by continually threatening to interpose between them and France, rendered it impossible to pause for a moment at any single point. Bonaparte had directed, that a stand, if possible, should be made for a few days at Wilna, the grand depot of the army, and filled with supplies of every kind. Could this have been effected, the troops would have breathed from their fatigues, and their order and efficiency would have been in some measure re-established. But scarcely had they, by a succession of prodigious marches through tracts nearly impassable, succeeded in reaching that important place, when they found themselves already almost surrounded by the Russian columns; and it was necessary to hurry on with the utmost celerity. The victorious Russians took possession of Wilna, in which they found 20,000 prisoners, a great proportion of whom were wounded, seven generals, with vast quantities of provisions, arms, and equipments, of every description. Without pausing, however, they continued their pursuit. One column, under Wittgenstein, went down the Niemen to cross at Tilsit; while another under Platoff pursued along the direct route through Kowno. The French had entrenched themselves strongly at this place; and they hoped, by defending the passage of the Niemen, to have obtained a short respite. Platoff, however, hesitated not a moment. He threw himself upon the frozen Niemen, and the whole body of his Cofacs were soon on the opposite bank. No choice was left to the enemy, but to fly or surrender. They hastily crossed the river in two columns; but were not able to avoid the attack of the Cofacs, who cut off considerable numbers. The pursuit was then continued, as before, with the daily capture of prisoners, cannon, baggage, and ammunition. The same scene continued uninterrupted till the two armies arrived on the Vistula.

According to official accounts published by the Russian government, the number of prisoners taken, from the battle of Borodino to the 26th of December, amounted to 170,000 men, of whom 1298 were officers and 41 generals. To this was added 1131 pieces of cannon. Europe

flood aghast at this estimate. Never, in her bloodiest wars, had she witnessed or heard of such a destruction. And indeed the immense armies which the great monarchs of Persia used to muster in order to enslave the Greek republics, never suffered such a loss. The account could not have obtained belief, had not that prodigious host been seen passing through into the Russian territory, and had not the wrecks of it been seen returning. This spectacle, with the diminished power of resistance which subsequent events exhibited, convinced the world, that what might otherwise have seemed a mere political artifice, was real and official truth.

After such disasters, after such losses, could it be expected that Napoleon could ever raise an army sufficiently strong to return and dare again the powers of the north? His genius however did not forsake him; nor did the resources of France appear to be exhausted. An army sprang at his command; and he soon headed his collected forces and those of his allies on the eastern side of the Rhine.—On the 14th of February, 1813, he appeared with great pomp at the fittings of the legislative body, and pronounced the following speech, which, as the sentiments it breathes relate directly to the events which took place afterwards, we shall present to our readers:

“Gentlemen Deputies from the Departments to the Legislative Body; The war again lighted in the north of Europe offered a favourable opportunity to the projects of the English upon the peninsula. They have made great efforts. All their hopes have been deceived. Their army was wrecked before the citadel of Burgos, and obliged, after having suffered great losses, to evacuate the Spanish territory.—I myself entered Russia. The French arms were constantly victorious in the fields of Ostrowno, Polotik, Mohilow, Smolensk, Moscow, Malairaslovitz. The Russian armies could not stand before our arms. *Moscow fell into our power.* Whilst the barriers of Russia were forced, and the impotency of her arms acknowledged, a swarm of Tartars turned their parricidal hands against the finest provinces of that vast empire which they had been called to defend. They, in a few weeks, notwithstanding the tears and despair of the unfortunate Muscovites, burned more than 4000 of their finest villages, more than 50 of their finest towns; thus gratifying their ancient hatred under the pretext of retarding our march, by surrounding us with a desert.—*We triumphed over all these obstacles.* Even the fire of Moscow, by which, in four days, they annihilated the fruits of the labours and cares of four generations, changed in no respect the prosperous state of my affairs. But the excessive and premature rigour of the winter brought down a heavy calamity upon my army. *In a few nights I saw every thing change.* I experienced great losses. They would have broken my heart, if, under such circumstances, I could have been accessible to any other sentiments than those of the interest, the glory, and the future prosperity, of my people. On seeing the evils which pressed upon us, the joy of England was great—her hopes had no bounds—she offered our finest provinces as the reward of treason—she made, as the conditions of peace, the dismemberment of this vast empire; it was, under other terms, to proclaim *perpetual war.* The energy of my people under these great circumstances; their attachment to the integrity of the empire; the love which they have shown me; have dissipated all these chimeras, and brought back our enemies to a more just consideration of things. The misfortunes produced by the rigour of hoar frosts, have made apparent, in all their extent, the grandeur and the solidity of this empire, founded upon the efforts and the love of fifty millions of citizens, and upon the territorial resources of one of the finest countries in the world. The agents of England propagate, among all our neighbours, the spirit of revolt against sovereigns; England wishes to see the whole continent become a prey to civil war and all the furies of anarchy; but Providence has designed her herself to be the first victim of anarchy and civil war. I have signed with the  
pope



pope a concordat, which terminates all the differences that unfortunately had arisen in the church. The French dynasty reigns, and will reign, in Spain. I am satisfied with all my allies. I will abandon none of them. I will maintain the integrity of their states. *The Russians shall return into their frightful climate.*—I desire peace; it is necessary to the world. Four years after the rupture which followed the treaty of Amiens, I proposed it in a solemn manner. I will never make but an honourable peace, and one conformable to the interests and grandeur of my empire. My policy is not mysterious; I have stated all the sacrifices I could make.—So long as this maritime war shall last, my people must hold themselves ready to make all kinds of sacrifices, because a had peace would make us lose every thing—even hope—and all would be compromised—even the prosperity of our descendants.—America has had recourse to arms, to make the sovereignty of her flag respected. The wishes of the world accompany her in this glorious contest. If she terminate it by obliging the enemies of the continent to acknowledge the principle that the flag covers the merchandise and crew, and that neutrals ought not to be subject to blockades upon paper, the whole conformable to the stipulations of the treaty of Utrecht, America will have credit from all nations: posterity will say, that the old world had lost its rights, and that the new one re-conquered them.—My minister of the interior will explain to you in the exposé of the situation of the empire, the prosperous state of agriculture, manufactures, and of our interior commerce, as well as the still-constant increase of our population. In no age have agriculture and manufactures been carried to a higher degree of prosperity in France.—I want great resources to meet the expenses which circumstances demand; but, by means of the different measures which my minister of finances will propose to you, I shall *not impose any new burthen on my people.*”

One of the principal cares which Bonaparte took before again leaving the French territory was to provide against any shock from the possible event of his death, by a formal legislative provision for a regency, in the empress-mother, during the minority of the king of Rome; and, to make this arrangement as imposing as possible, the empress and her son were to be crowned by the pope. To obtain this last influence, he had an interview with the detained pontiff at Fontainebleau, and a *concordat* was mutually signed, which arranged all the differences between the pope and emperor, and obtained for the Gallic church the sanction of the successor of St. Peter.

If we turn our attention towards Russia, we shall find that the emperor was not remiss in preparing himself to visit the French with the same calamities they had inflicted upon his people; and to that purpose he issued two proclamations through the organ of prince Koutousoff-Smolensko: both are spirited, and breathe revenge against the tyrant of France; and are full of assurances that the intention of the emperor is not to make conquests, but most certainly to effect, in a solid and lasting manner, the deliverance and enfranchisement of Germany. He says: “At the moment of my ordering the armies under my command to pass the Prussian frontier, the emperor, my master, directs me to declare, that this step is to be considered in no other light than as the inevitable consequence of the military operations. Faithful to the principles which have actuated his conduct at all times, his imperial majesty is guided by no view of conquest. The sentiments of moderation which have ever characterized his policy are still the same, after the decisive successes with which Divine Providence has blessed his legitimate efforts. Peace and independence shall be their result. These his majesty offers, together with his assistance, to every people, who, being at present obliged to oppose him, shall abandon the cause of Napoleon, in order to follow that of their real interest. I invite them to take advantage of the fortunate opening which the Russian armies have produced, and to unite themselves with them in the pursuit of an

enemy whose precipitate flight has discovered his loss of power. *It is to Prussia in particular that this invitation is addressed.* It is the intention of his imperial majesty to put an end to the calamities by which he is oppressed, to demonstrate to her king the friendship which he preserves for him, and to restore to the monarchy of Frederic its éclat and its extent. He hopes that his Prussian majesty, animated by sentiments which this frank declaration ought to produce, will, under such circumstances, take that part alone which the wishes of his people and the interests of his states demand. Under this conviction, the emperor, my master, has sent me the most positive orders to avoid every thing that could betray a spirit of hostility between the two powers; and to endeavour, within the Prussian provinces, to soften, as far as a state of war will permit, the evils which, for a short time, must result from their occupation.”

The other, which seems more directly to issue from the emperor himself, runs as follows: “When the emperor of all the Russias was compelled, by a war of aggression, to take arms for the defence of his states, his imperial majesty, from the accuracy of his combinations, was enabled to form an estimate of the important results which that war might produce with respect to the independence of Europe. The most heroic constancy, the greatest sacrifices, have led to a series of triumphs; and when the commander-in-chief, prince Koutousoff-Smolensko, led his victorious troops beyond the Niemen, the same principles still continued to animate the sovereign. At no period has Russia been accustomed to practise that art (too much resorted to in modern wars,) of exaggerating by false statements the success of her arms. But, with whatever modesty her details might now be penned, they would appear incredible. Ocular witnesses are necessary to prove the facts to France, to Germany, and to Italy, before the slow progress of truth will fill those countries with mourning and consternation. Indeed it is difficult to conceive that, in a campaign of only four months duration, 130,000 prisoners should have been taken from the enemy, besides 900 pieces of cannon, 49 stand of colours, and all the wagon-train and baggage of the army. A list of the names of all the generals taken is hereunto annexed: it will be easy to form an estimate from that list of the number of superior and subaltern officers taken. It is sufficient to say, that out of 300,000 men (exclusive of Austrians), who penetrated into the heart of Russia, not 30,000 of them, even if they should be favoured by fortune, will ever revisit their country. The manner in which the emperor Napoleon repassed the Russian frontiers can assuredly be no longer a secret to Europe. So much glory, and so many advantages, cannot, however, change the personal dispositions of his majesty the emperor of all the Russias: The grand principles of the independence of Europe have always formed the basis of his policy; for that policy is fixed in his heart. It is beneath his character to permit any endeavours to be made to induce the *people* to resist the oppression and to throw off the yoke which has weighed them down for twenty years. It is their *governments* whose eyes ought to be opened by the actual situation of France. Ages may elapse before an opportunity equally favourable again presents itself; and it would be an abuse of the goodness of Providence not to take advantage of this crisis to re-construct the great work of the equilibrium of Europe, and thereby to insure public tranquillity and individual happiness.” Here follows the list of generals taken, amounting to 43.

Besides these bold expressions of his intentions and plans, the emperor Alexander issued the following address to his troops before he left Wilna:—“Soldiers! Your valour and perseverance have been rewarded by a renown which will never die. Among posterity your names and deeds will pass from mouth to mouth, from your sons to your grand-children and great-grand-children, to the latest posterity.—Praise be to the Most High! The hand of the Lord is with us, and will not forsake us. *Already there remains not a single*



a single enemy on the face of our country. You have reached the borders of the empire over their dead bodies and bones. It still remains for you to go forward over the same; not to make conquests, or to carry the war into the countries of our neighbours, but to obtain a wished-for and solid peace. You go to procure rest for yourselves, and freedom and independence for them. May they become our friends!"

The occupation of Warfaw, Pillau, Thorn, Liebau, Posen, Berlin, and Dresden, by the Russians, quickly followed; and the evacuation of Hamburg and Bremen, by the French, was a consequence of the movements of the Russian army. The spirit of patriotism was not long in bursting out in the states of Baden, Wirtemberg, and Bavaria; and the peasantry of Hanover took arms, and rose *en masse* against their oppressors. A body of Cossacs had been pushed as far as Wittenberg on the Elbe, about half way between Magdeburg and Dresden, as early as the 25th of February; in consequence the king of Saxony fled to Plauen, about 120 miles from his capital, having dispatched his family about seventy miles further, to Bayreuth. In a proclamation, dated Dresden, February 26, the king of Saxony states the necessity, under existing circumstances, of his quitting his metropolis; relying on the assistance of his great ally, and the fidelity of his subjects, for soon returning again.

At this time, Bonaparte in his exposé declares, that fresh troops were going to the Oder "to set bounds to the system of Russian invasion." It is to be observed, that the Oder was now the acknowledged bound of the French hopes of defence; and the entrenched camp at Runersdorf was declared to be the point of assemblage for a new grand army. Meanwhile Dantzic, Warfaw, Thorn, and indeed all the fortresses beyond the Oder, were left to their fate. The former was closely invested, and all communications cut off by the cordon which Platoff had drawn round it; and St. Cyr had in vain attempted to re-open the communication.

From Ligne, where the head-quarters of the Russians were on the 19th of January, they had been moved by the 26th nearly 120 miles to Wittenberg, by which means they had got into the rear of the Austrian position at Pultouk. In the mean time the Austrians were gradually retiring before general Miloradovitch; Regnier retired to Posen, to take the place of Davoust, who had marched to Stettin, on the side of Dantzic. On the 7th of February, major-general count Woronzow continued his march to Posen with his detachment; whilst admiral Tchichagoff's corps invested the fortresses of Thorn on all sides. Everywhere the inhabitants of towns and villages were receiving the victorious Russian troops with joy, and as deliverers. Prince Schwartzberg's corps was, by their motions, forced to retreat; and, on the 8th of February, general Miloradovitch entered the city of Warfaw. On the 6th of the same month, general count von Sierres arrived, with about 6000 men, and a proportionable quantity of artillery, in the village of Old Pillau, within two thousand paces of the fortresses. The general soon sent a summons for the surrender of the citadel, and the Nehrung fort, to the commandant of the French garrison. A convention was the consequence, and the French troops quitted the town and fortresses of Pillau on the 8th of February. The garrison consisted of about 1200 men; and the number of their sick left behind amounted to 400.

We must remember that, at the latter end of January, the king of Prussia had retired to Breslaw, and called upon his subjects to arm in support of their king and country. This patriotic call was heard through Prussia, it resounded in all parts of the kingdom, it was echoed by every heart; men and women, young and old, manifested the warmest enthusiasm; and all who were able to bear arms presented themselves for enrolment as volunteers. Mortified and enraged at this, the commander of the French armies, Beauharnois, who had sought refuge in Berlin, forbade the recruiting enjoined by the royal Prussian decree.

The Russians meanwhile were advancing victoriously through Poland. The Austrians concluded an unlimited truce, in virtue of which they withdrew into Galicia; and the Saxons under Regnier profited by this circumstance to retire behind the Austrians towards their own country.—On the evening of the 13th of February, general Winzingerode came up with and engaged general Regnier at Kabitsch. In this affair, two Saxon standards, seven pieces of cannon, the Saxon general Nostitz, three colonels, thirty-six officers, and 2000 privates, were the trophies of the day.

In this state of things, the king of Prussia offered himself as a mediator between the chief belligerents. On the 15th of February, he proposed a truce, on condition that the Russian troops should retire behind the Vistula, and the French troops behind the Elbe, leaving Prussia and all its fortresses free from foreign occupation. Though exceedingly favourable to the beaten army, they were fully rejected by Bonaparte; whilst, on the other side, the emperor Alexander testified sentiments of such liberality towards the Prussian monarchy and nation, as laid the basis of the union which has since produced such happy consequences. On the 22d of the same month, the emperor of Russia and the king of Prussia consented mutually to a treaty of peace and alliance, offensive and defensive; and an active combined system of military operations was arranged.

On the night of the 3d of March, the French quitted Berlin; Tchernicheff, the Russian general, arrived in that city at five o'clock in the morning, and on the 11th, count Witgenstein made his public entry into the same capital. On the 18th following, baron Tettenborn entered Hamburg amidst the acclamations of the citizens. In consequence of this happy event, the ancient government was restored. The king of Prussia now placed Lieut.-gen. d'York and his corps d'armée under the direction of count Witgenstein. The latter immediately issued the order of the day to the royal Prussian corps under the command of Gen. d'York.

The 5th of March witnessed the solemn entry of the emperor Alexander into Breslaw, having been met, at six miles distance, by the king and royal family of Prussia, and the nobles from every part in the country. A word has sometimes proved of greater effect than speeches, proclamations, and even force of arms. When it is said *à propos*, and when it is likely to be fully understood and deeply felt—a word will operate a revolution. "Ye were Germans," said count Witgenstein, in one of his addresses to the Prussians; "but you have been forced to become Frenchmen."—This reproach flashed like lightning into the mind and heart of every one. Throughout Germany the cutting sarcasm produced its effect; patriotism and revenge superseded all other considerations, and the greatest sacrifices were made suddenly and cheerfully on the altar of the country.

General Witgenstein having made his dispositions on the left bank of the Elbe, the three flying corps, the first under the command of general Dornberg, the second under Tchernicheff, and the third under Tettenborn, were to pass the Elbe between Hamburg and Magdeburg. This being effected, the generals were informed that Morand, with a corps of upwards of 3000 infantry, 11 cannon, and 300 cavalry, was pressing forward to Luneberg, to punish the inhabitants who had dared to take up arms. But the arrival of the generals defeated the intention of the French; and they entered the town twelve hours after the enemy had occupied it. After a brave and obstinate resistance, the French, seeing no possibility of escape, laid down their arms at all points. Morand, commander of the corps and general of division, was severely wounded and taken prisoner. In the whole, the Russians took 100 officers, and 2200 privates.

The garrison of Thorn surrendered to the Russians on the 16th of April. It consisted of 400 Poles, 3500 Bavarians and 90 Frenchmen, besides 200 pieces of cannon.



Nearly the whole of the Bavarians and Poles afterwards enlisted under the victorious standard.

Meantime Bonaparte, whose prudence in defeat was often as great as his moderation in victory, vigorously exerted himself to repair the incalculable losses he had sustained. The disposable army which he now secured for his future schemes, amounted to 400,000 men to be employed on the Elbe, 200,000 for services in Spain, and 200,000 partly on the Rhine, partly in Holland, the Low Countries, and in Italy. It is wonderful to observe how much the zeal, activity, and perseverance, of this man achieved in a few weeks. He really astonished the whole of Germany, nay, all Europe, with the wonders he performed in so short a space of time. It certainly shows what great talents and energy of mind he has received from his Creator, and how guilty he has been in using those gifts for the destruction of his fellow-creatures; but his ambition was above his good qualities, and made him the scourge of Europe.

We must consider now the different French corps marching towards Jena, for the commencement of the campaign. The plan of operations being fully determined on, Bonaparte quitted Paris, and arrived at Mentz on the 20th of April; on the 25th at Erfurth; and on the 29th he moved his head-quarters to Naumburg. His proceedings, however, were marked with the greatest degree of caution. The gallant veteran, prince Koutousoff-Smolensko, was left ill on the march at Buntzlaw, where he died; and the letter addressed to his widow by the benignant and feeling heart of the emperor of Russia is one of the best proofs of the warmth of his affections and the purity of his mind. General Wittgenstein was appointed to the chief command of the Russian army.

The movements of Bonaparte announced his immediate intention to act on the offensive; and therefore the combined Russian and Prussian armies united between Leipzig and Altenburg, a central and advantageous position. They endeavoured, it seems, to be beforehand with him in occupying the plains of Lutzen, a spot which is celebrated by the fall of Gustavus Adolphus, and to which perhaps they had directed their choice on that very account, in imitation of Bonaparte himself, who, in his knowledge of human nature, always endeavoured to take advantage of every thing in the shape of an omen against his enemy. He prevented them, however, and seized the favourable ground himself; and here the battle began on the 2d of May. The accounts are various. That given by the French is by far the most favourable, being dated from the field of battle, and laying claim to a decided victory. The report published at Berlin, on the contrary, by the military government, is dated from Pegau, a village about fifteen miles distant from the field of battle, the day after the action; and only asserts that a most sanguinary conflict had taken place, in which the allies had occasionally had the advantage, and which only ceased when night rendered it impossible to fight any longer; that both armies remained on the field, and the French made some attacks the next morning, which were repelled by cannonading, but followed by a retrograde movement on the part of the allies; who, in order to take rest and refreshment, retired to Borna and Rochlitz, whence they expected to break up immediately to resume offensive operations. The loss of the Russian and Prussian troops is acknowledged "very great; not overrated at 8 or 10,000 men in killed and wounded." The prince of Hesse-Homburg was amongst the former; and generals Blucher, Scharnhoff, and Hunerbein, on the side of the Prussians, and generals Karowinzen and Alexief, on that of the Russians, with an unusual number of officers, are among the latter. The loss of the French is considered double or treble their own; but only 1000 prisoners, with 10 pieces of cannon, and 23 powder-waggons, had been taken during the action; and in an affair at Halle, from whence the French had been dislodged; "the animosity in the fight being too great to give much quarter."

We shall now consider the Russian account, which, though it only appeared in the Hamburg Correspondent, seems entitled, from the manner in which it is written, and the details which it presents, not only of movements, but of the intentions that gave them birth, to be considered an official document. It was published under the unassuming title of "Particular Statement of the Battle at Gros-Gorchen, on the 2d of May;" and states, that the arrival of Napoleon, and the junction of his army with that of the viceroy at Naumburg, as well as their passing the Saale in force, being known at general Wittgenstein's head-quarters, he resolved to anticipate him, and by a bold attack "to obstruct him in his dispositions, and to restrain his offensive operations." The emperor Alexander and the king of Prussia repaired to the army, to animate their troops by their presence; and on the 1st of May a reconnoissance made by general Winzingerode, brought on "a very severe engagement," which confirmed the intelligence of the main force of the enemy being in the vicinity of Weissenfels and Lutzen. The allies then resolved "to fall on such part of his force as was, on his side, considered to be his best troops; in order, after such a stroke, to give larger space for the operations of the flying corps, over whom the enemy had latterly acquired a superiority." The intentions of the allies, in attacking Napoleon, are therefore clearly given. They were, "to obstruct his dispositions," reduce him to the defensive, and enable the Russian and Prussian flying corps to harass him on a greater variety of points." How far they were realized, necessarily gives us the measure of their success, or of their failure. The Russian account then describes the action as most obstinately contested. Some of the villages in which the French received the attack, were several times taken and re-taken; and for several hours both parties fought at the distance of only one hundred paces, with alternate advantage. At last, about seven o'clock in the evening, the French brought a new corps on the right of the allies, and the Russian reserve was advanced to sustain the shock. "The most desperate engagement was now continued till night came on, and put an end to the battle." Both armies, it would appear, according to the report, slept on the field; the allies still occupying the villages which they had stormed, and the French in possession of Leipzig, which they had taken during the action. The rest is involved in obscurity. The allies, we are told, manœuvred in consequence of the enemy being at Leipzig; but afterwards learnt that he had quitted it, (which does not seem to have been the case,) as well as Halle; that he had lost 15,000 killed and wounded, and that many of his cannon were dismounted, and a number of his powder-waggons blown up—then, that their light detachments were again at liberty to harass him, and to prosecute the advantage gained; that they consequently kept the field of battle; and that the victory was theirs, and their intended purpose accomplished. "The enemy was to be attacked the following morning, the 3d of May;" but no reason is given why that attack was not made, or why the allies retreated, instead of prosecuting the advantage gained, especially as the corps of Miloradovitch is stated to have arrived at the close of the action, and 50,000 of their best troops not to have been engaged. The French papers supply this chasm; and inform us, that Napoleon, after some trifling actions with the rear of the allies, entered Dresden on the 8th at noon.

It is acknowledged by every one, that, in the battle of Lutzen, Bonaparte had the greatest number of men; the allies were superior in cavalry; in artillery both sides were equal. The advantages of a doubtful contest must be judged of by the consequences that ensue. Thus Bonaparte took and kept possession of Leipzig, and gained possession of Dresden, the king of Saxony as yet proving faithful.—On the 3d of May, Napoleon addressed the following proclamation to his army: "Soldiers! I am satisfied with you. You have fulfilled my expectations. You have supplied every thing by your good will, and by your va-

lour.



four. On the memorable 2d of May, you defeated and routed the Russian and Prussian army, commanded by the emperor Alexander and the king of Prussia. You have added new lustre to the glory of my eagles. You have displayed all that the French blood is capable of. The battle of Lutzen will be placed above those of Austerlitz, Jena, Friedland, and the Moskwa. In the last campaign, the enemy found no refuge against our arms, but by following the ferocious course of his barbarous ancestors. Armies of Tartars laid waste his fields—his cities—sacred Moscow itself. They are now arrived in our regions, preceded by all the bad subjects and deserters of Germany, France, and Italy, for the purpose of preaching up revolt, anarchy, civil war, and murder. They became the apostles of every crime. They wished to light up a moral conflagration between the Vistula and the Rhine, in order, according to the usage of despotic governments, to place deserts between us and them. Madmen! They little know the attachment of Germany to their sovereigns—their wisdom, their orderly disposition, and their good sense. They little know the power and bravery of the French. In a single battle, you have counteracted all those parricidal plots. *We will drive back these Tartars into their frightful regions, which they ought never to have left.* There let them remain, amidst their frozen deserts—the abodes of slavery, of barbarism, and of corruption, where man is debased to an equality with the brute. You have deserved well of civilized Europe. Soldiers—Italy, France, Germany, return you thanks. From our Imperial Camp of Lutzen, May 3, 1813. NAPOLEON.”

The empress queen and regent sent to each bishop the following letter:—“M. Bishop of ———; The victory gained on the field of Lutzen, by his majesty the emperor and king, our very dear husband and sovereign, can only be considered as a special act of divine protection. We desire, that on receiving this letter you cause *Te Deum* to be sung, and return thanks to the God of hosts, and that you will thereto add such prayers as you shall judge most suitable for drawing down the Divine Protection on our arms, and especially for the preservation of the sacred person of the emperor and king, our very dear husband and sovereign. May God preserve him from all danger! His safety is as necessary to the happiness of the empire as to the welfare of Europe, and to religion, which he has raised up, and which he is called to re-establish. He is the most sincere and faithful protector of it. This letter having no other object, we pray God to have you in his holy keeping. Given at our Imperial Palace at St. Cloud, this 11th May, 1813. MARIA LOUISA.”

Bonaparte made his entry into Dresden on the 8th of May.—The king of Saxony, while the arms of the allies continued to prosper, had shown some disposition to espouse their cause. Instead of remaining in Franconia, he had repaired to Prague, where he might be ready to act according to circumstances. But, seeing Napoleon again master of Saxony, and the star of his fortune again on the ascendant, he determined upon adhering to that alliance. He repaired therefore to Dresden as soon as he understood that the French had entered that capital. Suspicious as his late conduct had been, it was no time to show any consciousness of it; and Napoleon received him with the most complete outward cordiality. Orders were instantly sent to the Saxons shut up in Torgau to rejoin the French standard; and the mandate was immediately obeyed. Bonaparte thus obtained at once a considerable accession to his force, and the means of passing the Elbe without difficulty, under cover of the fortrefs of Torgau. The allies, finding it vain to attempt defending the passage of the Elbe, determined upon falling back to a strong position behind it. They had now to determine as to their line of retreat. They fixed it not upon Berlin, to cover that capital, but in the remotest possible direction from it; through Lusatia, close to the Bohemian frontier. An advantageous position was chosen near Bautzen, in the intention, should that be forced, of falling back upon

Silesia. At the same time, lest mere flying corps of the enemy should penetrate to Berlin, that capital was covered by general Bulow, with a corps, partly of regulars, and partly of the newly-raised *landwehr* and militia. Bonaparte, arrived at Dresden, was not long before he pushed detachments across the Elbe. He sent them in different directions, with the view of deceiving the enemy as to the real point of attack. While several corps stationed themselves in front of Bautzen, that of Ney moved upon Hörsferwerda; and Victor, Sebastiani, and Bertrand, marched still farther north in the direction of Berlin. Suddenly, however, all these corps changed their line of march, and moved towards Bautzen as a common centre. This was according to his usual system, in order to turn his collected force against that point where the main strength of the enemy lay. Accordingly, he so far succeeded, that Bulow, with the corps which covered Berlin, was completely thrown out, and did not co-operate in the battles which immediately followed, and which lasted from the 19th to the 22d of May. The battle of Bautzen occupied two of these days, the 20th and 21st.

The greater part of the allied army was placed in a very advantageous position. The left rested on the mountains which separate Lusatia from Bohemia; the right on some commanding heights near Kreckwitz; while the centre occupied ground favourable to the action of cavalry, in which the allies were superior. But, beyond the left, there was an extent of flat and woody country, intersected with roads, leading to the territory in the rear of the allies. Here the corps of general Barclay de Tolly manœuvred, not forming properly part of the line, but merely guarding against attempts on the flank and rear of the army. Bonaparte made his first demonstration against the left of the allies, posted among the mountains, which were favourable to the action of his infantry. The contest was continued for some time with warmth, but without his being able to make any impression. It soon appeared, however, that this was merely a feint to cover his main object, which was to act against the right of the position. General Barclay de Tolly, who, as just mentioned, held the open ground to the extreme right, was attacked by an overwhelming force, and driven in upon the main body. Bonaparte thus became master of the tract which that general had occupied, and which was full of passages leading to the rear of the allied army; and he lost not a moment in availing himself of so important an advantage. Generals Blucher and d'York made a desperate attack upon the flank of the French advancing corps; and succeeded, for some time, in arresting its progress. But it soon appeared that the odds were here immense; and, as all the other parts of the line were also pressed by superior numbers, there was no possibility of drawing from them any aid. There were thus no means of preventing their left from advancing upon the rear of the allies, and cutting them off from the roads leading to Silesia and the Bober. It was determined therefore to retreat upon Hachkirch; a movement which was effected without loss of any attempt at molestation.

The battle of Bautzen was one of the most desperate and sanguinary, even of that dreadful succession which Europe has witnessed. The French stated their loss at 11 or 12,000 men; a greater number than they had admitted, even at Borodino. Bonaparte says, “he could take no colours, because the allies always carry them off the field of battle! and he only took nineteen cannon, because he wished to spare his cavalry.” These reasons, so curious, and at the same time so unusual in a French account of a battle, evidently show that the victory in itself was of little value. It is remarkable also, that he does not estimate the loss of the allies, or state his having taken any prisoners, except wounded. The number of the wounded of the allied force is said in a vague manner to be about 18,000 men, of whom 10,000 were prisoners. The rest, he admits, had been carried off by the allied army in carriages. It is clear, therefore, that he was unable to pursue,



sue, and that the allies retreated at leisure and in good order.—On the 22d an affair took place at Reitzenbach, in which the allies were defeated.

There was a sort of theatrical display of Bonaparte's sensibility on the occasion of this tremendous waste of human blood, perhaps intended to divert the attention of the French public from his sanguinary ambition. Among those who were mortally wounded, was Duroc, the son of a scrivener, and for many years a fervile attendant on Bonaparte, who, in return, had created him duke of Friuli. To this person, in his last moments, Bonaparte paid a consolatory visit; and the poor dying wretch is described as carrying his adulation and fervility to the very borders of the grave. The scene, however, was too much for the tender nerves of Bonaparte; and he, who could behold unmoved the wanton destruction of so many thousands of his fellow-creatures, for no other object but to gratify his lust of power, is overcome by his feelings, and retires to his tent to indulge the luxury of grief alone.—Our readers shall have it in the language of the *Moniteur*. “As soon as the posts were placed, and the army had taken its bivouagues, the emperor went to see the duke of Friuli. He found him perfectly master of himself, and showing the greatest *sang-froid*. The duke offered his hand to the emperor, who pressed it to his lips.—‘My whole life,’ said he to him, ‘has been consecrated to your service; nor do I regret its loss, but for the use it still might have been of to you!’—‘Duroc!’ replied the emperor, ‘there is a life to come; it is there you are going to wait for me, and where we shall one day meet again!’—‘Yes, sire! but that will not be yet these thirty years, when you will have triumphed over your enemies, and realized all the hopes of our country.—I have lived an honest man—I have nothing to reproach myself with—I leave a daughter behind me—Your majesty will fill the place of a father to her!’—The emperor, grasping the right hand of the great marshal, remained for a quarter of an hour with his head declined on his right hand in deep silence. The marshal was the first who broke this silence: ‘Ah! sire,’ cried he, ‘go away; this sight gives you pain!’ The emperor, supporting himself on the duke of Dalmatia and the grand master of the horse, quitted the duke of Friuli, without being able to say any more than these words: ‘Farewell then, my friend!’ His majesty returned to his tent, nor would he receive any person the whole of that night.”

Bonaparte, in a decree dated from the field of battle, at Wurtzchen, the 22d of May, directed a monument to be erected upon mount Cenis. On the front of the monument, looking towards Paris, are to be inscribed the names of all the cantons or departments on this side the Alps. Upon the front, looking towards Milan, to be engraved the names of all the cantons or departments beyond the Alps, and of the kingdom of Italy. On the most conspicuous part of the monument the following inscription is to be engraved: “The emperor Napoleon, upon the field of battle of Wurtzchen, ordered the erection of this monument, as a proof of his gratitude to his people of France and Italy; and to transmit to the most distant posterity the remembrance of that celebrated epoch, when, in three months, 1,200,000 men ran to arms, to insure the integrity of the empire and of his allies.”

The battles of Bautzen and Wurtzchen, immediately followed by the abandonment of the capital and one half of Silesia, led to an armistice between the belligerents. It was most favourable to the French, whom it left in possession of all the country they had occupied; compelled the detached Prussian and Russian corps that acted in their rear and intercepted their convoys to recross the Elbe; and stipulated, that all the fortresses which they still held on the Lower Oder, the Vistula, and in the duchy of Warsaw, and which had been long blockaded, should be re-visited every five days by the allies, and a league of territory evacuated round each of them. In most campaigns, an armistice extends only to the two armies between which it was concluded; while distant and inde-

pendent corps are left free to act as their respective situations allowed: the present suspension of hostilities, on the contrary, was general; and the Swedes had no sooner reached the scene of action, than all their force was paralyzed without a blow, at a time, too, when, uniting with the Prussian division, which under Bulow had had a severe engagement with Oudinot at Hoyeswerda, and with the troops under Tettenborn and Woronzow on the Elbe, they might have formed an accumulation of force in the rear of the enemy sufficient to seriously impede his further advance, if not to compel him to retreat. Besides, two new fortresses were ordered to be immediately erected on the banks of the Elbe between Magdeburg and Hamburg, the latter city to be turned into a *place d'armes*, and the communication with Harburg secured by fortifications on the islands. The armistice, which was signed on the 4th of June, was to last to the 20th of July, six days notice being given of the renewal of hostilities; and Breslau, with a tongue of territory extending from Bohemia to the Oder, was to remain neutral between the two armies.

Napoleon removed his head-quarters to Dresden, from whence he might equally attend to the negotiations for peace and his preparations for renewed hostilities. He encamped his different corps at a short distance from each other along the line of demarcation, and fully provisioned Glogau. The emperor of Austria had quitted his capital for Prague, it was supposed to preside over the congress, which it was agreed should be held there for concluding a general peace.

This short campaign had been fought with peculiar military address. Prussia lay to the right of the allies, and the left of the French. Napoleon therefore constantly presented great strength on his left, and made a point of turning the right of the allies. He turned their right at Lutzen upon Altenburgh and Dresden. His main force crossed the Elbe on his left, at Torgau, bearing on the right of the allies. Again, at Bautzen, half his army, by that circuit, was enabled to attack the right flank of the allies, and to bear irresistibly on that wing. Hence the allies, in retreating across Silesia, were continually turned on their right, so that they were compelled finally to direct their course into the southern corner of Silesia, a mere *cul de sac*, leaving the road to Breslau, &c. open to the French, who, on the 1st of June, occupied that city. Thus was the emperor of Russia cut off from all direct communication with Prussia, and the king of Prussia from all direct connection with Prussia, from the 26th of May till the 4th of June, when the armistice was settled.

The north of Germany had been distinguished by occurrences of no inconsiderable interest, which we can now relate, without breaking the thread of the narration. To understand them, however, reference must be made to a transaction which took place at a period long anterior. In the month of August, 1812, the emperor Alexander and the crown-prince of Sweden met at Abo in Finland; and, after considerable discussion, concluded a treaty of alliance and co-operation. The leading articles, besides promises of mutual assistance, were those by which Sweden confirmed to Russia the possession of Finland, (which she had violently seized upon in 1808, the year after her protest against our seizing upon the Danish fleet,) on condition of procuring for her an accession of territory in another quarter. This was to be effected by requiring from Denmark the cession of Norway, for which that power was to be indemnified by countries hereafter to be conquered for her in the north of Germany. Should Denmark, as might be expected, refuse, Bernadotte was to be aided in accomplishing the conquest of Norway by 35,000 Russian troops; and this operation was to be effected prior to any co-operation from him in the continental war.

No consideration of the signal services lately rendered by the emperor Alexander to the common cause of Europe, can make us refrain from expressing our decided disapprobation of this treaty. There was no principle of the law of nations by which it could be justified. Both powers might perhaps



perhaps muster a few slight complaints against Denmark; but open war alone could have afforded ground for so violent a measure; and, by making the promise of an indemnity, they virtually gave up the claims founded on such allegations. As to the indemnity itself, Denmark was certainly very hardly treated, in being required to give up an ancient and integral part of her kingdom, for countries which, contrary to all visible human appearance, were to be conquered for her at some future period. To render the measure at all just, her consent was necessary, which however the terms of the treaty showed not to be expected. Even had it been obtained, this system of transferring subjects from hand to hand, by exchange, like herds of cattle, however conformable to the French system of *arrondissement*, is by no means sanctioned by the soundest views of political morality. Upon the basis of the above treaty, another was concluded with Sweden by the British cabinet. In this convention it was stipulated, that, in consideration of Bernadotte employing 30,000 men to cooperate with the Russian armies on the continent, he should receive from Britain a monthly subsidy of 100,000l. sterling. He was to receive also, in perpetuity, the possession of the island of Guadaloupe, which had been conquered from France by the British naval force. In fine, the arrangement with regard to Norway was guaranteed, and aid promised for carrying it into effect, provided that Denmark should refuse to join her arms to those of the allies.

We entreat our readers to forget, if it should have come to their knowledge, that, after our seizure of the Danish fleet in 1807, the emperor of Russia published a Declaration, on the 31st of October in that year, wherein he protests against "an act of violence of which history, so fertile in examples, does not furnish a single parallel;" and "engages that there shall be no re-establishment of concord between Russia and England, till satisfaction shall have been given to Denmark." For, should our readers recollect this, with what feelings must they now peruse a treaty between Russia and England, "in the Name of the most holy and indivisible Trinity;" the effect of which was to be the farther dismemberment of this much-injured power!

It is doubtful, however, if this iniquitous treaty will ever be fulfilled; for, even when Denmark was persuaded or forced to yield, it appears that general count d'Essen, who was appointed to take possession of that new acquisition, apprised the Swedish government, that prince Christian-Frederic, the former chief-governor, so far from obeying the reiterated orders of the court of Denmark, had declared himself *Regent of Norway*. The following particulars have also transpired:—He had received, on his departure for Norway, secret orders to preserve, by every possible means, this kingdom, until the general peace, in case Denmark should be forced to cede it. This order not having been positively revoked in the first letter of the king of Denmark, to the prince, dated the 17th of January, 1814, the latter proceeded to Drontheim, to excite the spirit of the inhabitants of that province. Seeing his measures approved by them, he gave orders for assembling the troops, and for augmenting the number by a conscription. At the same time several persons of distinction were invited to assemble at Eidewall. There the prince opened the conference by a speech, in which he dwelt on the necessity of maintaining union at the moment of ferment which had occurred, it being announced that the inhabitants of the north of Norway would descend from their mountains to exterminate every Norwegian who should submit to a foreign dominion; and the ferment not being less which had manifested itself in the southern part of the kingdom. Thus, not only the commandant of Fredericshall refused to surrender the citadel of that place to the Swedes, but the anniversary of the birth of the king of Denmark (Jan. 27, 1814.) was celebrated at Christiania by a repast, at which all the civil and military functionaries assisted. To give more eclat to

this ceremony, the bust of the king was placed in the hall, over which waved the Danish flag. After drinking, for the last time, the health of Frederic VI. this flag was removed, amidst a discharge of cannon, and that of Norway substituted. They then drank the health of prince Christian, under the title of Olof IV. *King of Norway*.

To return from this digression.—When these treaties between Sweden, Russia, and England, were first concluded, Denmark was in a state of amicable relation with France; and, so long as that power remained predominant in the north of Germany, it could not be expected that she would endanger her continental possessions by engaging in hostilities against it. But, when the triumphant arms of Russia poured down upon Holstein and the Elbe, her sentiments underwent a change. The yoke of France had pressed heavy upon her, as upon other states; and her people eagerly sought to be delivered from those fetters by which their industry had been chained. The great powers now perceived the error which they had committed, in conciliating Sweden at the expense of another power whose alliance might have been nearly as useful. Some diplomatic communications accordingly took place, from which Denmark certainly understood, that the relinquishment of Norway was no longer to be required from her. She accordingly agreed to unite with the allies, so far at least as to assist in the defence of the Hanse Towns; and, about the middle of May, a messenger was suddenly sent to Davoust, from Altona, to inform him that the Danes took Hamburg under their protection, and, if he persisted in attacking it, would fight in its defence. Their gun-boats immediately posted themselves before the city, and their troops entered its walls, and erected a battery of ten pieces of cannon opposite the Elbe. This conduct on the part of Denmark created universal astonishment. Some ascribed it to a secret understanding with the French, according to which the Danes were to obtain possession of the city, only to disarm its inhabitants, and restore it to the enemy when he should desire it; as their occupying it would leave the force under Davoust at liberty to act on other points still more important, at that crisis, than the Hanse Towns. Others fancied that Denmark had agreed to an arrangement proposed by the allies, to take the Hanseatic States as part of a compensation for the cession of Norway to Sweden.—But we need not wonder that others were at a loss to account for this step, since the Danes themselves were deceived. An explanation, however, soon took place, from which it appeared, that Sweden had not desisted wholly from her demands, but had merely refrained them to the bishopric of Drontheim, the most northerly of the Norwegian provinces. We trust that there was not, according to the French allegations, an intentional deception; Denmark, without doubt, was actually deceived. On finding that this new demand was to be persisted in, she determined to renew her alliance with France. She conceived, that this requisition, though diminished in extent, was the same in principle; and that no alternative was left to her, except this unfortunate one, which she adopted with evident reluctance.

The city of Hamburg was occupied, on the 30th of May, by 5000 Danes, who were followed in the evening of the same day by 1500 French. The city was taken possession of by the French general Bruyere, in the name of Bonaparte, as belonging to the French empire. General Tattenborn and his troops left it the day before; the Swedes had previously quitted it. The French general, however, did not enter Hamburg, as it was supposed he would, clothed in all the terrors of martial law, destroying the property of the inhabitants, and sacrificing their lives to his fury. It does not appear that he even called upon them to deliver up their arms. Instead of giving up muskets and bayonets, bullets and gunpowder, Davoust, *ex virtute officii*, issued a *criminal information* against all those who possessed, either for their own private use or for general dissemination, any libels, books, pamphlets, portraits, pictures,



pictures, caricatures, poems, verses, &c. which had been published since the 24th of February, when the allies became possessed of the city. He did not appear to consider the place, as these papers describe it, "a well-stored hive of war," filled with a citizen-soldiery, and having on its ramparts upwards of 200 pieces of cannon: but, with that hatred of the liberty of the press, which characterized Napoleon, and which, of course, his satellites imitated, he contemplated Hamburg as an immense dépôt of inflammatory and seditious publications; inflammatory, because they were calculated to excite a spirit of resistance throughout Germany; and seditious, because, having that effect, they tended to destroy the power of his master. A proclamation of Davoust's, published soon after, imposed an extraordinary contribution of 48 millions of francs on the citizens of Hamburg, as a punishment for their conduct during the absence of the French from that city. The proclamation is dated the 7th of June, and the first instalment on the contribution was to be paid on the 12th. The whole was divided into six instalments, the last of which was to be paid on the 12th of July. The first three instalments were to be paid in money; but for the three last bills would be accepted, payable at Paris at three months date. The proclamation particularly directs the contribution to be levied on those persons who had subscribed to the patriotic levies, or otherwise distinguished themselves against the French since the 24th of February.

The re-capture of Hamburg was mentioned in the French papers in very exulting terms; and it was sarcastically observed, that the duke of Cambridge (meaning Cumberland) and the duke of Brunswick arrived in time to give éclat to the success of the French. Hamburg was ordered to be made a strong place; and another fortress to be constructed at the mouth of the Havel, in order to complete the defence of the Elbe.—It was stated also, that all the Danish troops in Holstein had been placed by the king of Denmark under the orders of Davoust; and that prince Christian had proceeded to Norway, where he would place himself at the head of an army, and enter Sweden.

A most sanguinary decree was issued at Hamburg on the 24th of July, by marshal Davoust, under the title of "An Amnesty for the Acts of Rebellion, Insurrection, and Desertion, committed up to that date in the Thirty-second Military Division." From this are excepted certain persons by name, of whom the act contains a list; also all persons guilty of acts of violence, attacks, and individual murders, plunders, thefts, and other excesses, even although originating in the insurrection; and all those who have absented themselves, and shall not return before the 5th of August—all which persons, thus excepted, are declared enemies of the state, and banished for ever, and their property confiscated.—Now, the second class of offences, though it affects to relate to private crimes, is so vaguely described, that there is scarcely an act of violence or insurrection which may not be brought within it; and, as for the third, the time allowed for return was so short, that the parties, if at any considerable distance, could not avail themselves of it: as, for instance, those Hamburgers who may have sought refuge in England could not by possibility take the benefit of the act, for it was not known here until two days after its expiration. It was, therefore, an insult to common sense, and a mockery of mercy, to call this an Act of Amnesty. It was, in fact, a cruel measure of proscription—an outlawry against all the loyal and patriotic people of Hamburg, and an expedient to raise money by the confiscation of their property. The most compulsory means were also resorted to for extending and strengthening the fortifications; neither age nor sex was spared; neither rank nor character was respected; nor was it permitted to the weak and feeble to avail themselves of wealth to procure a substitute.—In this cruel and oppressive decree, fathers, mothers, and guardians, were rendered responsible in penalties for the acts of their children and wards, though wholly out of their power:

for the want of males, women were dragged to work at the fortifications, at the rate of three women for two men, and twenty boys were made to supply the place of ten men.

The deputies who had been sent to intercede with Bonaparte, to reduce the demand made for military purposes on this oppressed city, were wholly unsuccessful. They were told by Napoleon, that their *disloyalty* during the absence of the French troops entitled them neither to favour nor compassion.

Count Hogendorp, governor of Hamburg, issued, on the 18th of August, an infamous order, in which it was declared, that, as the place must be considered in a state of siege, more than four persons stopping to speak together in the street were to be deemed an unlawful mob; and, if they did not disperse instantly, were to be taken up and shot. Circulators of disquieting intelligence were to be tried by a military commission. No citizen, in case of a dispute with a soldier, was to revenge his own wrongs; and, in case of violence, when the latter was on duty, was to be shot. The decree contains a still more atrocious and unmanly denunciation against the female sex; which, however, is of too indelicate a nature for our pages.

There was little prospect that the armistice would lead to peace. Each party was making great efforts to increase its strength, and to be in a condition to act with vigour and effect on the first notification of a renewal of hostilities. Russia, besides augmenting her forces at head-quarters, was raising an army of reserve, and establishing magazines on her western frontier; Prussia continued to raise troops, and organize her population; England sent troops, artillery, and stores, to the Baltic; the crown-prince of Sweden, subsidized by England, began to invite the Germans to swell the legions forming under his protection; and France, in addition to the assistance she derived from her tributaries and vassals, had recourse to another extraordinary method to increase her levies: the national guards and the guards of honour (the former, like our militia regiments, raised for limited service, and the latter for mere local parade) were excited to make an offer to join the French armies; and this soon became general throughout the empire.

The armistice, and the negotiations at Prague for peace, had been entered into more peculiarly under the mediation of the emperor of Austria, the ally and the father-in-law of Bonaparte. Yet these negotiations lingered only about twenty days beyond the time appointed; for, on the 10th of August, the end of the armistice was declared; and, on the same day, another event, which gave an entire new turn to the affairs of Germany, took place. The long suspense in which Europe had been kept relating to the future line of conduct which Austria would adopt was put an end to; and the declaration of this important power for the cause of the allies inclined the balance at once in their favour. On the 13th in the morning, the whole of the Austrian army, which had been long kept in the best order and discipline, was put in motion: head-quarters were removed to Prague, to which place the emperor of Russia, the king of Prussia, and lord Cathcart, were gone. And thus the victories of Lutzen, of Bautzen, and of Wurtzchen, eventually led, not to a peace advantageous and honourable to Napoleon's power and name, but to hostilities on a larger scale; a scale embracing all Europe. They acquired him no fresh supporter, but added to the list of his enemies a power bound to him closely by the ties of blood, and yet compelled, by his unrelenting ambition, to rend them asunder; a power curtailed indeed in territory, and weakened in population, by the disasters of former wars, but entering into the present with renovated means, and a spirit that added to their efficiency.—The following is the estimated force of the allies at this time:

Austrian army in Bohemia	150,000
Russian and Prussian army in Silesia	200,000
Army of the North of Germany, consisting chiefly of Swedes and Prussians	127,000
	<hr/> 477,000



The denouncement of the armistice was officially notified by a letter from the Russian general in chief Barclay de Tolly, to the prince of Neufchatel; and that hostilities would commence on the 17th of August, on the part of the Russian, Prussian, and Swedish, armies.

The crown-prince of Sweden, having received formal intimation of the ending of the armistice, and of the attendant Austrian declaration of war against France, put his army in full motion, and concentrated not less than 90,000 men between Berlin and Spandau. He had previously addressed to the combined army under his orders, the following proclamation:—"Soldiers! Called by the confidence of my king, and of the sovereigns his allies, to lead you in the career which is about to open, I rely for the success of our arms on the Divine Protection, the justice of our cause, and on your valour and perseverance. Had it not been for the extraordinary concurrence of events which have given to the last twelve years a dreadful celebrity, you would not have been assembled on the soil of Germany; but your sovereigns have felt that Europe is a great family, and that none of the states of which it is composed can remain indifferent to the evils imposed upon any one of its members by a conquering power. They are also convinced that when such a power threatens to attack and subjugate every other, there ought to exist only one will among those nations that are determined to escape from shame and slavery. From that moment you were called from the banks of the Wolga and the Don, from the shores of Britain, and the mountains of the North, to unite with the German warriors who defend the cause of Europe. This then is the moment when rivalry, national prejudices, and antipathies, ought to disappear before the grand object of the independence of nations. The emperor Napoleon cannot live in peace with Europe, unless Europe be his slave. His presumption carried 400,000 brave men seven hundred miles from their country: misfortunes, against which he did not deign to provide, fell upon their heads, and 300,000 Frenchmen perished on the territory of a great empire, the sovereign of which had made every effort to preserve peace with France. It was to be expected that this terrible disaster, the effect of Divine Vengeance, would have inclined the emperor of France to a less murderous system; and that, instructed at last by the example of the North and of Spain, he would have renounced the idea of subjugating the continent, and have consented to let the world be at peace. But this hope has been disappointed, and that peace which all governments had desired, and which every government proposed, has been rejected by the emperor Napoleon.—Soldiers! it is to arms then we must have recourse, to conquer repose and independence. The same sentiment which guided the French in 1792, and which prompted them to assemble and to combat the armies which entered their territory, ought to animate your valour against those who, after having invaded the land which gave you birth, still hold in chains your brethren, your wives, and your children.—Soldiers! what a noble prospect is presented to you! the liberty of Europe, the re-establishment of its equilibrium, the end of that convulsive state which has had twenty years' duration; finally, the peace of the world, will be the result of your efforts. Render yourselves worthy, by your union, your discipline, and your courage, of the high destiny which awaits you. From my head-quarters at Oranienburg, Aug. 15, 1813.

CHARLES JEAN."

The following order of the day was issued by the prince of Schwartzberg on the 17th of August, setting forth the grounds on which Austria had been induced to go to war:—"The great day is arrived! Brave warriors! our country relies on you. Hitherto, every time that she has called upon you, you have justified her confidence. All the endeavours of our emperor to restore the long-wanted peace to Europe, and to fix the peace and welfare of the empire, which is inseparable from the peace and welfare of our neighbours, on a solid basis, were in vain.

Neither constant patience, nor pacific representations, nor the confidential reliance of the other belligerent powers in the emperor's councils and measures; in short, nothing could bring the minds of the French government to moderation and reason. On that day on which Austria loudly declared herself for the cause of justice and order, she likewise took on herself to combat for the greatest of all blessings. We do not singly undertake this combat. We stand in the same rank with all that Europe has to oppose of greatness and activity against the powerful opponent of her peace and liberty. Austria, Russia, Prussia, Sweden, England, Spain, all join their united endeavours for the same end; for a well-founded and durable peace, a reasonable distribution of strength among the different states, and the independence of every single power. It is not against France, but against the domineering power of France out of her own borders, that this great alliance has raised itself. What may be performed by the resolution and constancy of nations, has been proved to us by Spain and Russia; what may be performed by the united force of so many powerful states, will be shown in the year 1813!—In such a holy war, we must, more than ever, preserve those virtues by which our armies have rendered themselves conspicuous in so many former wars. Unconditional willingness to sacrifice every thing for our monarch and native country—great equanimity in good or unfavourable times—determination and constancy in the field of battle—moderation and forbearance towards the weak—these qualities must always be found in us. Brothers in arms! I have lived in your ranks all those years which I have devoted to my country's service. I know, I honour, in you, the brave men who conquered a glorious peace, and those who are following their footsteps. I rely on you! I am chosen from amongst you by our monarch; and his gracious favour has placed me at your head. His confidence, jointly with yours, are my strength. In what manner every individual is to be useful to the whole, will be fixed by the sphere of action allotted to him; but, in every appointment—in every situation—in every decisive moment—always to do his duty, and to the utmost of his power—such is the determination which must make us all equal, and elevate us all to the same glorious point. The emperor will remain with us, for he has confided the utmost to us—the honour of the nation—the protection of our native country—and the security and welfare of posterity.—Be thankful, warriors, that you are going into battle before God, who will not forsake the just cause, under the eye of a paternal and feeling monarch, under the eyes of your grateful fellow-citizens, and in the sight of all Europe, which expects from you great deeds, and great happiness, after long sufferings. Remember, you must conquer, that you may justify this expectation. Combat as it becomes Austria's warriors to do, and you will conquer. CHARLES, Pr. of Schwartzberg."

The armistice, as we have said, ceased on the 17th of August. On the 18th, Davoust attacked, with French and Danish troops, the entrenchments which covered Lauenburgh, and carried them with the bayonet. The allied force stationed there was computed at 1300 infantry and some cavalry. The French estimated their own loss at 100 men wounded; and that of their opponents they, of course, represented as more considerable. However, as things began from his time to go against the French, it is not from the bulletins of Napoleon that we are to collect the history of the second part of the campaign. Bernadotte, the crown-prince of Sweden, now in battle-array against his friend and patron, began to issue bulletins precisely in the same style.

The third of these bulletins notices the defection, on the 15th of August, of one of Bonaparte's generals, who thus set an early example of leaving this man to his falling fortunes. His name is Jomini, by birth a Swiss; and no less an officer than the chief of marshal Ney's staff. He had served under general Moreau, and was deemed one of the best engineers the French had. He passed through general Blücher's army, on his way to the Russian head-quarters.

The



The fourth and fifth bulletins state, that Napoleon having concentrated, on the 21st of August, an army of 80,000 men in the environs of Bayreuth, under the command of Oudinot, to make an attempt on Berlin, they advanced by way of Trebbin on the day following, attacked the Prussian general Thumen with a superior force, and obliged him to evacuate the post. The next morning the French attempted to follow up their success; and the corps of general Bertrand debouched upon the Prussian corps of Tauenzin at Blankenfelde, but was repulsed. The 7th French corps, however, succeeded in taking the village of Groß Beren; and Oudinot advanced upon Abrensdorff. An attempt to drive the French from Groß Beren brought on a severe action; and in the course of the day, they having menaced the village of Ruhlisdorff, the crown-prince sent a force to take them in flank. The result of these operations is said to have been 26 cannon, 30 chests, much baggage, and 1500 prisoners taken, and many killed and wounded.

From the sixth and seventh bulletins we learn, that the crown-prince was following up his successes against Oudinot's army. Girard, who had a command under Oudinot, was defeated on the 27th, between Lubnitz and Belzig, by Czernicheff and Hirschfeld, with the loss of 3500 prisoners, eight pieces of cannon, several waggons of ammunition, and all the baggage. Girard was killed. The French retreated to Luckau, which city surrendered the next day, with nine pieces of cannon, 1000 prisoners, and a considerable quantity of ammunition and stores. The French continued their retreat towards the Elbe, pursued by Winzingerode with 8000 cavalry. The whole of the French loss in this quarter, from the opening of the campaign, is estimated at upwards of 12,000 men.

The eleventh bulletin, dated Jüterbock, Sept. 8. gives an account of the battle of Dennevitze.—While Bernadotte, with the Russian and Swedish corps under his command, was moving on the 4th upon Rosla, in order to pass the Elbe there, and march upon Leipzig, intelligence was received that the French army, coming from Wittenberg, was pushing forward on Zahne, with the view to stop his farther operations by a movement against Bodin. As the French had succeeded on the 5th, notwithstanding the resistance opposed by the Prussian army posted between Zahne and Jüterbock, in penetrating as far as Jüterbock, Bernadotte, early on the 6th, hastened with seventy battalions of Swedish and Russian infantry, 10,000 cavalry, and 150 field-pieces, to assist the Prussian army, which, consisting of about 40,000 men, had held out, without yielding, against the repeated attacks of the French, 70,000 strong, under the command of the prince of Moskwa. At sight of these fresh troops, the French fled, pursued on all sides by the cavalry and light-infantry, and retreated towards Torgau and Dresden. From 16 to 18,000 prisoners, more than 60 pieces of cannon, and 400 ammunition-waggons, were the fruits of this victory and the subsequent actions.

The twelfth bulletin gives a minute and clear account of the military operations of the northern army. The intention of the crown-prince of Sweden to cross the Elbe after the defeat of the French corps under Oudinot, was dictated by a knowledge that the allied armies were prepared to advance from Bohemia; while Bonaparte had, for the second time, quitted Dresden to fly to the assistance of Macdonald in Silesia; but the movements of the combined army obliged him to return to Dresden. After the victory obtained at Dennevitze, the French were pursued by Dahme to Torgau, where, at the *tête de pont*, 800 prisoners were taken. To prevent the allied troops crossing the Elster, the French had broken down the bridges. The total loss of the French in the battle and retreat is now boldly said to be 20,000 men, including 10,000 prisoners, 80 pieces of cannon, and 400 ammunition-waggons.

Bonaparte's communications were now, not in the form of "bulletins," but of "intelligence from the army," for the information of his empress. As long as his allies re-

mained faithful to him, he sustained no very material reverses, but rather the contrary. In one action, however, near Culm, his general Vandamme was defeated with great loss, and supposed to be killed, but was taken prisoner, and is now at Moscow, unless he has been sent, as threatened, into Siberia. Bonaparte's head-quarters were at Dresden; and he summed up the history of the first few days of the campaign in the following terms: "On the 21st of August, the Russian, Prussian, and Austrian, army, commanded by the emperor Alexander and the king of Prussia, entered Saxony; and on the 22d marched against Dresden, with from 180 to 200,000 men, having an immense *materiale*, and full of hope, not only of driving us from the right bank of the Elbe, but even of marching upon the Rhine, and nourishing the war between the Elbe and the Rhine. In five days it has seen its hopes confounded; 30,000 prisoners, 10,000 wounded fallen into our power, which makes the number amount to 40,000; 20,000 killed or wounded, and as many sick in consequence of fatigue and the want of provisions, (it has been five or six days without bread,) have weakened it nearly 80,000 men. It does not now amount to 100,000 men under arms; it has lost more than 100 pieces of cannon, entire parks; 1500 ammunition and artillery waggons, which were blown up or fell into our hands; more than 3000 baggage-waggons, which it has burnt, or we have taken; there were 40 colours or standards. Among the prisoners there are 4000 Russians. The ardour of the French army, and the courage of the infantry, fixed every one's attention. The first cannon fired from the batteries of the imperial guards, on the day of the 27th, mortally wounded general Moreau, who had returned from America to enter the Russian service."

With such exaggerated statements on both sides, the reader is at a loss which to believe: he will probably believe neither; and there had been as yet no action of so decisive a nature as to speak for itself. We shall therefore take this opportunity to say a few words upon the fate of general Moreau.—We have seen, under the article FRANCE, vol. vii. p. 859, 60. that Moreau, in the year 1804, was implicated in a plot to murder Bonaparte and restore the Bourbons, and that his sentence of death was changed into a permission to transport himself to America. He had remained there ever since, very comfortably situated at Morrisville, below the fall of the Delaware. At the beginning of the year 1812, a Russian messenger, an officer, was deputed to invite him into the Russian service; but found the greatest difficulty in moving him from his retirement, though he was authorised to offer him any terms. In fact, he presented him with a *carte blanche* from Alexander. For sixteen months did this gentleman remain in America with peremptory orders to accomplish the object of his mission. At length the fatal moment arrived: Moreau, although he had often been heard to declare, that he never would lead foreign troops into France, determined to lend his aid to the allied powers; and left his abode of quiet and security. On the 2d of August, 1813, he landed at Stralsund, where he was received by the crown-prince of Sweden, and passed two days in concerting the plan of the campaign. On the 16th of August he arrived at Prague, and the next morning was visited by the emperor Alexander, who, on the 18th, introduced him to the emperor of Austria and the king of Prussia. At this moment he was the first man in Europe, consulted and closeted daily with these sovereigns, and nothing seemed too high for his ambition; but it was said to be his intention, if he had lived to succeed against Napoleon, to retire again into private life. On the 25th and following days, he accompanied the emperor Alexander and the king of Prussia in reconnoitring and directing the attacks on Dresden; and his zeal led him much to expose himself. On the 27th, towards noon, he was communicating some observations to Alexander, when a ball from one of the French batteries, which was aiming to dismount a Russian battery behind which they were, shattered to pieces the right knee



knee of Moreau, and, passing through his horse, carried away the calf of his other leg. Alexander burst into tears, and hastened to succour and console him; and Moreau exclaimed to his aid-de-camp, "I am lost, my dear Rapatel! but it is delightful to die in so good a cause, and in the presence of so great a prince." He was conveyed from the spot on a litter, to a house in the vicinity, where the emperor's surgeon amputated both his legs, an operation to which he submitted with heroic fortitude. On the retreat of the army, he was removed to Passendorf, thence to Dippoldswalden, and afterwards to Duks, near Toplitz. Here every assistance that wealth, power, and friendship, could command, was afforded him, but in vain; for, on the morning of the 2d of September, he quietly breathed his last, being only the day month after he had landed so triumphantly, and with such flattering hopes, at Stralsund. The emperor directed his body to be embalmed, and conveyed for interment to Peterburgh; and then, with generous feeling, caused the following letter to be addressed to madame Moreau, at London.—"MADAM, When the dreadful misfortune, which befel general Moreau, clove at my side, deprived me of the talents and experience of that great man, I indulged the hope that, by care, we might still be able to preserve him to his family and my friendship. Providence has ordered it otherwise. He died as he lived, in the full vigour of a strong and steady mind. There is but one remedy for the great miseries of life, that of seeing them participated. In Russia, madam, you will find these sentiments every where; and, if it suit you to fix your residence there, I will do all in my power to embellish the existence of a personage of whom I make it my sacred duty to be the consoler and the support. I intreat you, madam, to rely upon it irrevocably, never to let me be in ignorance of any circumstance in which I can be of any use to you, and to write directly to me always. To prevent your wishes will be a pleasure to me. The friendship I vowed to your husband exists beyond the grave; and I have no other means of showing it, at least in part, towards him, than by doing every thing in my power to ensure the welfare of his family. In these sad and cruel circumstances, accept, madam, these marks of friendship, and the assurance of all my sentiments. ALEXANDER."—Madame Moreau continues to reside in London, where she is greatly respected, and received into the best company.—Rapatel, Moreau's favourite aide-de-camp, was killed at Fere Champenoise, on the 25th of March, 1814.

We cannot avoid adding the following reflections from an extremely well-written work, just published, called *Historical Sketches of Politics and Public Men for the Year 1813*.—"The presence of Moreau in the allied army had excited an universal enthusiasm throughout Europe; and a fate so tragic and untimely produced equal sympathy and regret. We were not certainly exempted from the influence of these feelings. Yet, on weighing the conduct of this great man in the balance of moral rectitude, we have not been able to form a very decided opinion. Unjust expulsion from political community, may seem to break the ties by which an individual was united to it, and to absolve him from further allegiance. When this injustice is exercised by a state against one to whom it has been indebted for much of its glory and greatness, the trial becomes the more severe. Yet the general sense of mankind seems to pronounce, that there is something indelible in the relations which subsist between man and the country which gave him birth; that no wrong, no suffering, can ever efface them. Moreau professed indeed, and was sanctioned by the declarations of the allies, to make war, not against France, but against the usurper who ruled it. Had the object been to change the government, to restore either a free constitution or the ancient monarchy, Moreau would have had a fair ground to proceed upon. But the allies [at this time] disclaimed any such intention; they professed no other object, but to re-esta-

lish against France the ancient balance of power, and to level her then overwhelming preponderance in the system of Europe. The conduct of Moreau, therefore, could scarcely find a patriotic base to rest upon; it could be defended only upon the broadest principles of universal philanthropy. These, however, from their vague and flexible nature, ought to be viewed with extreme suspicion; above all, when they point to some object which would afford gratification to private ambition or resentment. There is one circumstance which, if not explained, appears to involve a shade of suspicion. He came only to bask in the sunshine of the allies' fortune. So long as the cause of Europe languished, he had taken no part in it. We find him not in Spain, where the most just of causes was to be defended; nor even in Russia, when that country was invaded, and in danger of being overrun. He came not, till a succession of victories, and the formation of a grand confederacy, had rendered the triumph of the allied cause almost secure. All this may admit of explanation; but some such explanation seems necessary in order to show, why his philanthropy did not operate till the moment when its exertion was least necessary and least meritorious. Whatever opinion we may form upon this subject, there cannot be the slightest doubt, that the allied sovereigns were justified, by all law and all practice, in using the acknowledged talents of this great commander, for the promotion of their own just cause. We must only express our dissent from the opinion almost universal at the time, which supposed, that the success of that cause rested mainly upon Moreau; and that Bonaparte could only be opposed by commanders trained in the same school. Such an idea is totally inconsistent, not only with subsequent events which could not be then taken into the account, but also with the occurrences of the preceding campaign. Bonaparte had been humbled, and the finest army he ever possessed had been annihilated, without the smallest aid of this description. There was no reason to suppose, that similar successes, with similar means, might not continue to crown their arms. The only operation at which Moreau assisted, and which, if it was not planned by him, received at least his sanction, was the attack upon Dresden; which does not appear to throw any particular lustre on those with whom it originated"—and which indeed entirely failed.

During Bonaparte's stay at Dresden, the allies harassed his soldiers by incessant advances and retreats from all sides. At length, on the 7th of October, he quitted that city, and proceeded, not, as heretofore, to the right bank of the Elbe, but to the side of Leipzig, where the theatre of war was now to be transferred. That city had suddenly become the centre of very important military movements. The number of troops there was so considerable, that part of them were obliged to be lodged in churches. The crown-prince of Sweden crossed the Elbe, to be in uninterrupted communication with general Blücher. The head-quarters of the former were on the 7th at Zebitz, and on the 9th at Zorbig; those of the latter were at the same time at Eulenberg. Their movements, it will be observed, were simultaneous; and they were marching by different roads upon Leipzig, with 130,000 men and 600 pieces of cannon. About the same time the Bohemian army made a flank-movement by its left; and it was calculated that it would be advanced as far as Chemnitz on the 3d. Bonaparte seems to have hesitated for some days in determining against which of the two menacing forces he should direct his personal efforts; but he at last proceeded for Leipzig.

A report from marshal Ney, dated Torgau, Sept. 7, acknowledges a defeat by the crown-prince at Dennewitz. He attributes the defeat partly to the 4th corps, which, instead of turning Jüterboch, attacked it—and to the seventh corps, which was some time in coming up, and two divisions of which behaved badly when the battle was nearly won. The 7th corps was composed of Saxons, and was under the orders of general Regnier, whom Mr.



Thornton mentions in his dispatch as having exposed himself to so much danger. Ney acknowledges a loss of 8000 men, killed, wounded, and prisoners, and 12 pieces of cannon.

The army of Gen. Nugent had taken the strong point of Pola Capo d'Istria, and Monte Maggiore, with fifty pieces of cannon, and a great quantity of ammunition. General Nugent was in communication with the English squadron off Fiume, from which he received arms and ammunition for equipping the Istrians, who had cheerfully flocked to the Austrian standard. General Thielman, on the 18th September, attacked Merseburg, which surrendered after a sharp resistance. The Russian colonel Orloff particularly distinguished himself. More than 2000 prisoners were taken in and about the town.

A very gallant enterprise was executed by the Austrian major Schlutberg, who, having received orders to take Friburg, placed part of his corps in ambush on the 17th of September, and, appearing unexpectedly before the town the next morning, stormed the Eberdorff gate; while other detachments of his troops, which had taken circuitous roads, advanced against the Mersner and Dona gates: that of Eberdorff being forced open, after an obstinate resistance, the garrison, consisting of general Bruno, 20 staff and superior officers, 400 mounted hussars, and 220 infantry, were made prisoners. The Austrian loss was one killed and three wounded. At the beginning of October, as we are told, the allies had also taken Pegau. Both Friburg and Pegau are near Leipzig. On the 14th of October, Bremen was taken by a Russian force under general Tettenborn.

Bonaparte's vassal allies now began to desert his standard. The king of Bavaria, on whom he placed his greatest reliance, made terms with Austria. A treaty of alliance and concert, between Austria and Bavaria, was signed by prince Reuss and general Wrede, on the 8th of October. General Wrede, with 35,000 Bavarian troops, was immediately to co-operate with those of Austria, and was to have 25,000 Austrians under his command. Even the Saxons had begun to abandon the cause. A rumour of a Saxon battalion having come over to the crown-prince, we find confirmed by a bulletin of his highness of Sept. 26. This battalion was the first of the king's regiment; it entered Warletz with fixed bayonets and drums beating.

These defeats and defections were preparatory to the grand defeat, accomplished by the grand defection which appears to have sealed the fate of Napoleon;—for now bursts upon us the most important transaction of the whole year, which, in its causes, in itself, and in its effects, can be compared with no event belonging to the (late) war, or to the history of ancient and modern times. The conflict was awful, and bloody; and, if half a million of people were engaged in the tremendous strife, many millions were looking up to this battle as either to break or to fasten their chains. The shock made the whole of Germany totter on its basis, and was echoed from the remotest parts of Russia to the farthest verge of our islands. The issue of this unparalleled contention drove the French across the Rhine, and sent the allies after them, to the very heart of the empire—to Paris! But its more immediate effects were the *dissolution of the Confederation of the Rhine*, which had placed all the German powers within the grasp of Napoleon, as tools for his ambitious purposes; the *overthrow of the continental system*, which had for so many years cramped the trade of the greatest part of Europe, and had affected most essentially the commerce of our metropolis; and, finally, the solving the long-agitated problem whether Bonaparte's will were to sway the rest of the globe. An exact relation of this extraordinary turn of affairs cannot fail of being interesting to every English reader, as it has re-opened several of our usual places of resort for the disposal of English merchandise. In this relation we shall avail ourselves of the "Narrative of remarkable Events in and near Leipzig, Oct. 1813," published for the benefit of the sufferers by those remarkable and terrible events.

It was not till the arrival of marshal Marmont with his

troops in the neighbourhood of Leipzig that the probability of an engagement taking place there was entertained. This was at the beginning of October. These guests brought with them every species of misery and distress, which daily increased in proportion as those hosts of destroyers kept gradually swelling into a large army. Ever since the battle of Lutzen, Leipzig had been one of the principal resources of the grand French army; and they showed it no mercy. Numberless hospitals transformed it into one great infirmary; many thousands of troops, quartered in the habitations of the citizens, one prodigious *corps de garde*; and requisitions of meat, bread, rice, brandy, and other articles, one vast poor-house, where the indigent inhabitants were in danger of starving. But for this well-stored magazine, the great French army had long since been obliged to abandon the Elbe. No wonder then that this point should have been guarded with the utmost care.

The appearance of the French troops, and the terror they brought with them, were like a prologue to the sanguinary tragedy which Providence had ordained or permitted to be performed on that spot; whilst on the other side the dramatis personæ, the well-combined and mighty armies of the allies, were approaching Leipzig. Napoleon had quitted Dresden, forced out by the want of all means of subsistence. No one could guess where he was directing his thunder; perhaps he was at first himself undetermined. Many who were qualified to form a judgment respecting military operations, were of opinion that he would make a push with his whole force upon Berlin and the Oder. They supposed that those parts were not sufficiently covered, and considered the fortresses on the Elbe as his *point d'appui* in the rear. This opinion, however, seemed to lose much of its probability, when other French corps under Ney, Regnier, Bertrand, and Marmont, continued to arrive, and were afterwards joined by that of Augereau. We had received authentic information (says the writer of the Narrative) that prince Schwartzberg had already advanced to Altenburg with the grand combined army of Austria, Russia, and Prussia; and also that the crown-prince of Sweden had his head-quarters at Zörbig. Upon the whole, however, our intelligence was unsatisfactory. For several days (that is to say, from the 10th) it was reported that the emperor of the French would certainly remove his head-quarters hither; that he had taken the road to Wurzen, and was coming by way of Düben. This account was confirmed by several detachments of the French guard. It is universally known that this general preferably chose those days on which he founded his claim to glory, in order to distinguish them by new achievements. His proximity to Leipzig, and the approaching 14th of October, the anniversary of the battles of Ulm and of Jena, strengthened the anticipation of some important event in that neighbourhood. The light troops of the allies, that were taken for the advanced guard of the crown-prince of Sweden, were distinctly to be seen from the steeples of the city, on the north side of it, towards Breitenfeld and Linden-thal. Daily skirmishes ensued, and wounded French were hourly brought in. The bustle in the city increased; the king of Naples had arrived, and fixed his head-quarters at Konnewitz. Innumerable generals and staff-officers filled all the houses. Not a moment's rest was to be had; all were in bivouac. They seemed wholly ignorant of the motions of the allies; for the same troops who went out at one gate often returned before night at another; so that there was an incessant marching in and out at all the four principal avenues of the city. These movements of cavalry, infantry, and carriages, ceased not a moment even during the night. It was very rarely that a troop of cavalry, sent out upon patrol or picket duty, returned without having lost several men and horses, who were invariably, according to their report, kidnapped by the Cossacs. But, in truth, all the troops with whom the French had any encounters were called by them Cossacs; for the Cossacs were indisputably the troops of whom the French were most



most afraid; with them, therefore, all the light cavalry who came upon them unawares were sure to be *Cofacs*.

The preparations that were making now evidently denoted the approach of some important event. The French corps had already ranged themselves in a vast semicircle, extending from north to east, and thence to south-west. The country towards Merseburg and Weissenfels seemed to be merely observed. For this purpose the eminences beyond the village of Lindenau were occupied. Here the access to the city is the most difficult, a causeway only leading to it in this direction. The country on the right and left consists of swampy meadows and wood-land, everywhere intersected by ditches and muddy streams.

It was not easy to judge of the force of Napoleon in this quarter; yet the following may lead to a tolerably correct estimate. One division of Marmont's corps consisted at the utmost of 4,000, so that the whole might amount to 12,000 men; and it was one of those which, in comparison of others, had sustained the least loss. Even that of Augereau, which was incontestably the most complete, as it had just come out of cantonments, was computed at scarcely 15,000 men. If, then, we take 10,000 for the average, the total amount of the French armies collected near Leipzig, as the wrecks only of several were then remaining, can scarcely have reached 170,000, even including the guards. Such a force, however, commanded by so many generals who had heretofore been acknowledged the ablest in Europe, together with more than 600 pieces of artillery, was still fully sufficient to make itself respected, and even feared, by an enemy of double its number. One single species of troops alone was below mediocrity—the cavalry, both in regard to the horses and the men, the former from weakness and want of sustenance, and the latter from ignorance of their business. With the force of the allies we are unacquainted, but at all events they must have been more numerous.

The 14th of October at length dawned. It had been preceded by several rainy days; but this was merely lowering. The cannon thundered at intervals towards Liebertwolkwitz. In the forenoon, wounded French, chiefly cavalry, kept coming in singly. With whom they had been engaged they knew not—*Cofacs* of course. "We looked forward with certainty to a general engagement. It became every hour more dangerous for the inquisitive to venture out or in at the gates. There was no end to the marching of horse and foot, and the rolling of carriages; at every ten paces you met in all directions with *corps de garde*, by whom every non-military person without distinction was ordered back, sometimes with fair words, and at others with rudeness. Several couriers had been sent forward to announce the speedy arrival of the king of Saxony and Napoleon. The Hero of the Age, as he has been styled, actually came about noon; not, as we anticipated, by the Dresden road, but by that from Berlin. He passed hastily through the city, and out at the farthest Grimma gate, attended by some battalions and squadrons of his guards. A camp-chair and a table were brought in all haste, and a great watch-fire kindled in the open-field, *not far from the gallews*. The guards bivouacked on the right and left. The emperor took possession of the head-quarters prepared for him, which were far from magnificent, being surrounded only by the relics of the stalks and leaves of the cabbages consumed by his soldiers, and other matters still more offensive. The table was instantly covered with maps, over which the emperor pored most attentively for a considerable time. Of what was passing around him he seemed not to take the smallest notice. The spectators, of whom (says the writer we are quoting) I was one, crowded pretty close. A long train of carriages from the Wurtzen road, the cracking of the whips of the postillions, together with a great number of horse-soldiers and tall grenadiers, announced the arrival of another distinguished personage, and called the attention of the by-standers that way. It was the king of Saxony, with his guards and retinue. He alighted,

and a kind salutation ensued between him and Napoleon. The king soon afterwards mounted a horse, and proceeded into the city. Napoleon meanwhile remained where he was. He sometimes rose from his seat, went up to the watch-fire, held his hands over it, rubbed them, and then placed them behind him, whilst with his foot he pushed the wood, consisting of dry boards and rafters from the nearest houses, into the flame, to make it burn more fiercely. At the same time he very frequently took snuff, of which he seemed to have but a small quantity left in his gold box. At last he scraped together what was left with his finger, and poured it out upon his hand. When all was gone, he opened the box several times and snelt to it, without applying to any of the marshals and generals around him to relieve his want. As the discharges of artillery towards Probstheide grew more and more general and alarming, and the wounded kept returning in continually-increasing numbers, I was rather surprised that the commander should, on this occasion, contrary to his usual custom, quietly remain so far from the field of battle, which was near ten miles distant, apparently without giving himself the least concern about the event."

Meanwhile, within and without the town, all was bustle and confusion. The thunder of artillery rent the air; the suburbs were inundated with soldiers; the gates of the town were hardly wide enough to receive the wounded, and to let out carriages, and trains of cannon. The sound of drums incessantly announced the arrival of fresh regiments; and about midnight the din of war subsided for a few hours. The bivouacs spread in the neighbourhood, with their scattered lights, and the flames arising from burning farms and villages were reverberated by the cloudy skies. The spectacle was horribly solemn.—The next day passed quietly, if any repose can exist between the eagerness of hope and the chill of fear.

The 16th of October was the day fixed upon by prince Schwartzberg for a general attack on all the French positions around Leipzig. On the north side, their line extended from that city through Delitzsch and Bitterfeld to the Mulda. Bernadotte occupied the left of the opposite army, reaching from Wettin to Zarlug: but general Blucher, being on the right, with his head-quarters pushed to Groß Kugel, was nearest to Leipzig; and it was therefore determined, that on his side the grand effort should be made. Accordingly, having made his dispositions, he attacked in the morning the three French corps which were there posted, under the command of Ney. The French made the most desperate resistance; several of the villages in dispute were five or six times taken and retaken; but at length they were driven from all their positions, and forced to retire behind the Partha, which immediately covered Leipzig. They lost in this battle forty pieces of cannon, with 12,000 wounded and prisoners. General Blucher's loss is estimated at 6 or 7000 killed and wounded. On the same day, a simultaneous attack was made on the other side by the grand army in the neighbourhood of Wachau and Liebert Wolkowitz. The Russians began by storming two fortified buildings, which covered the front of their enemy's centre. But soon after, Bonaparte collected the whole mass of his cavalry, which, headed by Murat, succeeded in breaking the centre of the allies. The moment was critical; total defeat might have been the consequence. But six regiments of Austrian cuirassiers swept forward, gallantly withstood the efforts of the French, and succeeded in checking their progress. The French had gained some ground; but, upon the whole, this desperate and sanguinary action made no material change in the relative position and strength of the two armies.

On the 17th, (Sunday,) the allies made a pause, with the view of bringing up further reinforcements. General Benningen had, on the advance of prince Schwartzberg, been left to observe Dresden with a large army. When, however, Bonaparte had quitted that capital, and had left it merely defended by St. Cyr, with a garrison of



16,000 men, so great a force was no longer necessary for the purposes of observation; and any active operations against Dresden could be delayed with perfect safety, till the main battle was decided. Benningsen was therefore directed to leave merely a detachment before Dresden, and with all his remaining force to push forward as expeditiously as possible to join the grand army. It is more difficult to account for the inactivity in which Bonaparte remained during this important day. Aware, as he might have been, of the advantages which the allies were deriving from the delay, policy surely dictated, that he should either have attacked before their reinforcements could arrive, or that he should seize the opportunity of effecting his retreat with less molestation. It was contrary to his usual system and character thus to linger, and allow the allies to choose their own moment for attack. Some minor changes however were made in the disposition of the French army. The whole was drawn closer around Leipzig. To the north it was withdrawn behind the river Partha, which afforded an advantageous defensive line. On the south it retired from Liebert Wolkowitz and Wachar, where the battle of the 16th had been fought, into the interior line of Konnewitz, Proflistheyda, and Steteritz. He succeeded also on this day in making an opening through the allied line along the Saale in the direction of Weissenfels. Thus he at once secured to himself a retreat, and cut off the communication, unless by signals, between the two opposite armies.

The 18th of October at length appeared. It was a day equal in importance to many a century; and, the fewer history can produce that deserve to be classed along with it, the more memorable it will remain. All that preceded it had merely opened the way; and there were yet almost inaccessible cliffs to climb before the continent could flatter itself with the hope of full deliverance. The leaders of the allies had already shown the ablest French generals, in several grand engagements, that they possessed sufficient means and talents to dissolve the charm of their invincibility. They were now about to enter the lists with the hero whom a thousand panegyrists, during a period of near twenty years, had extolled above the greatest generals of ancient and modern times; whose enemies had to boast of but one victory over him at most—a victory which he himself did not admit, as he ascribed the total destruction of his army in Russia to physical causes alone. It was the conqueror of Marengo, Austerlitz, Friedland, Ratisbon, Wagram, and Mojaisk. Fresh laurels entwined his brow at Lutzen, Bautzen, and Dresden. Here at Leipzig the allies attempted to wrest them from him who grasped so firmly. It was easy to foresee that with unshaken resolution he would risk all, in order, as on former occasions, to gain all, and to put an end to the campaign with a single blow. He seemed to contemplate nothing less than the utter annihilation of the allies, as all the bridges far and near were broken down to cut off their retreat. Whether the situation in which he had placed himself was such as to justify these hopes, we must leave to the decision of those who are better qualified to judge. His confidence in victory must, however, have been very strong, as he had made such inadequate preparations for his own retreat.

The action commenced in the centre of the French army beyond Probstheide, with the storming of the villages in its front, which were several times taken and recovered; and were reduced to heaps of rubbish. That the work of slaughter might be completed on this day, it had been begun with the first dawn of morning. So early as nine o'clock all the immense lines from Taucha to Konnewitz were engaged. From Löfzig, a village situated beyond Konnewitz, a hollow, about two thousand paces in length, runs from north-west to south-east. It is bordered with a narrow skirt of wood, consisting of alders, limes, and oaks, and forms an angle with the village. Beyond this line were advanced several French batteries, the incessant movements of which, as well as every single shot,

might be clearly distinguished at Leipzig with glasses. The French artillery formed an open triangle; for the road which runs straight from Leipzig, behind Konnewitz through Dehlis and Löfzig, of course from north to south, was also lined by French batteries. The houses of those villages had served them for a *point d'appui* in the rear, and were most of them dreadfully shattered by the balls of the Austrians. The artillery of the latter seems to have had a great advantage in regard to the ground. The French cannon brought into the line from Konnewitz to Dehlis and Löfzig stood in a hollow—those of the Austrians on eminences. These last had moreover the advantage of enfilading the two angles formed by the batteries of the French. That this had actually been the case, was evident from the numbers of French cannoniers and horses lying dead in rows in the line of the above-mentioned villages, where they had been swept down by the guns of their opponents. On the eminences where the hostile cannon were planted the number of dead was much smaller; and these were not artillery-men, but infantry, who were engaged in covering those batteries. This pass must nevertheless have been obstinately defended, as it was not taken the whole day. The fire of musketry grew more and more brisk—a proof that the combatants were already in close action. The French tirailleurs could not be driven out of the woods, on which their right wing was supported. All the villages lying beyond Konnewitz, on the road to Bornä, as far as Markleberg, were on fire. The main attack was made by Bernadotte. Being at the head of the Partha river, where the passage was least difficult, he was in the most advantageous position for approaching Leipzig. Blücher therefore, to enable him to act with greater effect, reinforced him with 30,000 men from his own army. The passage was effected almost without resistance, and 3000 prisoners were taken at Taucha. The French fell back towards Leipzig, covering their retreat by the villages of Sonnerfeld, Parmisdorf, and Schonfeldt. From these however they were finally driven. The success at this point was greatly promoted by an unexpected event. The seventh corps of the French, under general Regnier, was in the left wing, and posted towards Taucha. It was principally composed of Saxons. They had just come into action; and the allies had already brought up a great number of guns against them. To the no small astonishment and consternation of their leader, they suddenly shouldered their arms, marched forward in close files with their artillery, and went over to the enemy. Several French battalions, misled by this movement, joined them, and were immediately disarmed and made prisoners by the allies. The French cuirassiers, suspecting the design of the Saxons, followed, apparently with the intention of falling upon them. The Saxons faced about, and compelled them, by a smart fire of musketry, to return. A volley of small arms was discharged after them, but with no more effect—it did them no injury. Their horse-artillery turned about, and soon dismounted that of the French. They were greeted with a joyful *hurrah* by the Cossacs, who cordially shook hands with their new comrades. The Saxons desired to be immediately led back to the attack of the French. The generals of the allies refused, on very good grounds, to comply with their desire: they were marched a league into the rear of the field of battle, and there bivouacked: but their artillery was invited to take part in the engagement, and did great execution. This defection decided the fate of the day, and of Bonaparte.—The allied armies, bearing in from different points, now carried every thing before them. Towards evening they had formed their junction with the army of the north; and thus the united forces of all the allied powers were established almost immediately beneath the walls of Leipzig.

Bonaparte felt at length, and too late, that no means remained to him of farther resistance. A great part of his army had perished in the preceding battles; and the preponderance of the enemy, already considerable,



had been greatly augmented. Of those who remained in his ranks a great proportion were enemies, more formidable from not having yet openly declared themselves. All his outposts and fortified lines were gone; and no prospect remained, but that the victorious encircling armies would storm him in this last retreat, and all his troops be destroyed or captured. He no longer therefore delayed retiring by the avenue which still remained open. The evening had scarcely closed, when the whole army began to defile by the road leading to Weissenfels. The passage, narrowed as it was at present, was attended with much impediment. Five or six rivers here running parallel and close to one another, and requiring bridges over each, formed a long and narrow defile, through which an encumbered army could march only slowly and with difficulty. Day broke, and only part of the troops was on the other side. Bonaparte then caused the magistrates of Leipzig to send a deputation, requesting that hostilities might be suspended for the purpose of arranging a capitulation. The object of this demand was evident; he merely wished to retreat unmolested, and extricate his army from their present embarrassment. It was determined that such a respite should by no means be granted. The emperor Alexander received the messenger in person; and, in presence of the army, announced to him this resolution. The allied forces were then led on to the attack; after a short resistance, the city was carried; and, about eleven o'clock, the emperor of Russia, the king of Prussia, and the crown-prince of Sweden, arriving from different quarters, met in the great square of Leipzig, amid the triumphal acclamations of the army and people. Bonaparte had quitted the city about two hours before, leaving a large party of his army. To them the disaster was greatly increased, when the confederate forces, on entering the city, were joined by all the remaining Saxon and other German troops. The French, now attacked and fired upon on every side, no longer knew where to turn; the narrow bridge was soon choked by crowds of fugitives trampling upon each other. The passage was stopped; prisoners were taken by thousands; and of the few who endeavoured to save themselves by swimming, most perished in the waters. The whole rear-guard of the French army, including some of its most distinguished commanders, and 100 pieces of cannon, fell into the hands of the confederates. Among the prisoners were Regnier, Brune, Vallery, Bertrand, and Lauriston. Macdonald with difficulty gained by swimming the opposite bank; but prince Poniatowky, in endeavouring to do the same, sunk, and was drowned. This unfortunate prince (Joseph Poniatowky) was nephew to Stanislaus-Augustus, the last king of Poland; and no doubt had been cajoled into a subservience to the views of Bonaparte by the flattering prospect of the restoration of his country to its former rank among the nations of Europe. The circumstances attending his death, as related by his aid-de-camp, are as follow: When the French army began to retreat, the prince was charged by Napoleon with the defence of that part of the suburbs of Leipzig which lies nearest to the Borna-road; for this service he had only 2000 Polish infantry assigned him. Perceiving the French columns on his left flank, in full retreat, and the bridge completely choked up with their artillery and carriages, so that there was no possibility of getting over it, he drew his sabre, and, turning to the officers who were about him, "Gentlemen," said he, "it is better to fall with honour." With these words he rushed, at the head of a few Polish cuirassiers and the officers surrounding him, upon the advancing columns of the allies. He had been previously wounded on the 14th and 16th; and on this occasion also received a musket-ball in his left arm. He nevertheless pushed forward; but found the suburbs full of the allied troops, who hastened up to take him prisoner. He cut his way through them, received another wound through his cross, threw himself into the Pleisse, and with the assistance of his officers reached the opposite bank in safety, leaving

his horse behind in the river. Though much exhausted, he mounted another, and proceeded to the Elster, which was already lined by Saxon and Prussian riflemen. Seeing them coming upon him on all sides, he plunged into the river, and instantly sunk, together with his horse. Several officers, who threw themselves in after him, were likewise drowned; and others were taken on the bank or in the water. The body of the prince was found on the fifth day (Oct. 24), and taken out of the water by a fisherman. He was dressed in his gala uniform, the epaulets of which were studded with diamonds: his fingers were covered with rings set with brilliants; and his pockets contained snuff-boxes of great value, and other trinkets. Many of those articles were eagerly purchased by the Polish officers who were made prisoners, evidently for the purpose of being transmitted to his family: so that the whole produced the fisherman a very considerable sum.

Ill-fated Poniatowki! through all his illustrious course, ever most unfortunate when his cause was purest; happy only in closing it when there was no alternative but dishonour, and when life must have been miserable alike in victory or in defeat! Devoted from his earliest years to his country; seeking her enemies in every field; astonish- ing the veteran companions of Pulawski and Zarembo by his romantic valour; the delight of the young and the gay, whom he outshone in court and camp; the likeness of a king for dignity of presence, of an ancient cavalier for his high-bred gallantry; zealous in friendship, to which he would sacrifice all but honour and love; an enthusiast for liberty; but unmindful that there were other tyrants beside Frederic and Catharine—how melancholy to find him beguiled by the deceitful promises of one who never spoke of freedom but with the design to enslave. What a lesson to princes, when they view the very flower of their subjects, the men best fitted to adorn and fortify their thrones, driven into exile, and submitting to those they should have fought against, after proving, to the conviction of the coldest heart, that wealth, honours, life itself, were indifferent to them without liberty! Suffice it to say, that he fell as he had lived, in the display of prodigious courage, and overwhelmed with affliction. He was buried with the military honours due to his rank; and a solemn dirge was performed for him, with a splendid ceremonial in the metropolitan church of Warsaw, though now occupied by the Russians. In fact the common license of abuse has been spared by all parties upon this occasion; and not a word has ever been whispered by the allies against *this* coadjutor of Bonaparte—a plain indication, that, confident as they were, and well might be, in their cause against France, they felt what a weak part it had towards Poland.

The king of Saxony, with all his court, ranked among the prisoners. It was far too late now for this monarch to obtain any merit by joining the cause of the allies; and as, contrary to his consent and authority, the whole of his troops already ranged under their standard, there was no service which he could render them. It was judged proper to inflict some chastisement for that injury which, on a former occasion, the common cause had sustained from him;—and he was sent, under a guard, to the castle of Eysenach.

Such was the termination of this great and dreadful succession of combats; to which the annals of Europe, enlanguined as they are, had never yet produced a parallel. Never had the work of destruction proceeded on so vast and terrible a scale; nor had any field been so deluged with the best blood of her sons. Famine and pestilence, which follow in the train of war, were there, and did their part in the work of death. In viewing this dreadful scene, the philanthropic mind could however console itself by reflecting, that thus only could the injured cause of mankind be avenged; and that, through this bloody portal, peace and freedom were to revisit the earth. This was indeed a splendid and immortal triumph; it was one, which, according to all human appearance, afforded



the earnest of a truly golden era, an era of peace and abundance, which should repair the long ravages of war, and in which the principles of improvement, which, after beginning to unfold themselves, had been crushed beneath the tempest, would spring up and flourish anew. Never perhaps, in the annals of history, had so just a cause been crowned with so signal a triumph.

The retreat of Bonaparte was of such a nature as might be expected, with so powerful an army behind, and clouds of light troops far advanced before him. A daily loss of artillery, baggage, and prisoners, marked his course from the Saale to the Maine. On approaching the last-mentioned river, a new obstacle presented itself.—We have noticed the defection of Bavaria. That power seemed anxious, by the most extraordinary efforts, to efface the recollection of all that it had done against the liberties of Germany. General Wrede instantly set out, and, marching with almost unprecedented rapidity, arrived on the Maine before the French army. After possessing himself of Wurtzburg, he proceeded, and took a position in advance of Hanau, by which it was necessary that the French army should pass. Bonaparte was now certainly in very imminent danger of total destruction. Had Blucher followed by the same route which he had taken, this issue could scarcely have been averted. But the Prussian general, by an unfortunate though very natural calculation, had supposed that, as the Bavarian army was on the Maine, Bonaparte would not retire by that route, but would cross the Rhine at Coblenz, upon which place he directed his march. Bonaparte therefore, on approaching Hanau, could turn his whole remaining military force, amounting to 70 or 80,000 men, against the Bavarian army, which did not exceed 30,000. Wrede however, with the most gallant determination, resolved to stand the unequal contest; and for two days this army maintained it gloriously, with severe loss indeed, but without any decisive defeat. Wrede himself received a wound, which threatened to prove mortal, but from which he fortunately recovered. Meanwhile, it was impossible, with forces so inferior, to avoid being pushed so far aside, as that Bonaparte might be able to proceed on the road to Frankfort. He did not stop in that city, but continued his march; on the 7th of November crossed the Rhine with his whole army; and on the 9th reached St. Cloud in safety.

It is pleasing to reflect, that that power which had been the most degraded, insulted, and scorned, by Bonaparte, had the greatest share in inflicting this punishment and disgrace upon him. The Prussians more than redeemed the reproach, and revenged the defeat, of Jena. As for their veteran commander, Blucher, his character was not to be redeemed—it had never suffered reproach. He remained faithful amidst the faithless; and preferred fighting over the degradation of his country in a distant land, to the enjoyment of rank and honours as the instrument of French ambition. He has had his revenge upon the enemies of his country. No officer contributed so much to the present happy posture of the affairs of the allies. Like Gen. Kutusoff, he has given the extreme of old age to the labours and dangers of the field; and, like him, he has lived to see the complete deliverance of his country, and the destruction of its enemies.

On the 13th of November, at noon, Napoleon, being on his throne, received the senate; when count Lacedepede, the president, spoke in these terms: "Sire; The thoughts of the senate have constantly accompanied your majesty in the midst of the memorable events of this campaign; it has shuddered at the dangers which your majesty ran. The efforts of the enemies of France have in vain been seconded by the defection of the allies, by treasons unexampled, by extraordinary events, and by fatal accidents. Your majesty has surmounted them all—you have sought for peace. Before the resumption of hostilities, your majesty offered the assembling of a congress, to which all the powers, even the most insignificant ones, should be called, to conciliate all differences, and lay

down the basis of a peace, honourable to all nations. Your enemies, sire, opposed the assembling of this congress. It is upon them that the whole blame of the war must fall. Your majesty, who knows better than any person the wants and the sentiments of your subjects, knows that we desire peace. However, all the nations on the continent have a still greater occasion for it than we; and if, notwithstanding the wish and the interest of 150,000,000 of souls, our enemies, refusing to treat, should wish, by imposing conditions, to prescribe to us a sort of capitulation, these fallacious hopes would be rendered abortive! Frenchmen will show, by their devotion and by their sacrifices, that no nation has ever better understood its duties towards the country, honour, and the sovereign."

His majesty replied, "Senators, I accept the sentiments which you express towards me. All Europe was with us a year ago; all Europe is now against us; it is because the opinion of the world is regulated by France or by England. We should, therefore, have every thing to dread, but for the energy and the power of the nation. Posterity will say, that, if great and critical circumstances presented themselves, they were not superior to France and me."

The allies continued to advance. At Frankfort, on Dec. 1, they published, jointly, the following Declaration, which was greatly admired for its moderation: "The French government has ordered a new levy of 300,000 conscripts. The motives of the senatus consultum to that effect contain an appeal to the allied powers. They therefore find themselves called upon to promulgate anew, in the face of the world, the views which guide them in the present war; the principles which form the basis of their conduct, their wishes, and their determinations. The allied powers do not make war upon France, but against that preponderance, haughtily announced,—against that preponderance which, to the misfortune of Europe and of France, the emperor Napoleon has too long exercised beyond the limits of his empire. Victory has conducted the allied armies to the banks of the Rhine. The first use which their imperial and royal majesties have made of victory, has been to offer peace to his majesty the emperor of the French. An attitude strengthened by the accession of all the sovereigns and princes of Germany, has had no influence on the conditions of that peace. These conditions are founded on the independence of the French empire, as well as on the independence of other states of Europe. The views of the powers are just in their object, generous and liberal in their application, giving security to all, honourable to each. The allied sovereigns desire that France may be great, powerful, and happy; because the French power, in a state of greatness and strength, is one of the foundations of the social edifice of Europe. They wish that France may be happy—that French commerce may revive—that the arts, those blessings of peace, may again flourish; because a great people can only be tranquil in proportion as it is happy. The powers confirm to the French empire an extent of territory which France under her kings never knew; because a valiant nation does not fall from its rank, by having in its turn experienced reverses in an obstinate and sanguinary contest, in which it has fought with its accustomed bravery. But the allied powers also wish to be free, tranquil, and happy, themselves. They desire a state of peace which, by a wise partition of strength, by a just equilibrium, may henceforward preserve their people from the numberless calamities which have overwhelmed Europe for the last twenty years. The allied powers will not lay down their arms, until they have attained this great and beneficial result, this noble object of their efforts. They will not lay down their arms, until the political state of Europe be re-established anew—until immovable principles have resumed their rights over vain pretensions—until the sanctity of treaties shall have at last secured a real peace to Europe."



On the 19th, Bonaparte repaired in state to the legislative body; where he made the following speech: "Senators, Counsellors of State, Deputies from the Departments of the Legislative Body; Splendid victories have raised the glory of the French arms during this campaign; defections without parallel have rendered these victories useless; all has turned against us. France itself would be in danger, but for the union and energy of the French. In these weighty circumstances, it was my first thought to call you around me. My heart has need of the presence and of the affection of my subjects. I have never been seduced by prosperity; adversity would always find me superior to its attacks. I have several times given peace to nations, when they had lost every thing. From a part of my conquests, I have raised thrones for kings who have forsaken me. I had conceived and executed great designs for the prosperity and the happiness of the world! A monarch and a father, I feel that peace adds to the security of thrones and to that of families. *Negotiations have been entered into with the allied powers: I have adhered to the preliminary basis which they have presented; I had then the hope that, before the opening of this session, the congress of Manheim would be assembled; but new delays, which are not to be ascribed to France, have deferred this moment which the wishes of the world eagerly call for. On my side, there is no obstacle to the re-establishment of peace. I know and partake all the sentiments of the French; I say of the French, because there is not one of them who would desire peace at the price of honour. It is with regret that I ask of this generous people new sacrifices; but they are commanded by its noblest and dearest interests. It was necessary to recruit my armies by numerous levies; nations cannot treat with security, except by displaying their whole strength; and an increase of taxes becomes indispensable. What my minister of the finances will propose to you, is conformable to the system of finance which I have established. We shall meet every demand without a loan, which consumes the future; and without paper-money, which is the greatest enemy of social order. You are the natural organs of this throne; it is for you to give an example of energy which may recommend our generation to the generations to come. Let them not say of us, 'They have sacrificed the best interests of their country; they have acknowledged the laws which England has in vain sought, during four centuries, to impose on France!' My people cannot fear that the policy of their emperor will ever betray the national glory. On my side I feel the confidence that the French will be constantly worthy of themselves and of me."*

We must leave the allies for the present at Frankfort; and proceed to notice, as one of the first effects of the battle of Leipzig, that Reinhard, the landman of Swisserland, in a proclamation, dated Zurich, Nov. 20, declared the neutrality of the cantons. He announced his intention to transmit to the belligerent powers a notification of this event—of his intention to maintain the present constitution—to guard the territory against violation, and to cause this neutrality to be respected, if necessary, by force of arms. The diet of Swisserland voted the landman 40,000 men, to enforce the decree of neutrality.

Another and most important effect of this state of affairs was the liberation of Holland.—The first rising of the Dutch was on the 15th of November. They had understood that the allies were advancing upon Utrecht; and rose accordingly, on the instant, with the old cry of *Orange Boven*, or "Up with Orange." A provisional government was immediately established at the Hague by the armed citizens; and the French, with little or no resentment on the part of the people, began to evacuate most of the principal places on the 17th; and, on the 19th, two deputies were dispatched to this country in order to call over the prince of Orange, and request our assistance for completely driving out their oppressors. His serene highness accordingly, after transacting a variety of busi-

ness, in the afternoon of the 26th set off to his countrymen. Accompanied by lord Clancarty, the British minister, he embarked at Deal on-board the Warrior, captain lord Torrington; and landed at Scheveling on the 30th. His serene highness was received on his landing by an immense concourse of people, with acclamations of the greatest joy, and every possible mark of affection and respect; and proceeded immediately for the Hague, having, upon his landing, issued the following proclamation. "Dear Countrymen! After nineteen years of absence and suffering, I have received with heartfelt joy your unanimous invitation to come among you. I am now arrived; and, I trust, under Divine Providence, that I shall be the means of restoring you to your ancient independence and prosperity. This is my sole object, and I have the satisfaction to assure you, that it is equally the object of the allied powers. It is in particular the wish of the prince-regent of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and of his government. Of this you will be convinced, by the unanimous assistance which that powerful country is immediately going to give you; and which, I trust, will lay the foundation of those old and intimate ties of friendship and alliance which so long made the happiness of both states. I am come, disposed and determined to forgive and forget every thing that has passed. We have all but one common object; which is, to heal the wounds of our native country, and to restore it to its rank and splendour among nations. The revival of trade and commerce will, I trust, be the immediate consequence of my return. All party-spirit must be for ever banished from amongst us. No effort shall be wanting on my part, and on that of my family, to assert and secure your independence, and to promote your happiness and welfare. My eldest son, who, under the immortal Wellington, has proved himself not unworthy of the fame of his ancestors, is on his way to join me. Unite, therefore, dear countrymen, with heart and soul, with me; and our common country will flourish again, as in the days of old; and we shall transmit unimpaired to our posterity the blessings which we have received from our ancestors. Given under my seal and signature, Dec. 1, 1813.

WILLIAM FREDERIC, Pr. of Orange."

We have next to state, that a supplementary revolution has been effected in Holland, absolutely changing the character of the old government, from a republic to a monarchy, and conferring sovereign power on the Prince of Orange, by the style and title of "WILLIAM THE FIRST, SOVEREIGN PRINCE OF THE NETHERLANDS." On the 1st of December, his serene highness made his solemn entry into Amsterdam, amidst the general and enthusiastic joy of the inhabitants, who every-where saluted him by his new appellation; and the same day a proclamation was issued by the general commissaries of the national government in that city, declaring the political arrangement which had been adopted in conformity to the general wish of the Netherlanders. Next day, a sensible and affectionate address was issued by the prince of Orange; in which his serene highness disavows all inclination on his own part to have assumed any other title than that of Stadtholder, so long and so honourably borne by his ancestors; but declaring, that in this respect he submits his will to that of his countrymen.

The sovereign prince has issued a decree, annulling all the duties on customs, and restrictions on trade, in the Dutch ports, imposed by the French, and recurring to the former laws of Holland, with reference particularly to the renewed amicable relations with this country. The commandant of the Brill was taken prisoner, and conveyed in irons to the Hague, with three tons of gold, about 300,000 guilders, of which he had robbed the inhabitants. Gogel, the French minister of finance in Holland, was also taken, and conveyed to the Hague; and a considerable sum of money, exceeding that found on the commandant of the Brill, was taken from him.

The town of Woerden was taken from the French on  
the



the 23d of November, by a party of 250 national guards, who marched from the Hague; but who were next day surpris'd by a superior force from Utrecht, and the town re-taken by storm. The massacre and pillage which took place in consequence almost exceeds belief. The houses were broken open, and plundered of jewels, money, plate, linen, and clothing; what could not be carried away, such as china, glass, feather-beds, and furniture, was thrown into the streets and destroyed. Twenty-four inhabitants were barbarously murdered, and fifty others severely wounded. The blood of the most virtuous husbands and fathers, of the best mothers, of grey-haired elders, of tender infants, stained the walls of their peaceful habitations, and streamed out of the houses along the streets. The ministers of religion, who fled to the altar, were not spared. Men upwards of eighty years of age, and infants in their mothers' arms, were shot or slain by the sword. A woman in child-bed, and who would have been delivered of twins, was shot through the body whilst lying in bed, and the bedstead set on fire. No tears of the poor creatures begging for mercy, no cries of kneeling children, could soften the hearts of these miscreants. On the night of the 27th, they departed with their plunder.

With the exception of Flushing and Bergen-op-Zoom, the whole of Holland was free from French force before the end of the year. Breda was carried in a great measure by a *ruse de guerre*: 300 Cossacs appearing before the town, and giving out that they formed the advanced-guard of an army of 10,000 men, which was approaching, the garrison, 1800 in number, thought of nothing but escaping; for, while 1200 marched off in all haste, 600 were surrounded in the town by the Cossacs, and, without attempting resistance, gave themselves up to half their number.

If we now turn our attention to the peninsula, we shall there see the French eagles flying apace before the English lions, and seeking their safety in the fortresses of the Pyrenees; we shall there witness the successes of our armies under their brave commander advancing towards France, and at length reaching it.

From the period of the retreat of the allied troops into Portugal at the close of 1812, (see p. 303, 4.) to the commencement of the ensuing summer, the armies opposed to each other had remained in a state of almost total inaction. The French were not in a condition to act offensively; and, while the war in the north continued, had nothing more in view than to maintain the ground which they still occupied. But, on the part of the allies, this interval was spent in vigorous preparations for an active and decisive campaign. After the battle of Salamanca, reinforcements had been sent to lord Wellington, to the amount of upwards of twenty thousand men; which, though they did not arrive in time to follow up that success, or to avert the final disasters of the campaign, were now in readiness to take the field. Discipline had been restored by strict regulations, enforced during a long period of repose. The troops at present disposable might be estimated at 80,000 British and Portuguese, with 40 or 50,000 Spanish regulars; while, as they advanced, a numerous guerilla-force might be expected to co-operate. To these were to be added, on the other side of the peninsula, an amount of 50 or 60,000 men, chiefly Spaniards indeed, but a great proportion of these trained under British officers.

The allied forces were spread at this time over a very extensive line. Lord Wellington, with the main body of British and Portuguese, occupied wide cantonments along the northern frontier of Portugal. General Hill, with a part of the army, and with the Spanish force under Murillo, was posted in Estremadura. The second and third Spanish armies, commanded by the duke del Parque and general Elio, were stationed, the one in La Mancha, and the other on the frontier of Murcia and Valencia. The force newly levied in Andalusia, which was called the army of reserve, had set out from Seville under the command of general

Henry O'Donnel, who, from his exploits in Catalonia, had received the title of Conde de Abisbal. To these different Spanish armies there is finally to be added the army of Galicia, which was stationed on the frontier of that province. The chief command in this and the other northern provinces, had been conferred upon Castanos. It was at the particular recommendation and wish of lord Wellington, that he had received this appointment. He was not a man of very brilliant parts, but extremely upright, zealous, and patriotic; as well as attached to the English nation in so peculiar a degree, that to give him the command might be considered almost the same as giving it to lord Wellington. The whole force of the north of Spain, which, besides the regular troops, comprehended numerous bands of hardy guerillas, might therefore be considered as completely under the controul of the British commander.

The positions of the allies formed thus a very wide semicircle round those which the French occupied in the centre of Spain. Upon this circumstance perhaps the latter founded their hopes of a successful resistance; conceiving, that, by the rapid movement of their concentrated forces, they might baffle attacks made from such a variety of different quarters. The plan of the campaign, however, which lord Wellington had formed, was much more profound and judicious. General Hill indeed first threatened Madrid; but, as soon as the season for action arrived, he turned to the left, marched through the Puerto de Banos, and joined the main army which was assembled in the neighbourhood of Ciudad Rodrigo. At the same time, Abisbal was proceeding through Estremadura; and the whole force of the allied armies directed its march northwards upon the line of the Douro. That river, the largest in Spain, had in the preceding campaign proved an important barrier; and the French, who possessed along its northern bank a series of fortified positions, doubtless hoped for a considerable time at least to dispute the passage. Lord Wellington however, by a very able arrangement, completely provided against this obstacle. While the right wing of the army advanced through Salamanca along the country south of the Douro, the left, under sir Thomas Graham, crossed at Torre del Moncarvo, within the Portuguese frontier, and pursued their march along the northern bank. This manœuvre turned all the posts which had been established along that line. The successive dispositions now made baffled at once all the provisions made by the French for arresting the victorious progress of the allies. Their detachments on both sides of the Douro retreated precipitately; and lord Wellington advanced without any obstacle, besides those which nature presented.

On the 24th of May, lord Wellington broke up from Ciudad Rodrigo; and arrived on the 28th at Salamanca, near which place a small detachment of the French rear-guard, which had not retreated with sufficient promptitude, was cut off. On the 31st, the left wing, under general Graham, crossed the Esia, and, passing through Zamora, arrived on the 2d of June at Toro. It had now formed a junction with the Galician army, which composed its extreme left. During the 3d, his lordship halted at Toro, in order that the rear, which had been detained by the difficulties of crossing the Esia, might have time to close in. On the same day, the right wing, which had proceeded along the opposite bank, crossed the Douro by the bridge of Toro; and on the 4th, the whole army marched upon Valladolid.

The French force on the Douro being thus insufficient to stop the rapid advance of the allies, that at Madrid was placed in a very critical situation. By remaining there, it would soon be cut off from the other armies, and from the high road leading to the French frontier. The determination was therefore formed, to abandon the capital without a struggle. On the 27th of May, all the troops which were there and on the Tagus began their retreat, and on the 3d of June crossed the Douro. Although, however, all the French armies were thus united, they did



not attempt to defend Valladolid or the passage of the Pisuerga; but continued their retreat without intermission till they arrived at Burgos. In front of that place, all those corps which were called the "Armies of the Centre of Portugal and of the North" were assembled; and, as it formed the key of the north of Spain, and the last strong hold on this side of the Ebro, it seemed that here, if any where, a great stand was to be made. If, however, they had any intention of receiving the allied army in this position, it was soon relinquished. In the course of the following night they withdrew their whole force through the town of Burgos, having first destroyed the works of the castle as completely as the short interval allowed; and, on the following day, all their troops were in full retreat towards the Ebro. Lord Wellington did not pursue along the main road, where the enemy would have been prepared to dispute the passage of the river, and where his progress would have been obstructed by the strong fortresses and defiles of Pancorbo; but caused the whole army to make a movement on its left, by less-frequented roads, with the view of passing the Ebro near its source. The enemy, to whom this manoeuvre seems to have been unexpected, had made no provision for guarding these passages: Lord Wellington therefore crossed without opposition at St. Martin Rocamunde and Puente Arenas. He had now not only overcome the barrier of the Ebro, but was in a condition to threaten the rear of the enemy, and his communications with France.

The British general then directed his march upon Vittoria, which the French had made their central dépôt in the frontier provinces. To oppose his progress, they hastily collected at Ficas and Espejo such troops as were in the neighbourhood, or could be thrown across from Pancorbo. These advanced to meet the allies; but, though for the moment superior in number, they were quickly repulsed. On the 19th, he arrived at Subijana on the Bayas, when he was only twelve or fifteen miles distant from Vittoria. The enemy had remained at Pancorbo, and seemed determined to maintain themselves, if possible, in that strong position. Seeing however the allied army on the point of establishing itself on their rear, they broke up from thence on the night of the 18th, and hastened to take up a position in front of Vittoria, which they effected on the 19th. The French were commanded by Joseph Bonaparte in person, marshal Jourdan being his major-general.

Lord Wellington spent the 20th in collecting his divisions, which had been somewhat scattered by the rugged and difficult country through which they had hastily marched; and also in reconnoitring the position of the enemy, with the view to an attack on the following day. The whole front of the French army was covered by the river Jadera, which flowed in an irregular line from north-east to south-west, in front of Vittoria. The right wing occupied that city and its neighbourhood, and defended the passages over the river immediately leading to it. The centre and left extended downwards along the Zadora, terminating at a range of heights near the village of La Puebla. Upon these observations was founded the plan of attack for the following day.

The first operation of Lord Wellington was to occupy, by means of Murillo's Spanish division, the heights of La Puebla, on which the enemy's left rested. In permitting this to be effected with little resistance, they seem to have committed a capital error, of which they immediately became sensible; and they made vigorous efforts, and poured detachment after detachment, in order to regain possession of them. Lord Wellington, however, supported the troops posted there in such a manner, that they were still able to maintain their ground. Meantime, under cover of the possession of these heights, General Hill crossed the Zadora, and was immediately followed by three other divisions higher up. These troops, composing the main force of the army, and nearly all the cavalry and artillery, made dispositions for attacking both flanks of the enemy's cen-

tre. The French were not prepared for this attack; they had weakened their centre, for the purpose of making their fruitless attack against the heights on the left; and seeing that, when thus hard pressed, their efforts to maintain this position would be unavailing, they abandoned it, and the whole of their centre and left retreated upon Vittoria. Meanwhile general Graham, with the British left, was carrying on those operations which were to render victory decisive. The enemy had here a considerable force in advance of the Zadora, and occupying several strongly-fortified villages, by which the high roads to Bilboa and Bayonne were defended. General Graham, whose force consisted chiefly of Portuguese troops supported by the Spaniards under Longa and Giron, succeeded in expelling the enemy from all these positions, and driving him across the Zadora. The bridges, however, being strongly guarded, he was himself unable to gain the other side, until it had been cleared by the victorious right and centre. The left then crossed also, and joined in the pursuit. In consequence of general Graham's success, the French were cut off from the high road into France, the most advantageous, and that by which all their arrangements for retreating had been made. They were forced to retire by the more difficult and circuitous route of Pamplona, upon which they had made no provision of fortified positions to cover this movement. They had thus no means of making a stand at any one point for a length of time sufficient to enable them to carry away their artillery and equipments. Near Vittoria, therefore, the whole fell into the hands of the pursuers. Never was an army so completely stripped. Baggage, artillery, ammunition, camp-equipage, all was taken; even vast quantities of treasure were thrown down the rocks, and collected by the pursuing troops. The allied army, in this most legitimate plunder, found some solid reward for the glorious toils through which they had passed. Of 153 pieces of cannon, the enemy carried with him one gun and one howitzer only. They passed by Pamplona, but without stopping at that fortress, and pursued their retreat over the Pyrenees into France.

Lord Wellington, with the main body, followed the French force which was retreating by the route of Pamplona; and on the 27th that place was invested. So little had the enemy foreseen the rapid sweep by which the allied army was to be carried to the crest of the Pyrenees, that this almost-impregnable fortress, and grand key of the peninsula, was left with provisions for only a very few months. Considering its strength, and the great loss that must have been incurred in reducing it by force, it appeared more advisable to employ a blockade, which, from its unprepared state, could not be protracted to a very long duration. After a short interval, the charge of maintaining this blockade was committed to the army of reserve of Andalusia, commanded by the conde de Abisbal. The conde had previously reduced the fortress of Pancorbo, which then interrupted the communication of the allies along the high road between Burgos and Vittoria. The castle being of great strength, he compelled it to surrender by cutting off the supply of water; and the garrison, amounting to 700 men, became prisoners of war.

General Clausel, on the day of the battle, was with two divisions at Logrono, a considerable town upon the Ebro. The result of the action cut him off from the main body; yet he still lingered till the 25th, in hopes perhaps of finding an opportunity to make his way through. He then set out, and proceeded with such expedition, that he reached Tudela before the allies, and had then the route open before him to Saragossa. He was followed by Mina, with numerous detachments of Spanish light troops. Clausel did not attempt to make a stand at Saragossa; but, leaving a detachment under general Paris, passed by a circuitous route through Iaca across the Pyrenees, to rejoin the main body. Paris, on the approach of Mina, retreated in the same manner, leaving merely a garrison in the castle, which was soon compelled to surrender. Thus was recovered, almost without a struggle, this important city; so renowned



nowned for its immortal defence, which had cost two sieges and three armies to France.

While these events took place on the right of the army, general Graham, with the left wing, composed chiefly of Portuguese and Spaniards, advanced on the high road from Vittoria to Bayonne. The French now evacuated all their stations in Biscay, except Santona and St. Sebastian; and, uniting their garrisons to the division of the army of the north, which was at Bilboa, they assembled a force somewhat more considerable than had at first been supposed. They made a pretty brisk stand in disputing the frontier-positions. Their first effort was at the junction of the road from Pamplona with that from Bayonne; they posted themselves on a hill commanding these two roads, and seemed determined to maintain it. A vigorous attack, however, by Lieut.-col. Williams, quickly dislodged them; and they then retreated into Tolosa, a town slightly fortified; and, by barricading the gates, and occupying convents and large buildings in the vicinity, they succeeded in rendering it a strong position. It was necessary to bring forward a nine-pounder, in order to burst open one of the gates. The allies entered; but it was already dark, and the troops of all the different nations were confusedly mixed, and could scarcely be distinguished. The perplexity thus occasioned enabled the French to escape with smaller loss than they must otherwise have incurred. The enemy now made their last stand on the Bidassoa, which forms here the boundary between Spain and France. They were driven across it by a brigade of the army of Galicia under the command of general Castanos; and they burnt the bridge over the river. Port Passages, a harbour of considerable importance at the mouth of the Bidassoa, was then taken by Longa, and its garrison of 150 men made prisoners. A Spanish division then invested St. Sebastian's.

From this brilliant career of the allies in the north of Spain, we must now turn to the operations which took place on the eastern coast of the peninsula. In Catalonia and Valencia the French still maintained a very large force, and were in possession of numerous fortresses, some of which ranked with the strongest in Europe. The importance of this military force was greatly increased by the distinguished ability of Suchet, under whose command it was placed. This commander now occupied a position in front of Valencia, at St. Felipe, on the line of the Xucar. The allies, on the other hand, had collected a very considerable force in and near Alicant. Several British and native regiments had been withdrawn from Sicily; a large force, drawn from the population of the neighbouring provinces, had been organized in the Balearic islands under British officers, and was now commanded by generals Roche and Whittingham. These could act in combination with the second Spanish army under general Elio, which was drawn up along the frontiers of Murcia.

About the middle of April, the Anglo-Spanish army under sir John Murray came out of Alicant, and advanced to Castellá. General Elio at the same time took post at Yesla and Villena. It appears, however, that these different corps had not been in a state of sufficiently close combination. Suchet saw the advantage which might be derived from the oversight. Collecting his whole disposable force, he on the 11th of April attacked the corps of general Elio unsupported by the rest of the allies; drove it with some loss from Yesla, and, having invested the castle of Villena, compelled it, with its garrison of 1000 men, to surrender next-day at discretion.

Having thus succeeded as to the Spanish army, Suchet proceeded to the attack of the British positions. On the 12th at noon he assailed the advanced posts at Biar, under Col. Adam. The resistance was vigorous, and was maintained against a superior force for five hours; and Col. Adam at length fell back upon the main body only in compliance with the orders of Gen. Murray. Suchet proceeded on the following day, to attack the main position at Castellá. It was one of considerable strength. The right of the allied army was defended, along the

whole front, by a deep ravine, while on the left, where the ravine terminated, it occupied a pretty extensive range of hills. Suchet began by threatening the right with a strong body of cavalry: the allied force, however, remained secure in its strong position, and declined an encounter upon this ground. Suchet then, with all his columns united, made a desperate attack against the range of hills upon which the left was posted. The allied force, consisting of Col. Adam and Gen. Whittingham's divisions, repulsed the onset in the most gallant manner; the enemy were completely driven back, and forced to commence a hasty retreat. As his superiority in cavalry gave him great advantages for proceeding in the direct line, general Murray commenced a flank movement by Alcov, in hopes of reaching first the entrenched camp at St. Felipe. It is stated however that, the French having reached Alcov only a quarter of an hour before the allies, this plan was frustrated. Sir John Murray then returned to his position. In this action Suchet for the first time experienced the valour of British troops; and, in contending with them, was for the first time defeated by his wonted invincibility. The allied army, however, did not make any attempt to follow up its success. The advance from Alicant indeed appears to have been made, less with the view of pushing forward in that direction, than of seconding the grand operation in the north of Spain, and of preventing Suchet from detaching any of his force in that direction.

About the same time, however, that lord Wellington began to move from Salamanca, sir John Murray, under his direction, undertook a new plan of operations. On the 28th of May, he embarked at Alicant the whole force under his command, and sailed, on the 31st, for the coast of Catalonia. At the same time the duke del Parque, with the third Spanish army, united himself with general Elio, for the purpose of pressing upon Valencia and the army of Suchet. The combined force landed on the 3d of June at Salon Point, and immediately invested Tarragona. At the same time a detachment was sent against the fort of St. Felipe, which commanded the principal road leading from Tortosa. This service was successfully accomplished by the exertions of Col. Prevost, and Capt. Adam of the Invincible. Meantime sir John Murray continued for eight or ten days the siege of Tarragona; but the place still held out, and there appeared no prospect of reducing it till after an interval of the same duration. Intelligence was then received, that general Mathieu had set out from Barcelona with 9 or 10,000 men, and had, on the evening of the 11th, passed through Villa Franca on his way to Vendrello, only twenty miles distant from Tarragona. It was also learned, that Suchet, with nearly the same force, had passed through Valencia, and was evidently on his way to operate a junction with Mathieu, and attack the allied army. On considering these circumstances, sir John Murray conceived it impossible to accomplish his object, and determined to re-embark his troops without delay. So urgent did the danger appear to him, that a considerable proportion of the cannon was left in the trenches, lest, by the delay of a day, the change of weather or the arrival of the enemy should render the re-embarkation impossible.

No sufficient light has yet been afforded to enable us decidedly to form a judgment on a transaction so humiliating to the British arms. A court-martial was expected, but none has hitherto been held; and it would rather seem, that sir John's friends are availing themselves of the oblivion into which more interesting subsequent events have thrown this expedition, to avert all enquiry into the conduct of it. In considering the expedition more particularly, it seems scarcely possible to avoid the suspicion of some error, either in the conception or execution of it. From the moment that the British landed so great a force at Tarragona, it became obvious to the plainest capacity, that, both from Valencia and from Barcelona, all the French disposable troops would be instantly drawn towards



wards that point. What amount they could thus assemble, might, with any tolerable information, have been easily ascertained. If then that amount was such, that the British force could not even think of facing it, this expedition was from the beginning quite hopeless. At the same time we entertain doubts, whether the disparity was so very extreme as sir John Murray seems to have apprehended. A great part of his troops were indeed Spanish; but they were disciplined and commanded by British officers, and had shown repeatedly that they were capable of successfully maintaining a contest with those of the enemy. The two armies, besides, which were to be united against him, came from opposite and distant quarters; and the British were in possession of all the high roads by which they could communicate. An active commander might have seized the opportunity of striking a blow before the junction; and certainly the difficulties were such as must have interposed a considerable delay before it could be effected. With regard, above all, to the leaving of the cannon in the trenches, it surely behoved a commander to pause, before he exposed the British arms to so signal a dishonour. No enemy was at hand; and the only danger was, lest the weather, at present favourable, should change, and become unfit for embarkation. Of this point, admiral Hallowell was the natural judge; and his opinion it appears was decidedly for remaining. He even engaged, provided sir John would merely delay his departure till night, that he would bring off every cannon. But the general, "having taken his part," immediately put it in execution; a resolution in which, with the information possessed by us, we can see no symptoms of any thing but the most frightful panic.

General Murray was succeeded in the command by lord William Bentinck; who conveyed the troops back to Alicante. While Suchet marched towards Tarragona, the Spanish generals, the duke del Parque, Elio, and Villacampa, advanced from different points upon Valencia. Suchet, on hearing of the re-embarkation of general Murray, immediately hurried back, in hopes of striking a blow against some one of these corps; but they all succeeded in making their retreat without serious loss.

We shall now return to the operations of the grand army.—The two fortresses of Pamplona and St. Sebastian, forming the keys of the principal entrance into Spain, were invested, as we noticed, at the same time; and their fall might be considered as in a great measure closing the peninsula against French invasion. Pamplona, being imperfectly supplied with provisions, was subjected to a blockade, which, in the course of a few months, must, if not relieved, infallibly reduce it. St. Sebastian was better prepared; and its maritime position rendered it almost impossible to prevent succours and supplies from being continually introduced. As it possessed no strength therefore which precluded the hope of speedily reducing it by force, that mode of siege appeared most adviseable. Sir Thomas Graham, who conducted it, began his operations against the convent of San Bartolomeo, which the French had occupied in great strength, and had converted into a formidable outwork. A battery was established on the 14th of August; yet, after it had played for two days, the defences appeared still so strong, that a new one was begun; but, this not being ready on the morning of the 17th, general Graham determined, on that day, no longer to delay the assault. The valour of the British and Portuguese troops surmounted every obstacle; the place was stormed; the enemy driven down the hill on which it is situated, and forced, after burning the village of St. Martin, to withdraw precipitately into the town of St. Sebastian. The allies suffered some loss by a too-eager pursuit. The trenches were now immediately opened against the body of the place; and there appeared a very fair prospect of its being compelled to a speedy surrender.

Lord Wellington had established his head-quarters at Lesaca, a small distance from St. Sebastian's. The two roads leading to Pamplona were meanwhile covered by di-

visions of the British army; one under general Hill in the Puerta de Maya, the other under general Byng, on the extreme right, at Roncesvalles. On the 24th of July, Soult (who had now been sent back from Germany to take the chief command in Spain) attacked in great force the position occupied by general Hill, who, though driven from it at first by superior numbers, had recovered the most essential point of it, and would soon have regained the whole; but in the mean time an attack on a much greater scale, with between 30 and 40,000 men, was made upon general Byng's position at Roncesvalles; and, though reinforced by another division under sir Lowry Cole, the British force was at length overpowered, and compelled to give way. They took post at Zerbiri; and general Hill, whose rear was now threatened, fell back upon Iruiria.

These corps had thus lost their direct communication with the force under lord Wellington, and were left alone to defend the blockade of Pamplona against the overwhelming force with which the enemy were pouring in to relieve it. Two British divisions, with a small part of the Spanish force covering the blockade, took a position immediately in front of the place. On the 27th, Soult arrived in sight of the walls of Pamplona, and immediately began operations for its relief. Not having yet brought up all his troops, he contented himself with attacking a hill, which formed an important part of the British position. A Spanish and Portuguese regiment however, with the 40th British, defended it against all his efforts. On the 28th, another British division arrived; and the enemy, also reinforced, began a contest of the most furious and sanguinary description. His main efforts were directed against the fourth division under general Picton; but they were every-where frustrated, unless at one point, where, a Portuguese battalion having been overpowered, the enemy were enabled to establish themselves on our line. By the united efforts of the neighbouring regiments, however, they were driven from the heights with immense loss, and were unable to make any farther efforts on this side. In the course of the 28th, generals Hill and Dalhousie arrived with their divisions, and placed themselves in line with the rest of the British force. On the 29th and 30th, these two great armies continued to view each other, neither daring to attack the formidable heights on which its antagonist was posted. But, in the course of these days, the enemy silently withdrew a considerable body of troops from the front, where the former actions had taken place, and conveyed it to their right, with a view of attacking the British left under sir Rowland Hill; trusting to the natural strength of the original position, that the troops remaining would still be able to maintain it. On the 30th accordingly, general Hill was attacked, and obliged to fall back from the range of hills which he occupied to the one immediately behind. But, lord Wellington seeing the point weakened, instantly seized the opportunity: he detached lord Dalhousie and general Picton to drive the enemy from the formidable heights on which their right and left rested; which being effected, the centre advanced to join in the attack. These operations were crowned with the most brilliant success, and the enemy were quickly driven from one of the strongest positions which it was possible for troops to occupy. The French were now in full retreat towards their own frontier. In order to cover this operation, they placed a strong rear-guard in the pass of Donna Maria, from which however they were driven by lord Dalhousie. This retreat now resembled a flight. Many prisoners were brought in, and a large convoy, with luggage, taken at the town of Elizondo. They endeavoured however to make a new stand at the Puerto de Echalar, immediately within the Spanish frontier. But two of their divisions were quickly driven from these heights by a single British division; and the respective armies were replaced in the same position as before they had begun their formidable attack. The loss on both sides was great, perhaps nearly equal; for in  
neither



neither was there any rout, or any detachments entirely cut off. It is estimated, on the part of the allies, in killed and wounded, at 7000.

Meantime, the assault of St. Sebastian's, to avert which had been the main object of Soult's daring enterprise, did not lead immediately to the expected result. A breach having been effected, and the approach of the enemy rendering it expedient to lose no time, the assault took place on the morning of the 25th of August. Every thing was done which could be expected from the gallantry of British troops; and part of the column even forced its way into the town; but defences had been raised, which poured upon its flanks such a torrent of grape and musketry, as soon convinced general Graham, that to persevere longer would be a vain sacrifice of troops which deserved a better fate. Immediate retreat was ordered. In this attack, the royals, who advanced to the attack 400 strong, lost nearly 300 in killed and wounded. The breach having thus proved impracticable, all the operations of the siege were to begin anew. The repulse of the French army, however, had left the assailants at full liberty to carry them on. The first object was to cut off the communication which the besieged carried on by sea with the coast of France. Sir George Collier, with a party of marines, stormed the island of Santa Clara, which lies at the mouth of the harbour, and took the garrison prisoners. Meantime new breaching-batteries were raised, and carried forward with such vigour, that on the 31st of August it was determined to make a new assault. The result of this however appeared in the first instance still more unpromising than the former. The enemy had employed the long interval allowed them in preparing defences of every possible and conceivable kind; and the breach which, at a distance, had appeared very ample, proved to be of such a nature, that it would admit the men only in single files. All the works and buildings in its vicinity were filled with troops, who, covered by intrenchments and traverses, could pour the most destructive fire on the assailants. Matters seemed quite desperate, till the genius of the commander suggested a resource. This was, to direct the guns to be fired over the heads of his own troops against those works of the enemy from which so destructive a fire issued. With such ability and precision was this delicate action conducted, that the balls passed within a very few feet of the British troops, without doing them any injury. A powerful effect was soon produced; and, after a succession of vigorous efforts, the storming party was at length established within the town. Defences had been prepared in the streets and houses; but these were soon swept away by British impetuosity, and in an hour more the garrison were driven out of the town, and forced, after a severe loss, to take refuge in the castle. On the 9th of September, the castle surrendered, and the whole of this important bulwark of Spain was transferred to its rightful possessors.

On the 31st of October, Pamplona surrendered, after a blockade of four months. The garrison became prisoners of war, and all the artillery and stores were given up.

Nothing now detained lord Wellington from pushing his victorious career into France; and the French, who had so lately aimed at the entire subjugation of the peninsula, fought only to defend the approaches to their own territory. They formed two successive lines of defence; the one along the river Nivelle, the other immediately in front of Bayonne. These, ever since the battle of Vittoria, they had been diligently employed in fortifying; and, till they were driven from them, the British could not advance into the interior of the kingdom. The better to provide for its defence, a decree had been recently passed, by which a new levy of thirty thousand conscripts was to be drawn from the provinces immediately bordering on the Pyrenees; and the reinforcements thence derived were beginning to arrive. Lord Wellington's advance was delayed for a few days by the heavy rains and consequent state of the roads; but on the 10th of

November the whole army was brought forward, and enabled to commence its attack upon the French entrenched position along the Nivelle. Their right was on the Spanish side of the river, in front of St. Jean de Luz; while the centre and left extended along the opposite side, and occupied the villages and mountains situated upon its bank. The right had been fortified so strongly, that an attack in front was judged impracticable; but it could be turned, if the centre were made to give way. Against the centre therefore the main attack was directed. It was conducted by three British and one Spanish division, under generals Cole, St. Cyr, Colville, and Giron; and, after a desperate resistance, the enemy were driven from all the strong and fortified positions which they there occupied. At the same time generals Clinton and Hamilton drove them from those which they occupied on the left. All the heights on the Nivelle being thus carried, and the enemy's centre driven back, lord Wellington immediately directed troops to advance upon the rear of their right; but, before this movement could be completely followed out, night intervened. The enemy took advantage of the darkness to quit their impregnable position, and retire upon Bidart, leaving the whole of the ground which they had occupied in possession of the allied army. As the action of this day consisted wholly in the storming of entrenched positions, and lasted from day-light till dark, the loss was necessarily considerable. It consisted of 2500 British and Portuguese killed and wounded; besides Spaniards, of whose loss no regular account has been given.

The enemy now retired into his last line of defence, which was formed by the entrenched camp in front of Bayonne. The left occupied the peninsula formed by the confluence of the Adour and the Nive, from whence it communicated with the army of Catalonia. The right and centre extended from the left bank of the Nive to the Adour below Bayonne; and the front was here defended by an impassable morass. Lord Wellington, on surveying a position thus defended by nature and art, judged it impregnable against any direct attack. The only means by which the enemy could be driven from it was, by a movement to the right, to threaten his rear and his communication with France. Operations were again delayed by the condition of the roads; but on the 8th of December, generals Hill and Beresford were directed to cross the Nive with two divisions. The passage was effected almost without opposition; the enemy lost their communication with St. Jean Pied de Port, and were driven towards Bayonne. A detachment, which endeavoured to maintain the town of Ville Franche, was expelled by the eighth Portuguese regiment; and general Hill placed his right upon the Adour. Soult could not be insensible, that, unless some vigorous measures were taken to arrest this movement, his position would soon be no longer tenable. Not only would he lose his communication with France, but the navigation of the Adour, by which his supplies were transmitted, would be in the hands of his enemy. He determined instantly upon the most vigorous operations. His project was, with his whole force, to attack that part of the allied army which had not passed the Nive, and thus induce them to recall their advanced divisions. With this view he concentrated his troops, leaving merely a sufficient number to defend the works opposite to general Hill; and on the morning of the 10th made a most desperate attack upon the British left under general Hope. He was repulsed with loss; and, after the action, two German regiments came over to the allies. New attacks took place in the afternoon of the following day, and the morning of the 12th; always with the same result. The enemy were uniformly repulsed; and general Hill continued to extend his line from the Nive to the Adour. Soult, having failed in this point of attack, resolved now to direct his efforts against that wing of the allied army which had actually crossed the Nive. With this view, he passed a large force through Bayonne to the other side of that river, and on



the morning of the 13th made a desperate attack on the British right under general Hill. Lord Wellington, foreseeing this attempt, had sent two divisions, and part of a third, to reinforce that portion of the army; but, before their arrival, the contest was decided: general Hill alone had defeated the enemy, and driven him back upon Bayonne. The British army being now completely established upon the Adour, Soult found it no longer advisable to maintain his position in front of Bayonne. He left his entrenched camp therefore, marched up the river towards Dax, and established himself on the small river Gave, which falls into the Adour.

Lord Wellington had thus attained the object proposed by these operations. France was entered—and that territory, which for twenty years had never been trodden by hostile foot, now saw a mighty invading army established within its frontier.

The regency of Spain, we are told, now carried into execution the unanimous vote of the congress, which had ordered a grant of land to be conferred on the marquis of Wellington, as a solid and enduring monument of the gratitude of their nation. Three royal estates were accordingly submitted to the British field-marshal for his choice; and, with that disinterestedness and taste which are known to temper the splendour of his military fame, he gave the preference to that which was lowest in actual value, but which came recommended to his fancy by the beauty of its situation and the amenities of its scenery. It is situated on the river Xenil, in the kingdom of Granada; and its annual produce is estimated at 30,000 dollars.

We shall conclude the history of this campaign with the following character of our British general from the first volume of "Historical Sketches;" a work from which it would be injustice to transcribe too freely, but still greater injustice to do so without giving testimony to the general excellence of the work, and particularly to the author's masterly delineation of character.—"In this age of war, Wellington, next to Bonaparte, makes the greatest figure on the theatre of the world. Lord Wellington had earned great glory previously to his Spanish campaigns. He was known then as a bold and enterprising leader, a character somewhat rare among British generals, who have commonly been brave in action, but timid in counsel. This course was ill suited to the matchless bravery of the troops which they commanded; it tended to keep down the military fame of Britain much below its natural standard. Lord Wellington knew the valour of his troops, and gave it scope; a series of splendid victories was the consequence. Yet, when circumstances prescribed a cautious and protracted warfare, he established a new fame, eclipsing that which he had formerly acquired. Faction had raised up violent and inveterate adversaries, who undervalued all his great actions. He lived to silence these murmurs; to extort panegyrics from his bitterest enemies; and to receive from an united people the tribute of admiration. Of this extraordinary character, the basis appears to us to be a perfectly-sound judgment, combined with indefatigable application, and a perfect knowledge of all the means and resources of war. Promptitude and presence of mind, in the highest degree, place all these qualifications constantly at command. His dispatches also exhibit habits of accurate and laborious calculation, which render him prepared for any emergency, and make it almost impossible that he should be taken by surprise. These certainly form qualities sufficient to constitute a commander of the first order. We shall, perhaps, appear bold in saying, that, beyond these, we do not discern any remarkable degree of what may properly be called military genius. We see the able and judicious application of all the established resources of war; but not the discovery of new combinations; not any splendid display of intellect and invention. If we are called to illustrate this observation by contrast, we can instance none more striking than that of his great rival, [now no longer so.] In almost all

his grand operations, there is something unexpected, amazing, which confounds all calculation, which no common mind could have predicted. We allude, particularly, to the envelopment and capture of the army of Mack, the passage of the Danube at Entzendorf, and to almost every step of his first Italian campaign. But among the many battles which lord Wellington has gained, we scarcely recollect one in which victory was achieved by any grand manœuvre or stroke of genius. Salamanca itself may hereafter appear to be only a doubtful exception. He commits not himself without a fair prospect of success; he gives scope to the energies of British troops; this is sufficient. Perhaps, indeed, from this very circumstance, he may form a safer commander for us than one addicted to these new and daring manœuvres. The circumstances considered under which Britain wages war on the continent, with an army which could not easily be replaced, and with a hard struggle against superior numbers, it is, perhaps, eligible to keep within secure and established limits. These bold strokes are like commercial experiments, always liable, more or less, to failure, and great consequent loss. Lord Wellington is well known to the British public, not only by his sword, but by his pen; his dispatches forming the only authentic channel by which the operations of the British army are transmitted. They do not make the smallest aim or pretension to literary merit; indeed they rather, in this respect, exhibit a marked deficiency. Yet we confess they please us by that absence of all ostentation, that close adherence to plain and practical business, which breathes so strongly in them. They contain nothing superfluous; no rhetorical ornament; no rhodomontade; the plain fact is simply related, as if by an indifferent spectator. This style reminds us considerably of that of Cæsar, though it has not attained to the classic elegance of that celebrated writer and warrior. Both, for example, agree in often using one word repeatedly in the same sentence, disregarding the inelegance thereby caused; and this, which would be a grievous fault in a writer by profession, appears rather a grace in the narrative of a man of business, who has great affairs to relate."

After having dwelt so long on the vicissitudes of the great European war, our readers, we presume, will be satisfied with a very slight outline of what occurred on the other side of the Atlantic.

The American government seems, notwithstanding its failures by land, to have persisted in its purpose of invading Canada. General Dearborn, on the 16th of November, 1812, broke up his camp from Plattsburg, and marched to Champlain, on the Canada-line, the nearest point to Montreal. On the night of the 19th, a detachment of cavalry with 1000 infantry, falling in with a body of travellers and Indians, got into confusion, fired upon one another, and then dispersed. Upon the whole, this grand army, which intended to winter at Montreal, returned to the place it set out from without accomplishing a single object.

At the beginning of the year 1813, the Americans made extraordinary efforts to retrieve the disasters of the former campaign; and they were soon able to re-assemble an army which greatly outnumbered the British. A large force collected from the back settlements again approached Detroit, in the hope of wiping off the dishonour which had been sustained there in the last campaign. (See p. 304.) Colonel Proctor, who commanded the British, judged it inexpedient to delay till the whole of the enemy's troops could be brought forward. On the 22d of January, he attacked the advanced-guard under general Winchester, amounting to upwards of 1000 men, which was posted at French-town, on the river Raisin. The Americans, though they found in the houses and inclosures of the village an advantageous defensive position, were yet unable to withstand the impetuosity of British valour. They were not only defeated, but entirely cut off. All who were not killed and wounded in the action were taken prisoners;



and in this number was general Wincheſter himſelf. This brilliant exploit placed the Detroit frontier, for the preſent, in a ſtate of ſecurity.

Meantime, the Americans maintained alſo a force upon the branch of the St. Lawrence, which connects the lakes Ontario and Erie; and a large detachment poſted at Ogdenſburgh availed itſelf of the frozen ſtate of the river, to make incuſions on the oppoſite bank. In order to put a ſtop to theſe inroads, ſir George Prevot directed major Macdonnell, of the Glengary ſcibles, to diſlodge them from that poſt. His inſtructions were executed in the moſt gallant and ſucceſsful manner: Macdonnell croſſed the St. Lawrence on the 22d of February, and carried, at the point of the bayonet, the fort of Ogdenſburgh in a few minutes. The Americans fled with great precipitation, leaving, according to their own account; 6 killed and 40 wounded. They alſo left behind them 750 ſtand of arms, 13 pieces of cannon, and an immense quantity of ammunition and proviſions. The Britiſh retired after demolishing the works and burning ſome veſſels: their force conſiſted of 600 regulars, and ſome Indian allies. This action was diſtinguiſhed by the heroic valour of Capt. Jenkins, who, after having an arm ſhot off, continued ſtill to run forward and cheer his men to the attack; and, even when he had received another ſevere wound, did not deſiſt, till exhaustion and loſs of blood rendered him unable to move. The Americans, after this check, did not repeat their inroads.

As the ſeaſon advanced, however, forces accumulated from the different ſtates, and their numbers again became decidedly ſuperior. General Dearborn, in the end of April, ſet ſail on lake Ontario with 5000 men; and, evading the vigilance of the Britiſh flotilla, landed them in the vicinity of York, near the head of the lake, and the place of the greateſt importance in that part of Canada. General ſir R. H. Sheaffe, bart. who had not quite 1000, was compelled, after a gallant reſiſtance, to evacuate the place; and the Americans thus at laſt obtained a firm footing on the north bank of the St. Lawrence. About the ſame time, general Vincent was obliged, by a ſtill greater ſuperiority of force, to abandon fort St. George, which formed the main point of defence on the Niagara frontier. To theſe diſaſters was added the failure of an attempt made by Col. Baynes to obtain poſſeſſion of Sackett's Harbour. The detachment was landed, and the enemy were driven with loſs into their blockhouſes and batteries; but theſe were found ſo ſtrong, that it would have been an uſeleſs waſte of men to attempt ſtorming them. The Britiſh force therefore re-embarked. But, the enemy having advanced beyond Forty-Mile Creek to attack general Vincent, who was poſted at Burlington, the latter came upon them by ſurpriſe, on the night of the 5th of June, and forced them to retire with precipitation. The Indians, and the Squadron under ſir James Yeo, then operating on their rear, they were compelled to fall back upon Niagara, and had to maintain in their retreat a ſeries of unſucceſsful actions, in which they loſt a great part of their army, with almoſt all their artillery and baggage. The Britiſh force advanced, and held them nearly in a ſtate of blockade. Landings were effected at Sodus, at the Genefſee-river, and at Platiſburg; the ſtores and proviſions at theſe places were deſtroyed or carried off.

A change of fortune however immediately followed. It began with the army on the Detroit frontier, which till now had been uniformly victorious. Colonel Proctor, having been almoſt compelled by the ſolicitations of the Indians and of ill-diſciplined militia, to make an attempt on the fort of Sanduſky, was repulſed with loſs. The troops were diſheartened by this unwonted reverse; and the American general, Hariſon, preſſing on at the head of 10,000 men, forced them to retreat in confuſion. The country being unfavourable to this movement, he overtook, ſurrounded, and made priſoners of, nearly the whole; the general, with a few attendants, only eſcaping. This diſaſter was followed by another, ſtill more unexpected

and mortifying. Whatever might be the ſuperiority of the Americans on land, it ſeemed reaſonable to expect that on another element Britain would always maintain the predominance. On Lake Erie however the caſe was reversed. This unpropitious circumſtance is ſaid to have been occaſioned by a delay in the tranſmiſſion of a diſpatch from ſir G. Prevot to admiral Warren, demanding a reinforcement of ſhipping. However this may be, nine American veſſels were on the 10th September met only by ſix Britiſh: the unequal conteſt was gallantly maintained; and the Lawrence, the American commander's veſſel, at one time ſtruck; but the Britiſh were not able to take poſſeſſion of her. Relieved by the other ſhips, ſhe again came into action; and the reſult was, that the Britiſh Squadron, after being reduced to a ſtate of almoſt complete wreck, fell entirely into the hands of the enemy. This ſucceſs gave to the Americans the complete command of Lake Erie; combined with the defeat of Col. Proctor, it rendered them maſters of Upper Canada. They already conſidered all Canada as their own; and once more announced their intention of taking Montreal as their winter-quarters.

The preparations, by which theſe magnificent boaſts were to be ſupported, appeared not altogether inadequate to their fulfilment. Three armies, each amounting to nearly ten thouſand men, marched from different points upon Lower Canada about the end of October. While general Hariſon proceeded along Lake Erie, general Wilkinſon embarked his diſiſion upon Lake Ontario, and general Hampton marched direct to Montreal. Theſe troops however were formidable only in number, and poſſeſſed no qualities that could enable them to ſtand the ſhock of troops under Britiſh diſcipline. Hampton's whole corps was arreſted for a day by 300 Canadian militia; and, additional forces coming up, he immediately fell back, and evacuated the province. Wilkinſon ſucceeded in effecting a landing near Kingſton: but Lieut.-col. Morriſon, who was ſtationed at that place with a ſmall detachment, immediately followed him; and an action took place near Cryſtler's Farm, twenty miles above Cornwall. The American army, ſix times ſuperior in number, was totally defeated with the loſs of 1000 men. It then precipitately croſſed the St. Lawrence, and, abandoning its boats, retreated acroſs a difficult country to Platiſburg. The diſaſter did not ſtop here. On the 25th December, a Britiſh and Indian force having ſurpriſed Fort Niagara, deſtroyed or made priſoners of the whole gariſon. They then croſſed, attacked general Hull, who had collected about 2000 men on the other ſide, and put him totally to the rout.

Thus, amid partial reverses, the campaign by land was on the whole glorious and fortunate for Britain.—At ſea too, ſhe regained that ascendancy which naturally belonged to her. Yet the firſt naval event we have to relate is moſt unfortunate.—The Peacock, her brave captain, and her crew, with the exception of a few, ſunk and perished together, whiſt the Britiſh colours waved unfur-rendered over their heads. Such heroism cannot fail to awaken the glow of admiration; ſuch a loſs, to draw the tear of ſympathy and patriotiſm. The following are the particulars: The Peacock of eighteen 18-pounders, Capt. Peake, ſunk, after a moſt gallant action of forty-five minutes, off Demarara, with the American ſloop of war Hornet, of twenty 32-pounders. The Peacock had, before the action cloſed, eight feet water in her hold; and, notwithſtanding every endeavour to pump out the water, ſhe filled ſuddenly, and went down in a moment. Notwithſtanding the humane exertions of the Hornet's people, they could only ſave a quarter-maſter and a few men.

The victory we are now to detail was attended with circumſtances peculiarly gratifying. Captain Broke, of the Shannon frigate, with another ſmall veſſel attending him, had been cruizing for ſome time near the harbour of Boſton, where the Cheſapeake frigate then lay. The latter, though much ſuperior, particularly in men, did not venture to come out. Captain Broke, however, was



anxious to make a trial of valour. On the 1st of June he dismissed the vessel which accompanied him, and, with the Shannon alone, drew up before the harbour of Boston, in a posture of defiance. The Chesapeake accepted the challenge; she came out to decide, as it were, by single combat, this contest between the two nations in maritime prowess. The coast was entirely lined by the inhabitants, who could observe with ease all the vicissitudes of a combat so interesting. The issue remained not long in suspense. The two vessels came almost immediately in contact, and captain Broke, observing that the enemy at this critical moment flinched from their guns, gave immediate orders for boarding. In less than ten minutes the whole of the British crew were on the decks of the Chesapeake. In two minutes more the enemy, after a desperate but disorderly resistance, were driven from every post, and the Americans from the shore beheld the British colours flying over the vessel, which had just left their harbour in full assurance of victory.

Mr. Croker, secretary to the admiralty, in the course of a debate in the house of commons on the 8th of July, passed a warm eulogy on Capt. Broke for his disinterestedness (we understand that he serves without pay), activity, skill, and bravery. He described the action as "in every respect unexampled. It was not—and he knew it was a bold assertion—to be equalled by any engagement which graced our naval annals. Capt. Broke was wounded. This, indeed, was not extraordinary; but the place on which he received his wounds inspired an interest that would be deeply felt; he was wounded on the deck of the enemy's ship.—The Chesapeake had made every possible preparation for the engagement. She came out of harbour in full sail. No other ship was in sight. The contest was to be singly and fairly decided,—if a contest could be called fair where the superiority in numbers, in weight of metal, in dimensions, were all on one side. The Chesapeake's company consisted of 440 picked men; and she was larger than the Shannon by 150 tons. She had on-board 49 guns. The Shannon was manned with 110 hands less than the Chesapeake; and from her class, being a 38-gun frigate, she probably had, although he could not speak with absolute certainty, 44 or 46 guns. Not a shot was fired until they were nearly side and side. The firing was great and rapid; the exchange of broadsides was uninterrupted; but nothing could resist the tremendous attack made by the Shannon. The firing was marked with precision, energy, and a spirit of unabated; as to triumph over all difficulties. The enemy's main chains were locked in the fore-chains of the Shannon. The order for boarding was given by Capt. Broke. Not an instant was lost in carrying the order into execution. The boarders rushed at one and the same moment from every deck—from every part of the Shannon, into the enemy's ship. The Chesapeake was carried, and was in our possession in the course of three minutes. The topmen of the Shannon attacked the topmen of the Chesapeake, and stormed the main top. He was warranted in saying, that the victory was accomplished in less than fifteen minutes, of which only three minutes were occupied in boarding, when 310 British seamen had to contend with 440 of the enemy. Capt. Broke was cut down by a sabre-blow, on the fore-castle of the Chesapeake. During the tremendous firing which was kept up, and the boarding, not a rope of consequence, not a netting, was hurt; and after the victory the two ships sailed away, to use the expression of Capt. Broke, *in the most beautiful order, as if they had only been exchanging a salute!*" Capt. Broke is the eldest son of the late Philip Bowes Broke, of Broke-hall, Naeton, Suffolk, esq. we understand that he has a private estate of about 6000l. per annum; to which the prince regent was now pleased to add the honour of a baronetage. See the article HERALDRY, Plate XCVI.—As to his family, see farther Gent. Mag. 1813. Sept. and Supplement.

A court of common-council, on the 13th of July, voted the freedom of the city of London, and a sword, to Capt.

Broke. And we cannot avoid noticing a happy allusion to the action we have been describing at the recent illuminations, (April 11-13, 1814.) the transparent inscription was, "The Brooke that empties the Chesapeake into the Shannon."

The arrival of admiral Warren at Bermuda had now established the naval superiority of Great Britain in those seas; and a Squadron of light vessels was sent up the Chesapeake, the grand inlet of the North-American states. These made successful descents at various havens along its coast, and upon the rivers at its head. Wherever the British landed, they took possession of the vessels and all public property, without doing any farther injury to the inhabitants. An attempt upon Craney-island did not succeed; but Kent and Swan islands were taken and fortified; and establishments were thus formed at the very head of the Bay. Upon the whole, considerable injury was done to the enemy by these operations, and great alarm excited; but no vital point was reached, nor any of the grand objects of the war materially promoted. Indeed, this desultory and coasting warfare, though a favourite with the British public, is never likely to lead to any important result. Its successes are superficial and passing; while, though the suffering and alarm inflicted may tend in some measure to dispose the minds of the people to peace, this effect must be counteracted in an equal degree by the irritation which it excites.

In this state of things, however, an overture was made, whether spontaneously or secretly invited, by the ambassador of the emperor of Russia, to open a treaty under the mediation of that sovereign. The proposition was received with alacrity by the Americans; and, even before the consent of England had been notified, two envoys were sent to the Russian court, who, in conjunction with the ambassador already resident there, might carry on the proposed negotiation. The British cabinet was placed by this proposal in a very delicate situation. Nothing could be more plausible than this offer to negotiate under the auspices of a monarch who was united to England by the bonds of the strictest alliance. To reject such an offer might even endanger the amity subsisting between the two courts, and which it was so desirable to preserve. On the other hand, the advantages to America, and the dangers to England, from thus conducting the treaty, were alike obvious. In all the questions of neutral privilege, which formed the main ground of discussion, Russia had a common interest with America; she had formerly made war almost upon the same ground. It could not be doubted, therefore, that she would support, with all her influence, the claims of that power. If the rejection of her mediation were likely to give offence, that of the propositions which she might afterwards support and sanction, would probably have consequences still more serious. It was therefore, perhaps, on the whole, wise in the British cabinet to decline, on the most decent possible pretences, this circuitous mode; and to propose opening a direct communication with the American government.

On the 6th of January, 1814, Mr. Madison laid before congress the answer of lord Castlereagh, dated Nov. 4, 1813, to the proposition for a negotiation under the mediation of Russia; in substance declining the mediation, but professing a readiness to treat directly with the United States either in London, or, if that should be objected to, at Gottenburgh. The president also laid before congress the reply he had ordered Mr. Monroe to make, selecting Gottenburgh as the place of negotiation: he has appointed Mr. Clay, speaker of the house of representatives, and Mr. Ruffel of Rhode Island, commissioners, jointly with Messrs. Bayard and Adams, (Mr. Gallatin has since been added,) to conduct the negotiations; and they arrived at Gottenburgh on the 11th of April. But there does not appear to be any armistice in the mean time.

"The question now arises," says the author of Historical Sketches, "whether, in conducting this treaty, any advantage ought to be taken of the prospect which has opened



opened of soon having America alone to contend with? whether the opportunity ought to be embraced, of inflicting chastisement for her conduct, in declaring war against a power which was fighting for the independence of the rest of the world, and even for her own? In our opinion, though justice might sanction such a course, prudence would dissuade from it. Because a very small force has been found adequate to the purpose of defensive warfare, it does not follow, that a much greater one would carry on offensive operations with success. The territory of the United States, extensive, thinly inhabited, and separated from our's by impracticable deserts, affords no fair subject for conquest. The ascendancy so easily maintained at present is plainly owing to this circumstance, that the American armies, though superior in number, possess neither discipline nor experience in war. But these are deficiencies which a protracted contest would infallibly remove; and that which, at present, costs scarcely an effort, might then become a hard and equal warfare. We incline therefore clearly to think, that Great Britain ought in this instance to show an example of moderation; and that, while she does not desist from former, she should forbear to bring forward any additional, claims."

We must now retrace our steps, to speak of a few of the domestic events of this year.

Our hard-working men of the city, the coal-heavers, the draymen, and other labourers, who want sustenance in the midst of their exertions, to compensate the loss of the vital dew forced out of their limbs and oozing on their foreheads; even the henpecked husband who sits hours and hours upon the hard and comfortable's bench of a tap-room because he has a scold at home; all grumbled at the advance of porter to sixpence per pot, which took place in the November preceding, but fell to 5½d at Christmas following.—The distillers, ready enough to follow the example of the brewers, gave notice that after the disposal of their present stock they should raise the price of that popular and so freely-drunk nectar, the GIN. Two causes of dissatisfaction which at first made Mr. Bull prick up his ears, but with which, as with other impositions, he had the good humour (and why not say, the good sense?) to reconcile himself.—Some members of the house of commons, headed by Mr. Whitbread, should enter into a serious enquiry upon the matter of these popular drinks; and consider whether it might not be prudent to establish an *affisa cerevisiæ*? Bread is affised here; meat is tariffed in France; why should not liquors be subjected to the same regulations?—On the other hand, many are for doing-away even the affise upon bread; but upon this we do not presume to give an opinion, as so much might be urged on both sides.

The coals imported into the port of London during the year 1812, amounted to 1,071,361½ chaldrons. Here our astonishment is not only excited by the tremendous consumption of the metropolis; but also raised to the highest degree when we consider what an immense quantity of this useful mineral is treasured in the bosom of the earth, and how many of our fellow-creatures are obliged to deprive themselves of the light and heat of the sun in order to furnish us with this necessary of life.

The following is an account of the net revenue of the Post-office, from the 5th of April 1793, to the 5th of January 1813.

	£	s.	d.	Bro't up	£	s.	d.				
1794	-	-	445,622	7	8	1804	-	-	949,898	17	6
1795	-	-	449,978	2	10	1805	-	-	972,811	4	5
1796	-	-	513,147	5	2	1806	-	-	1,108,840	18	1
1797	-	-	557,732	2	0	1807	-	-	1,161,848	8	4
1798	-	-	636,956	1	8	1808	-	-	1,147,375	13	11
1799	-	-	689,620	9	8	1809	-	-	1,132,209	5	0
1800	-	-	745,313	3	6	1810	-	-	1,251,371	7	7
1801	-	-	800,361	9	8	1811	-	-	1,341,112	16	0
1802	-	-	916,276	1	4	1812	-	-	1,328,266	3	4
1803	-	-	728,871	3	4	1813	-	-	1,414,224	0	7

Car. up £6,483,888 6 10 Total £18,291,847 1 7

The total charge of the public debt in the year ending January 5, 1813, was 34,288,564l.—The sums paid into the exchequer in the same year, on account of the permanent taxes, was 37,597,035l. The same for the war-taxes was 21,181,082l. Total, 58,778,117l.—At the same period the total amount of the public debt was 812,013,135l. and of the unredeemed debt 575,211,393l.

Gold was at this time at 5l. 12s. per ounce; a guinea, in relation to bank-notes, being worth 1l. 8s. 9½d. or a bank-note, in relation to gold, being 13s. 11d. Silver was 7s. 6d. per oz. so that 20 shillings, in relation to bank-notes, was worth 1l. 9s. and a bank-note, in relation to silver, 13s. 9½d.—By a list given in a pamphlet written by lord Lauderdale it appears, that there were at least 114 different kinds of local silver tokens in circulation in various parts of England and Wales, few of which were worth above 13s. to the pound, and many not worth 10s.

The following table of the moneys raised for the public service in various periods, from James II. in 1688, to the year 1813, is taken from official documents.

In the reign of James II. the revenue was	£	s.	d.
William III.	-	-	3,900,000
Anne	-	-	5,700,000
George I.	-	-	6,700,000
George II.	-	-	8,500,000
George III. in 1765	-	-	9,300,000
1770	-	-	9,500,000
1775	-	-	10,000,000
1780	-	-	12,200,000
1785	-	-	14,900,000
1788	-	-	15,500,000
1792	-	-	18,832,465
1793	-	-	22,050,898
1794	-	-	32,102,168
1795	-	-	37,641,736
1796	-	-	60,969,839
1799	-	-	67,634,677
1801	-	-	75,743,475
1805	-	-	81,167,978
1808	-	-	82,225,110
1809	-	-	93,192,742
1810	-	-	97,943,034
1811	-	-	99,110,000
1812	-	-	105,719,000
1813	-	-	113,303,529

At the beginning of the year, a plan was laid at Stuttgart, to kill the king of Wirtemberg. The official account does not enter into particulars, but the following is what is said:—The king was hunting; and, being in a small building which served to conceal his majesty for the purpose of firing upon the game which might pass before it, was suddenly annoyed by the odour of burnt tinder. They examined and searched, but could not discover whence the smell proceeded. The king went out; and a more minute investigation took place under the building. At last powder and inflammable materials were discovered. Shortly after, the building blew up.

Feb. 14, a curious case (Elliott v. Vorley and others) came on in the sheriff's court. It was an inquiry to assess damages for arresting a dead body. The following are the particulars, as stated by Mr. Reynolds, counsel for the plaintiff. The deceased, John Elliott, was indebted to one of the defendants, Baker, a bricklayer, resident in Hoxton, and to another of the defendants, Heafman, a carpenter, a small sum, for work done. On the 3d of October, 1811, John Elliott died; and on the Monday following, Oct. 7, Vorley and Bormer, two officers, (likewise defendants in this case,) came, accompanied by Baker, Heafman, and a journeyman, to the house where Elliott lay dead. In the passage they were met by the plaintiff, John Atkins Elliott, the son of the deceased. Bormer said he wanted Mr. Elliott, and was told by his son that his father was dead. Vorley said, he had a warrant to arrest the deceased at the suit of Heafman and Baker; and enquired of the son where the body lay. The son pointed out the room; but said the door was locked, and that his mother, who had gone



gone out, had got the key; but he expected her every minute. After waiting about five minutes, Bormer went to the door, kicked it violently, and broke it open: he then entered the room where the body lay in a coffin, the lid being over it. Shortly after, a person, unknown to the plaintiff, entered the house, and inquired of the officers whether they had identified the body; being answered in the negative, they all went into the room where the corpse lay; and, Bormer having pulled the lid of the coffin on one side, they all inspected it; and, the officers having inquired of Baker and Heafman, if that was the person they wanted, they said Yes. Heafman, or the man in possession, then lighted two candles: one they placed at the back-door, and the other at the room-door where the deceased lay. They then flung the front door of the house wide open, and Baker, Heafman, and various other persons, came in and out of the house continually during the whole night—making a great noise, sitting on the stairs, and drinking and regaling themselves until five or six in the morning.—The next day, Tuesday, the man in possession demanded the key of the room where the body lay from the plaintiff's daughter, which she gave him; but on the Wednesday she applied to Baker for it again, for the purpose of cleaning out the room, previous to the interment of the deceased, which was to have taken place in the afternoon of that day. After much hesitation, he returned it to her. The room was then cleaned out, and every thing prepared for the funeral. About four o'clock the undertaker and his man came, for the purpose of removing the body to the place of burial (Shoreditch-church); when Vorley, Borman, Heafman, and Baker, entered the house; the two latter bringing with them a shell, which they took into the room where the deceased lay in his coffin. Vorley and Borman then called the son on one side, and told him he had better pay the debt, and prevent his father's corpse from being taken away by Baker and Heafman. He told them it was out of his power to do it. On that, Baker and Heafman, with another person, took the body out of the coffin, naked, and, having literally crammed it into the shell, they put it into a cart before the house, where they suffered it to remain for upwards of half an hour, which drew together an immense crowd of persons, many of whom threw mud against the house, and behaved in the most riotous manner. They then conveyed the body to Heafman's house, where it was put into his cellar. The body was kept in the cellar until the 11th of October, when Heafman, with the assistance of four men, conveyed it to a burial-vault in Bethnal Green, and there left it.—The above facts were clearly made out by the evidence of J. A. Elliott the son, and Charlotte Bishop the daughter, of the deceased. The defendants called no witnesses; and the jury, after retiring for a few minutes, returned—Damages 200*l.* The result of the above trial, we hope, will set the vulgar opinion at rest, "that a creditor may arrest the dead body of his debtor;" and we hope it will be the last disgraceful scene of a similar kind ever exhibited in this country.

.At the interment of the duchess-dowager of Brunswick on the 7th of April, (see p. 158.) an important discovery was made. It had been long suspected that the remains of king Charles I. were deposited at Windsor. Indeed, Wood in his *Athenæ*, and Mr. Herbert in his *Memoir*, both state the supposition. The prince-regent being at Windsor, he was, of course, consulted about the mode of exploring these royal remains, which he directed to be done in his presence. Sir Henry Halford attended his R. H. to the vault; when, the leaden coffin being unfolded, a body appeared, covered over with a cased cloth; on carefully stripping the head and face, the countenance of the unfortunate Charles immediately appeared, in features apparently perfect as when he lived; the left eye, at the first exposure, was open and full, but the admission of air caused it immediately to disappear. The severed head had been carefully adjusted to the shoulders; and the most perfect resemblance to the portraits was remarked in the oval

shape of the head, the pointed beard, &c. On lifting up the head, the fissure made by the axe was clearly discovered by sir H. Halford; and the flesh, though somewhat darkened, was found to be in a tolerably perfect state. In the same vault was also found a decayed leaden coffin, containing the remains of Henry the Eighth, which consisted of nothing more than the skull, with some hair on the chin, and the principal limb-bones.

We have mentioned that addresses were presented to the prince of Wales from almost every town in the kingdom, upon the issue of the delicate investigation.—It will be proper to notice the proceedings of the city of London upon this occasion.

On Saturday the 3d of April, in consequence of a vote of the *common hall* on Friday, the city-remembrancer waited on the prince of Wales at Montague House, and delivered the following note: "The lord-mayor, aldermen, and livery, of the city of London, in common hall assembled, having yesterday voted an address to her royal highness the prince of Wales, and ordered the sheriffs, attended by the remembrancer, to wait on her royal highness, to know when she would receive the same; the remembrancer now attends, to know her royal highness's pleasure in respect to the time when the sheriffs may wait on her for this purpose."

To this note her royal highness in a few minutes delivered the following answer in writing, in person: "Impressed with the deepest sense of gratitude for the unexpected honour the lord-mayor and the noble city of London intend to confer upon me, by presenting an Address of congratulation on the happy annihilation of a conspiracy against my honour and life; I feel myself unable to do justice to my feelings, in expressing my grateful acknowledgments for the sincere interest the lord-mayor and the city of London have evinced for my welfare and happiness. The melancholy event of the duchess of Brunswick's, my mother's, demise, involves me at this moment in the deepest affliction. I shall not fail, however, to send on Monday next an answer to the lord-mayor and sheriffs, to express more fully my sentiments on the honour intended to be conferred upon me."

On Tuesday the 6th, the sheriffs waited on the prince of Wales, and received the following answer: "When the remembrancer waited upon me unexpectedly on Saturday last, to give me the first intimation of the high honour conferred upon me by the citizens of London in common hall assembled, the answer which I made will have conveyed some expression of my feelings on an occasion so interesting, important, and gratifying, to me. I am sure I shall not be misunderstood, when I say, that my affliction from the recent loss of my beloved mother, and the peculiar circumstances of my situation in other respects, may render it difficult for me to give a due reception to the lord-mayor, aldermen, recorder, sheriffs, and the deputation of the livery of London. I also feel dissident of giving them the trouble of a public attendance upon me. I shall be at my apartments in Kensington Palace on Monday next, at two o'clock, for the purpose of receiving the address."

The address was presented on the 12th at Kensington Palace. The procession consisted of the two city-marshal on horseback; the state-carriage, in which was the lord-mayor and his attendants; aldermen Combe, Wood, Goodbehere, and Heygate; sheriff Blades, sheriff Hoy and his chaplain; the city-remembrancer, the chamberlain, the comptroller, the solicitor, the town-clerk, and about 150 of the livery in their gowns. On their arrival, her royal highness entered from a back anti-room into the grand dining-room, and took her station at the upper end of the room, with her back to a small marble slab, before a large looking-glass. Ladies Charlotte Lindsey, Charlotte Campbell, and Anne Hamilton, her ladies in waiting, stood on her right hand, and Mr. St. Leger, her vice-chamberlain, on her left. The town-clerk, in the absence of the recorder, approached the prince, and read the following



Address: "May it please your royal highness; We, his majesty's loyal subjects, the lord-mayor, aldermen, and livery, of the city of London, in common hall assembled, bearing in mind those sentiments of profound veneration and ardent affection with which we hailed the arrival of your royal highness in this country, humbly beseech your royal highness to receive our assurances, that in the hearts of the citizens of London those sentiments have never experienced diminution or change. Deeply interested in every event connected with the stability of the throne of this kingdom, under the sway of the house of Brunswick; tenderly alive to every circumstance affecting the personal welfare of every branch of that illustrious house; we have felt indignation and abhorrence inexpressible, upon the disclosure of that foul and detestable conspiracy, which, by perjured and suborned traducers, has been carried on against your royal highness's honour and life. The veneration for the laws; the moderation, the forbearance, the frankness, the magnanimity, which your royal highness has so eminently displayed under circumstances so trying, and during a persecution of so long a duration; these, while they demand an expression of our unbounded applause, cannot fail to excite in us a confident hope, that, under the sway of your illustrious and beloved daughter, our children will enjoy all the benefits of so bright an example. And we humbly beg permission most unfeignedly to assure your royal highness, that, as well for the sake of our country as from a sense of justice and of duty, we shall always feel, and be ready to give proof of, the most anxious solicitude for your royal highness's health, prosperity, and happiness."

To which her royal highness returned the following most gracious answer: "I thank you for your loyal and affectionate address.—It is to me the greatest consolation to learn, that, during so many years of unmerited persecution, notwithstanding the active and persevering dissemination of the most deliberate calumnies against me, the kind and favourable sentiments with which they did me the honour to approach me, on my arrival in this country, have undergone neither diminution nor change in the hearts of the citizens of London. The sense of indignation and abhorrence you express against the foul and detestable conspiracy, which, by perjured and suborned traducers, has been carried on against my life and honour, is worthy of you, and most gratifying to me. It must be duly appreciated by every branch of that illustrious house with which I am so closely connected by blood and marriage, the personal welfare of every one of whom must have been affected by the success of such atrocious machinations. The consciousness of my innocence has supported me through my long, severe, and unmerited, trials; your approbation of my conduct under them, is a reward for all my sufferings.—I shall not lose any opportunity I may be permitted to enjoy, of encouraging the talents and virtues of my dear daughter, the princess Charlotte; and I shall impress upon her mind my full sense of the obligation conferred upon me by the spontaneous act of your justice and generosity. She will therein clearly perceive this value of that free constitution, which, in the natural course of events, it will be her high destiny to preside over, and her sacred duty to maintain, which allows no one to sink under oppression; and she will ever be bound to the city of London, in ties proportioned to the strength of that filial attachment I have had the happiness uniformly to experience from her.—Be assured that the cordial and convincing proof you have thus given of your solicitude for my prosperity and happiness, will be cherished in grateful remembrance by me, to the latest moment of my life; and the distinguished proceeding adopted by the first city in this great empire will be considered by posterity as a proud memorial of my vindicated honour."

The address of the corporation of London was presented to the princess of Wales at Kensington Palace on the 28th. The lord-mayor, recorder, chamberlain, aldermen, sheriffs, and common council, assembled, and left Guildhall about twelve o'clock; and the procession arrived at Ken-

sington Palace about two. The address was read by Mr. Recorder; and her R. H. returned the following answer: "I receive with the greatest satisfaction the congratulations of the city of London. No branch of the house of Brunswick can ever forget to whose exertions chiefly is owing the throne of these realms; and I have now peculiar reason to know the value of the constitution which those exertions purchased, because I have found it a sure protection when I had no other defence. The extraordinary situation in which I was placed compelled me to come forward in behalf of my honour and my life. I have been rewarded, not only by the universal acknowledgment of my innocence, but by testimonies of affection from a loyal and high-spirited people; which I shall gratefully remember as long as I live. At the present moment, I am rather disposed to dwell upon this pleasing circumstance than upon any recollection of a less agreeable kind. The trials, however, which I have undergone, will, I am confident, produce one good effect: they will confirm in my daughter's mind that attachment to the constitution which she already cherished, and impress her more and more with the conviction, that no station can be secure except in a free country; it is both the interest and the most sacred duty of an English monarch to watch over the liberties of the people."—The princess delivered her answer with great dignity and feeling. The lord-mayor, recorder, and aldermen, were received graciously, and kissed hands. Her R. H. when the corporation had quitted the palace, went to the window, and showed herself to the people assembled on the grass-plot.

To the addresses which have also been presented from Westminster, Middlesex, Southwark, Bristol, Monmouthshire, and many other parts of the kingdom, the answers of the princess have been marked with strict propriety, much good sense, and great moderation. This is particularly observable in the reply to the Westminster-address, which spoke of the "cold-blooded apathy of a corrupt majority of the house of commons on receiving her appeal."—After thanking the addressers, her R. H. concludes by saying, "Permit me to add, that there can be no doubt, that the refusal of parliament to entertain the question originated only in a conviction that my innocence stood above all suspicion, and in apprehension that parliamentary interference might delay the restoration to my daughter's society, so universally desired."

On Sunday the 4th of April, about five o'clock in the morning, that stately building which reared its proud roof to the clouds from the centre of Skinner-street, and appeared from Blackfriars' bridge like the Parthenon on the Acropolis of Athens, or the temple of Jove on the Tarpeian rock at Rome; the Commercial Hall, which was, in the city-lottery, the 25,000l. prize, was discovered to be on fire in the fifth story. The flames spread with so much rapidity, that in two hours the building was entirely consumed, the hinder wall falling into the ruins, and a part of the outer into the street. No lives were lost.

The duke of Cumberland, accompanied by captain Portier, his equerry, left town on the 28th for Yarmouth, where he embarked for Prussia. His royal highness had ordered his stud of horses and his cellar of wines to be disposed of. Sixteen of his horses were sold for 1303 guineas. The changes which have taken place on the continent have enabled his R. H. to settle himself at Hanover, where he will probably remain, as he is not expected to return to England. See p. 247. It is said that he is to marry the divorced princess of Salm-Salm, a relative of the king of Prussia.

It may not be amiss to notice here, as supplementary to our article KNIGHTHOOD, vol. xi. p. 327. that the king of Prussia issued from Breslau, under date of March 17, an order for instituting a distinction for merit, to be called the Order of the Iron Cross, as signification of the constancy which has been displayed in the great contest for liberty and independence. The order is to consist of two classes, with one grand cross. Both classes are to bear the same black cross of cast-iron set in silver; the fore side



without inscription, on the reverse the initial letters F. W. with three oak-leaves, and below the date of the year, 1813. Both crosses are to be worn at the button-hole, suspended by a black ribbon, with a white edge, if the distinction is obtained in an action with the enemy; but, if on another account, with a black edge. Commanding officers can only obtain the grand cross for gaining a decisive battle, by which the enemy has been driven from his position; the taking of a fortress; or the successful defence of some important place. The soldier who obtains the iron cross of the first class, receives immediately the gratifications annexed to it, but which afterwards cannot be increased.

About this time the citizens of London were highly delighted with a sight of one of the terrible Cossacs of whom they had heard so much.—On the 18th of April, the Russian officer, captain Bock, and the Don Cossac, who arrived in this country a few days before, came to the Mansion-house shortly after one o'clock. They were greeted with loud and repeated acclamations, and conducted by the city-marshal to the anti-chamber, where the lord-mayor, attended by several of the aldermen, received them. A very handsome cold collation was prepared, of which captain Bock and the Cossac partook. Mr. Grant kindly undertook to be the interpreter between his lordship and the veteran warrior. His lordship assured the Cossac, that, as chief magistrate of the city of London, he was proud and happy to offer his hand to so distinguished a soldier, although he was not decorated with title and rank. The answer of the Cossac was short, but emphatic; he thanked the lord-mayor, and was ready to die for the good of his sovereign and his country. His lordship then took the veteran by the hand, and a hearty shake took place on both sides. Captain Bock was in full uniform; and a jewel, the reward of his valour in the battle of Borodino, was pendent from his neck. The name of the Cossac is Alexander Wittschendst; he is in his 54th year, and had been allowed to retire on a pension, the reward of his courage and good conduct. When he heard of the invasion of his country by the French, he quitted his retirement, and voluntarily enrolled himself and his two sons in defence of native independence. He was dressed in the Cossac costume, with a large pistol stuck on his left side in a belt, a musket slung behind him, and a pike upwards of ten feet long, shod with sharp iron. At half past one the lord-mayor and attendants, with the Don Cossac and captain Bock, proceeded to the Royal Exchange.—The rush into 'Change was irresistible, and a very narrow lane was formed with great difficulty, through which they proceeded up to Lloyd's, and placed themselves in the gallery on the west side, where the Cossac could be distinctly seen from every part. The huzzas were cordial and repeated. Silence being at length obtained, the lord-mayor said that he was desirous by the noble warrior, and the Don Cossac, to return their best acknowledgments for the gratifying reception he had experienced. He then proposed a salute of three times three to the gallant visitors; and, his lordship giving the word, it was complied with by acclamations as cheerful and loud as ever were heard in that place. His lordship added, that the Cossac had with the instrument in his hand killed thirty-nine of the enemy. A universal burst of acclamation succeeded, and the visitors withdrew.—The following is a description of the person of the Don Cossac: His stature is about six feet; his make robust and manly; his carriage and demeanor very easy, and even graceful; his motions and gestures being entirely free from that angular stiffness which civilized etiquette has attached to the soldier. His features and countenance, though rough and military, are at the same time expressive of exceeding good nature and honesty. His beard is long and bushy, adding much to the power of his eyes, which, though light in colour, beam forth with much fire. His hair, less grey than his beard, flowing unconfined, is combed back over his neck about the length of six inches; on the forehead, it is cut short and straight. His dress consists

of a blue jacket and loose trowsers of coarse cloth, with shoes very broad and round at the toes, as if to allow free action to the feet, on which he stands remarkably straight and firm. His hand is remarkably broad in its spread, though his fingers are not long; and he manages his arms, consisting of a pistol, a musket, a sabre, and a long pike, with wonderful address and ease, carrying them without the least appearance of being encumbered by their weight, or inconvenienced by the length of the musket or pike. He was exhibited on the following Sunday in Hyde Park, on a white charger lent him by the lord-mayor.

We have now to record another dreadful murder, similar in its general character—in its mystery, its remorseless determination, and the apparent acknowledgment of the perpetrator by means of an attempt at suicide—to those of the Marrs and Williamsons.—Mr. and Mrs. Bonar were an aged and respectable couple, residing at a mansion called Camden Place, in the village of Chislehurst, where they had lived about eight or nine years. On Sunday night, May 30, Mr. Bonar retired to rest at his usual hour of twelve, and was followed at two by his wife, who was in the habit of going to bed later. There appears to have been no noise during the whole of the night; but, when the servants were rising in the morning, they scented a strange and bad smell towards the bed-chamber, and on going into the room found their master on the floor, dead and weltering in his blood, and their mistress in bed in the same shocking condition, dying. Mr. Astley Cooper was sent for, and came with all possible dispatch, but it was too late; and, after remaining insensible for some hours, and only uttering the exclamation "O dear!" Mrs. Bonar expired at eleven minutes past one. The following observations of an eye-witness are taken from an excellent account in the Times newspaper: "We never witnessed such a scene of horror as the bed-room presented. Almost the first object which met the eye on entering, was the dead body of Mr. Bonar, with the head and hands steeped in blood: the skull was literally broken into fragments, in two or three places; and there was a dreadful laceration across the nose, as if effected by the edge of a poker. His hands were mangled in several places, apparently by the same instrument: there was also a severe wound on the right knee. From the numerous wounds on the body of Mr. Bonar, from the swollen state of his mouth, and the convulsive adhesion of his hands and knees, it is clear that he had struggled with all his force against his horrid murderer. The most shocking circumstance connected with this spectacle was the appearance of the night-cap, which lay a few paces from his head, drenched in blood, with a lock of grey hair sticking to it, which seemed to have been struck from the skull by the violence of the blow of the poker. The pillow of his bed lay at his feet completely dyed in blood. The manly athletic person of Mr. Bonar—for, though advanced in life, he seems to have been a powerful man—gave an increase of horror to this afflicting sight. The view of Mrs. Bonar, though equally distressing, excited more pity than terror; though her head had been fractured in a dreadful manner, yet there was a calm softness in her countenance, more resembling a healthy sleep than a violent death: it might have been supposed that her life had parted from her without one painful effort. The linen and pillow of the bed in which she lay were covered with blood, as was also the bed of Mr. Bonar. They slept in small separate beds, but placed so close together that there was scarcely room for a person to pass between them. The interval of floor between the beds was almost a stream of blood. No slight additional horror arose from the contrast of the spacious handsome apartment in which this scene of death was exhibited. The most heart-moving spectacle yet remained. About seven o'clock in the evening, Mr. Bonar, jun. arrived from Feverham, where he was on duty as colonel of the Kent local militia. In spite of the efforts of Mr. Angerstein, jun. and some other gentlemen, he rushed up stairs, exclaiming, "Let me see my father: indeed I must see him."



It was impossible to detain him: he burst into the bed-chamber, and immediately locked the door after him. Apprehensions were entertained for his safety, and the door was broken open, when he was seen kneeling with clasped hands over the body of his father. His friends bore him away, and hurried him, tottering and fainting, into an adjoining chamber."

No cause could be discovered for the perpetration of this inhuman act; but, from the subsequent conduct of one Philip Nicholson, footman to the deceased, who was the only male servant that slept in the house, suspicion was attached to him. He had shown himself very officious about the bodies, with a strange mixture of eagerness and affected coolness; and was the first to disturb the state of the room, carrying the bloody linen away into his own, and rolling it up with his own sheets. Some other circumstances also appeared to fix imputation upon him; particularly his riding to town for a surgeon, and not returning home at night. A warrant being accordingly granted for his apprehension, Forester the officer, after a diligent search on Monday, found him drinking with an acquaintance at the door of the Three Nuns in Whitechapel. He was secured, not without a scuffle, and conveyed to the Giltspur-street Compter, where he was questioned by Mr. Astley Cooper and some other gentlemen, but to no purpose; nor was an examination before the lord-mayor of any greater avail. He is described, indeed, as having been in a state of intoxication approaching to insanity. On Tuesday he was again brought up to the Mansion-house, and was then in a condition to speak. He said that on the night of the murder he had gone to bed at twelve o'clock, and knew nothing of what happened till eight the next morning. With regard to his conduct when he first left the house, he admitted that he left Chislehurst a little before eight, and refreshed himself and the horse three times on the road, himself with three glasses of rum, and the horse with three pints of porter; notwithstanding which delays, Mr. Astley Cooper was enabled to ascertain, in addition to his own acknowledgment, that he performed the whole of his journey in about forty minutes. - He first went to that gentleman to inform him respecting his mistress; then in quest of one Dale, who had been discharged from Mr. Bonar's service, and whom, on finding him at the Red-Lion public-house near Bedlam, he told of the murder, adding, "and you are suspected of it;" and lastly to the office in Bow-street, where he gave information, and also mentioned his having seen Dale;—after which, instead of returning home, he went to Whitechapel, and was found making merry with his friends, when he was taken into custody. The examination, for the present, being sufficient, he was sent to Chislehurst, in custody, to attend before the coroner's jury, who assembled there at six o'clock in the evening; and, about one in the morning, while the coroner was reading over the depositions, an alarm was given that Nicholson had cut his throat. The officers who had him in custody had suffered him to enter a water-closet, and he there made a tremendous gash in his throat with a razor which he had found means to conceal. Fortunately, a surgeon was at hand; and the wound, being closed up, was found not to be mortal. A verdict of Wilful murder was found against him; and he was committed to safe custody, under the care of an eminent surgeon; but was kept pinioned down in a strait waistcoat, lest he should again attempt his life. While he lay in this state, namely, on Tuesday the 8th of June, he voluntarily requested Mr. Bramston, the catholic priest, who had been with him a short time, to bring young Mr. Bonar to him immediately. Mr. Bonar went to him, when Nicholson burst into tears, and entreating his forgiveness, expressed his wish to make a full confession. Mr. Wells, the magistrate, was sent for; and in the presence of the magistrate, and other gentlemen, Nicholson made, and afterwards signed, a deposition, acknowledging himself to be the murderer. The following are the particulars: That on Sunday night, after the groom left him,

he fell asleep upon a form in the servants' hall, the room where he was accustomed to lie; that he awoke at three o'clock by dropping from the form; he jumped up, and was instantly seized with an idea, which he could not resist, that he would murder his master and mistress. He was at this time half undressed; he threw off his waistcoat, and pulled a sheet from his bed, which he wrapped round him: he then snatched a poker from the grate of the servants' hall, and rushed up stairs to his master's room. He made directly to his mistress's bed, and struck her two blows on the head; she neither spoke nor moved. He then went round to his master's bed, and struck him once across the face: Mr. Bonar was roused; and, from the confusion produced by the stunning violence of the blow, imagined that Mrs. Bonar was then coming to bed, and spoke to that effect. When he immediately repeated the blow, Mr. Bonar sprang out of bed, and grappled with him for fifteen minutes, and at one time was nearly getting the better of him; but, being exhausted by loss of blood, he was at length overpowered: Nicholson then left him groaning on the floor. He went down stairs, stripped, and washed himself all over with a sponge at the sink in the butler's pantry. He next went and opened the windows of the drawing-room, that it might be supposed some person had entered the house that way; he then took his shirt and stockings, which were covered with blood, (the sheet he had left in his master's room,) went out at the front door, and concealed his bloody linen in a bush, covering it with leaves: the bush was opposite the door, and not many yards from it. He then returned without shutting the outer door, and went into the servants' hall: he opened his window-shutters and went to bed; (it was not yet four o'clock:) he did not sleep, though he appeared to be asleep when King came for the purpose of waking him at half-past six o'clock. He stated, in the most solemn manner, that no person whatever was concerned with him in this horrid deed; and to a question put to him, whether he had any associate, answered, "How could he, when he never in his life, before the moment of his jumping up from the form, entertained the thought of murder." He can assign no motive for what he did: he had no enmity or ill-will of any kind against Mr. or Mrs. Bonar.

Nicholson was tried at Maidstone on the 20th of August. It is not at all necessary to enter into the evidence, after such a plain and full confession, which was read over to, and confirmed by, him on the trial. He was of course convicted; and suffered on the 23d, at Pendennis-heath, about a mile and a half from Maidstone. He died very penitent.

The following inscription has been placed on the monument erected to the memory of Mr. and Mrs. Bonar, at Chislehurst:

Sacred to the Memory of  
THOMAS BONAR, of Camden Place, in this Parish, Esq.  
Aged Seventy; and of  
ANNE (Daughter of Andrew Thomson, of Rotherhampton, Esq.) his Wife,  
Aged Fifty-nine;

Murdered in their bed-chamber by a domestic servant! on the 31st of May, 1813. Let not this melancholy proof of the insufficiency of virtues even such as theirs (so great, so winning, and so mild!) to shield them at the midnight hour against atrocities so monstrous, induce the belief, that virtue is not the care of Providence below; rather let it be remembered, that surely none could have been better prepared for an event so awful! That from them not only were averted the many sufferings attendant on a dissolution in the common course of nature; but that, full of honour and of years, loaded with the blessings and the veneration of all who knew them, and each unconscious of the other's fate, they only slept to wake in Heaven! Nor be it omitted here to record their constant prayer, their fervent wish, (so frequently expressed, and so mysteriously fulfilled,) that they might leave this world together!



together! Horrible indeed to the survivors has been the mode of its accomplishment; still may they be allowed to think that it was permitted, in mercy, to those whom they deplore, and perhaps as a signal reward for such virtues as have been rarely seen united.

On the 26th of July, the body of Edward Clifford, a poor Irishman, was found murdered, in a pool of water, belonging to a brick-field, near Wellington-square, Gray's-inn-lane. It appeared that the deceased had lately come from Ireland, and, in company with his wife, went to the lodgings of a man named Leary, where, after having drunk freely, Leary, the deceased, and his wife, went out together. They called at a public-house in Field-lane, where they had more drink, and then proceeded up Holborn-hill, desiring the wife to go home, and that they would be there immediately. The deceased not returning home the whole night, his wife, on Monday morning, went to Leary's lodgings to enquire after her husband, when Leary's wife would give no information of him. Leary was therefore accused of the murder.

Mary Clifford, who called herself wife to the deceased, stated, that, to the best of her knowledge, her husband had, on the day preceding the murder, one 5l. note, seven 1l. notes, two guineas in gold, and 16s. in silver. Leary, the prisoner, she said, knew of her husband's having this money; and she accounted for his knowledge in the following way: "Leary asked me on the Sunday morning, in the presence of my husband, whether he or I had the money in keeping; and I told him, what there was of it, it was with my husband; my husband was angry at my telling he had money about him, and said, Did I want to get him murdered? Leary told me, on Sunday night, that my husband intended to leave London the next morning at two o'clock; which made me watch him very close all day. When I parted with my husband for the last time, Leary was with him; my husband was very drunk, but Leary was sober." The deceased's hat and a shoemaker's hammer were then produced. The hat was sworn to by Mrs. Clifford; also by the person of whom it was purchased. Two of the police-officers of Hatton-garden swore, that they found the hammer now produced in the prisoner's room, covered over with coals. The hammer, of which one end is round and the other flat, and about two inches wide, was compared with the cut in the hat, and the flat end exactly corresponded.—Leary was committed for farther examination; and proceedings were adjourned for a-week, in order to collect more information.

In the mean time, great sympathy was excited in favour of Mrs. Clifford as she called herself, who had five children with her, and was ready to lie in, and did lie in before the final examination took place. Subscriptions were raised for her; and some ladies hired comfortable apartments for her and her children, where it was intended she should lie in. This, however, was prevented by Leary's accusing her of the murder, though he confessed that he was present, and might have prevented it. She was therefore committed to Cold-bath-fields prison; and the persons who had collected money for her, were requested to retain it for the present. It soon after appeared, that she was not Clifford's wife; but that her husband was living, and his name was Burke; and that she had agreed, upon a very short acquaintance, to come over to England with Clifford. She had said, that her first husband had been dead six years, and that she was married to Clifford by a priest in her own house. It appeared also, that on the Monday morning, after the body was found, this woman gave a man of the name of Lawrence, who kept a chandler's shop in the same street, six pounds to keep for her; yet she had deposed that all their money was in her husband's keeping. None of the deceased's money was found upon Leary, nor ever traced to have been in his possession.

Mrs. Burke was treated with great tenderness in the prison; and she had a very fine child in her arms, of which she had been delivered there, when the final examination

took place, which was on the 8th of September. At this time came forward one Thomas McCarthy, who formerly kept the Hare-and-Hounds alehouse in St. Giles's, a man with whom the prisoner was very intimate, and swore, that, when talking to him in the lock-up house of Hatton-garden police-office, he intimated a wish that he could procure persons to prove an *alibi*, by swearing that he was at his own home on the Sunday evening of the murder, at eleven o'clock, as that would save his life. Leary alone was, upon this, fully committed to be tried for the murder. His trial came on at the Old Bailey on the 17th of September. He protested his innocence, and produced a good character; but the evidence of McCarthy was fatal to him. The jury brought him in guilty; after which the recorder proceeded to pass the sentence of the law, that he be executed on Monday, and his body anatomised. The prisoner, who had displayed the utmost firmness during the whole of the trial, was now visibly affected; the tears started into his eyes, his colour fled, and his whole frame betrayed much agitation. He shook his hand with an expression of bitterness and reproof at McCarthy, who stood below the dock, as if to express that his testimony had been the chief cause of his condemnation. Before, however, he was removed, he stretched out his hand to him in token of forgiveness; but McCarthy refused it.

The trial of this most unfortunate man was however not yet over; it was fated to last till the last moment of his existence. About six o'clock on the Sunday evening, colonel O'Kelly, an Irish gentleman, who had taken a very active part in the investigation of this murder, arrived at the prison, in hopes that Leary would make a confession. The Rev. Mr. Devereux, a catholic priest, the undersheriff, and Mr. Newman, accompanied colonel O'Kelly; and the following conversation took place.

*Colonel.* Now, Leary, since all is over, as you have been found guilty of this dreadful charge, and have only a few hours to live, persisting in your innocence can avail you nothing; tell therefore the truth, as you are shortly to appear before your Almighty Judge. You must feel what a dreadful thing it must be to die with a lie in your mouth.

*Leary.* Colonel, I now know that my persisting in my innocence will not clear me; you never believed my story; but I call on my God, before whom I am shortly to appear, that what I have already stated is true; I was present, but I did not commit the murder; it was Mrs. Clifford murdered him, and Slattery was waiting for her near the pond at half-past ten o'clock: the clock was striking ten when we were passing Gray's-inn-gate, in Gray's-inn-lane.

*Col.* If what you say be true, why not take her into custody, or inform against her?

*L.* I did not like to get myself into trouble; and, besides, I took compassion on her and her five children.

*Col.* Well, if what you say be true, how can you reconcile it with your conversation with McCarthy in the strong room at Hatton-garden?

*L.* As I expect for mercy, not one single sentence of what McCarthy charges me with passed my lips.

*Col.* Well, Leary, I am sorry to find you persevere in a story that not one person will give credit to; and if I said, when I left this, that you persisted in your innocence, not one person would believe me. I shall leave you now, as the Rev. Mr. Devereux here waits to be alone with you; for God's sake, consider your state; your time is short; your pardon from an offended God you cannot expect, unless publicly you acquit the innocent. Make your peace; I shall see you again in the morning, when your last hour will be very near; you will before then receive the sacrament. You will behold a vast multitude assembled to witness your awful exit, and impatient to hear of your candid confession.

*L.* I shall be glad to see you, colonel; but remember, I tell you I acknowledge my guilt; *I was present, and might have prevented it; but I did not commit the murder.*



Here colonel O'Kelly, the under-sheriff, and Mr. Newman, took their leave, and the prisoner passed a considerable time with Mr. Devereux.—On Monday morning the platform was erected as early as five o'clock, with the railing round it. At six the circle was formed by the constables, and the crowd began to assemble from all quarters of the town; the day was remarkably fine, and every window, and all the tops of the houses that had any view of the gallows, were covered with spectators. The Rev. Mr. Devereux arrived about six o'clock, and was admitted to the unfortunate prisoner, whom he found walking about his cell with hurried steps, clenched hands, and his eyes turned up to heaven. Mr. Devereux heard his confession, administered the sacrament to him, and remained with him in secret prayer until half-past seven. Colonel O'Kelly, Mr. Newman, and the under-sheriff, arrived about seven, and waited in the yard for half an hour, when the prisoner was brought forward. He seemed to look to his fate with firmness and resignation. He kept his colour as usual, but the tears stood full in his eyes. He was pinioned, and both his wrists tied close. Whilst in this state, colonel O'Kelly again addressed him in the following manner: "Now the fatal hour is arrived, and I understand you have received the sacrament, as you have but this one moment allowed you to satisfy justice and the public, by making a candid declaration, and acquitting the innocent, take advantage of it, by signing this confession, which I have just drawn up on this small bit of paper. Read it over attentively: you will perceive I have left a blank, and your own conscience will tell you what to do with it." The following is an exact copy of the paper which O'Kelly handed to him:—"I, James Leary, having received the sacrament, and being now on the brink of eternity, do hereby most solemnly declare, that I did commit the murder of Clifford."

Leary (after reading it over) said, "Colonel, I see you do not credit me; but, as I expect for mercy, what I now declare is true. Give me your pencil." The colonel gave him a pencil; and, although both his wrists were tied, in the presence of all he interlined the words *although I was present*. In the blank space he wrote *not*, and also signed the paper; which then stood thus:—"I, James Leary, having received the sacrament, and being now on the brink of eternity, do hereby most solemnly declare, that, *although I was present*, I did NOT commit the murder of Clifford."  
JAMES LEARY."

Leary was then led forward to the place of execution; and, as he was mounting the ladder, O'Kelly, who still strove to rouse him to a confession, for the last time addressed him thus:—"Leary, look round; what an awful sight presents itself to you!—in ten minutes more you will be before your Judge; and, if you have committed an error in this paper, it is not yet too late to correct it."

Leary, (turning his eyes towards heaven.) I call on my great God, in whose presence I am shortly to appear, to witness, that every sentence of that confession is true.

Colonel. One word more, Leary. Do you mean to say that it was Mrs. Clifford who committed the murder?

Leary. I would wish not to be pressed more on that question; I have made my confession, and I hope also my peace with God.

Mr. Devereux beckoned to O'Kelly to press him no farther; and, in about seven minutes more, he was launched into eternity. The other criminal who was executed with him had continued uninterruptedly in prayer with the ordinary; he was penitent, tranquil, and resigned; and his sufferings appeared to be over almost as soon as he was let drop; but Leary, who had been thus kept in agitation to the last moment, was observed to be a full quarter of an hour in convulsive agony.

On the day after Leary received sentence, he wrote a very long letter to his mother, in which he most solemnly declared his innocence of the murder, but that unfortunately and unexpectedly he chanced to be present. In this letter he most earnestly requests that his mother will

go amongst all his friends and acquaintance, and let them see this letter, in which he says he calls on God to witness his innocence; and that, before she reads that he will be no more. His blessing to his children, &c.—He also, after his first interview (on Sunday evening) with colonel O'Kelly, had an appeal to the public drawn up by the Rev. Mr. Devereux, to be delivered to Mr. Sheriff Hoy after his execution. Mr. D. however, had persuaded him to suppress it, and actually tore it to pieces in his presence; but the pieces were collected by one of the turnkeys, and pasted upon paper. Never did man protest his innocence so repeatedly and so solemnly: we shall therefore present this document to the public, with an apology for having dwelt so long upon this most mysterious and dreadful case.—"Honoured Sir; Before this paper can meet the eye of the public, to whom I entreat it may be communicated, I shall be arraigned before the tribunal of the Eternal; confronted, perhaps, with him for whose murder I shall have undergone the dreadful sentence of the law. With all the solemnity of one under circumstances so appalling to human nature, I attest the Great Arbiter of my Destiny, who will, I am persuaded, if I make him party to a falsehood, plunge me into eternal perdition: I attest the spirit of the murdered Clifford, who must, if I embroil my hands in his blood, cry out for vengeance on my guilty soul: I attest heaven and earth to witness—that *I did not contribute, either by word or by deed, to the perpetration of the crime for which I am going to suffer*. I acknowledge, however, the justice of my punishment; because I ought, as I had it in my power, to have prevented its perpetration. For this, and for every other offence of which I stand culpable in the sight of the Almighty, I am most heartily sorry, and most earnestly implore pardon of him, of my country, and of my fellow-citizens. I throw myself upon the mercy of my crucified Redeemer; and, through his merits alone, humbly, but firmly, hope for the remission of my manifold transgressions. I have, with the most undoubting confidence in his all-merciful goodness, endeavoured to prepare for the awful moment which is to usher me into his immediate presence. I, in imitation of his divine example, most cordially forgive my prosecutors, and die in sentiments of the most perfect charity with all mankind. *Newgate, Sept. 20, 1813.*"

The settlements at Port Jackson, &c. in New South Wales, were at this time in a satisfactory state of improvement. The Sydney Gazette, from January to July, afford a view of the state of the different settlements, which, notwithstanding the scarcity of specie, and some other local inconveniences, that were likely to be remedied by the prudent regulations of governor Macquarrie, were advancing fast to prosperity and comparative opulence. The great object of the merchants and inhabitants was to establish an export-trade with this country; and for this purpose to obtain leave to ship their surplus grain (which was rotting in the barns), salt pork and beef, for his majesty's navy, and wool, said to be little inferior to that of Spain, in return for the customary importations, instead of making remittances in money, which drained the settlement of specie, and impoverished the colonists. Another object was, to obtain permission to distil spirits in the colony, which would greatly benefit the cultivator, and retain the money generally paid for spirits obtained from America, the East Indies, and other places. Memorials on these topics had been presented to governor Macquarrie, signed by the principal inhabitants of the different settlements, and transmitted for the consideration of his majesty's ministers.

On the 5th of July, the first stone of a new prison was laid, in Whitecross-street, nearly opposite Cripplegate church. This prison, when completed, is to be appropriated solely to the confinement of London and Middlesex debtors, instead of Newgate and the Compters, to which such unhappy persons have hitherto been consigned. This is one of the beneficial results of the Letter addressed by Sir Richard Phillips (sheriff in 1807-8) to the Livery of London,



don, and of the report of a committee of the corporation, formed for the purpose of investigating the contents of that Letter. The space gained in Newgate is to be devoted to persons committed for trial, instead of mixing them as heretofore with the convicted, or sending them to the correctional prison in Cold-Bath Fields. Workshops are also to be provided; in which the debtors may pursue their ordinary occupations.

It should have been mentioned among the parliamentary proceedings, that, on the 1st of July, upon the motion of Mr. Whitbread, 8000*l.* was unanimously voted for the purchase of the law-books, enriched by valuable notes, and 300 manuscripts, of Mr. Francis Hargrave, king's counsel; to be deposited in the library of Lincoln's Inn, for the public use.

On the 6th of July died Granville Sharp, esq. youngest son of the late Dr. Thomas Sharp, archdeacon of Northumberland, and only surviving grandson of the late Dr. John Sharp, archbishop of York. This venerable philanthropist retained the vigour both of his mind and body till within a short period previous to his dissolution, and, without any other symptoms than those of natural decay, terminated, in the 79th year of his age, a life actively and almost uninterruptedly devoted to the best interests of liberty, humanity, and religion. We hope to do justice to this excellent character in the proper place.

On the 13th of July, the court of common council voted thanks to lord Wellington, his officers and army, for their skill and gallantry at Vittoria; resolved that the bust of his lordship be placed in the council-chamber; and voted the freedom of the city, in gold boxes of 100 guineas value, to sir T. Graham and sir Rowland Hill.

On the 20th of the same month, a grand festival, in honour of the battle of Vittoria, was celebrated at Vauxhall. Soon after five, nearly 1200 people were assembled in the gardens. The dinner was in the range of covered buildings, with the addition of a temporary saloon. The rotunda was filled by a raised semicircular table, which was appropriated to the royal family, foreign ambassadors, ministers, &c. At the head was placed a seat for the duke of York, as chairman; and behind was ranged on raised shelves, covered with crimson cloth, a vast quantity of massive gold and silver plate belonging to the regent; furnished by a bust of the marquis of Wellington. At the back of the duke's chair, and a little before the plate, were stationed two trumpeters, and a grenadier holding the standard of the 100th regiment of French horse, taken at Vittoria; the bâton of marshal Jourdan was disposed among the plate, and beneath lord Wellington's bust. Besides this semicircular table, on the platform was a smaller square table, appropriated to the lord-mayor, aldermen of the city, and their immediate friends. In the saloon were three long tables; beyond that, in a temporary building erected among the trees, the trunks of which served to support the roof, appropriately composed of the ensigns of Great Britain, Spain, and Portugal, were accommodations for nearly 900 persons. The dukes of York, Clarence, Kent, Saxe, Cambridge, and Gloucester, took their seats at the table about a quarter past five. The dinner was plain, and cold, excepting turtle-soup. The conclusion was announced by a flourish of trumpets, and *Non nobis, Domine*. The toasts were announced from the head of the table by a flourish of trumpets; and then, with the spirit of the antique time of royal feasting, were returned from the foot by another flourish. About nine the ladies began to arrive, and were received by lord Yarmouth. The gardens, as the night came, gradually brightened, until they exhibited a blaze of splendour. The fireworks, under the direction of Col. Congreve, were let off at eleven, one, and two, o'clock. The duchess of York, who had remained two hours in her carriage on the outside of the gardens on account of the throng, entered about twelve. No adequate provision was made for the ladies, who were obliged to scramble for refreshments at the buffets; and the hardiest were but ill-served. Such, however, were the allurements

of the fête, that 10 and even 15 guineas were in vain offered for a dinner-ticket. Many who had secured tickets for admission, returned without a sight of it. The obstructions to getting in and retiring, after twelve o'clock, became almost insuperable; and such a scene of confusion scarcely ever existed. Servants being banished from the entrance, and there being no constables to direct the coachmen how to set down and take up, gentlemen were obliged to come out and endeavour to call their own carriages; to which, if by any hazard they found them, they were yet unable to conduct their company, for they were universally refused admittance into the gardens again. Thus parties were separated—carriages rendered useless—persons of all ranks exposed—and many, who had vehicles of their own waiting, were obliged to hire hackney-coaches at any price. Families who had intended to quit the gardens at one o'clock, if by any chance they reached their carriages, were forced, after waiting three or four hours, to quit them again, and find their way home on-foot—their carriages followed at six, seven, and even eight, o'clock in the morning. Scores, after proceeding as near as they could to the gardens, finding their patience exhausted, got out, and, overcome by fatigue, trudged home on-foot without seeing the show. Many ladies walked from the Asylum, after being as long stationary there as female patience would admit, and struggled through the crowd, unprotected, to the gardens. The whole was confusion worse confounded. The battle of Vittoria itself, which the fête was meant to celebrate, was peace, order, and harmony, when compared to the modern Babel, which extended from Charing-cross to Southville on the Wandsworth road.

Such was the Vauxhall festival—brilliantly lighted, badly arranged, and ending in confusion. Its most remarkable feature, in a negative point of view, was the absence of the prince-regent, who is known to take such delight in these matters, and who in the first instance was given out as one of the intended guests. It was afterwards discovered, it seems, that *Etiquette* was against the presence of the "sovereign" at a subscription-dinner; but as the prince-regent is not the sovereign—as he had been at other public dinners—and as it is quite clear, generally speaking, that he could make the law for himself in this instance, and accept what invitation he pleased—another reason was to be sought for; and at length it was discovered that *Etiquette* was a personage not to be trifled with, and that she actually made her own appearance at the fête, instead of his royal highness, in the likeness of a lady dressed in white satin with a head-dress of green and diamonds. This lady, however, was not accommodated with a seat; *the royal box was otherwise occupied*; and, after walking round, first with the duke of Gloucester, and afterwards with her brother the duke of Brunswick, she departed without resting.

On the 27th of July, his royal highness the prince-regent held a chapter of the most noble order of the Garter at Carlton-house, when his imperial majesty the emperor of all the Russias was elected a member of the order. In consequence of this election, a mission was prepared to carry to his imperial majesty, at his head-quarters, the insignia of this most noble order. The present Garter, sir Isaac Heard, forgetting his advanced age (83), and desirous of performing his duty, was preparing to set off across the seas for the continent, when, by a most gracious mark of kindness, his royal highness the prince-regent had it signified to him by the intermediation of the chancellor of the order, that his wish was, that Garter should not expose so far, and at so critical a moment, the precious remains of a life a great portion of which had been spent in the service of the order. In consequence of this honourable solicitude from the prince, acting as sovereign of the order in behalf of the king, sir Isaac Heard deputed Francis Townsend, esq. Windsor Herald, to perform the duties of Garter in his absence. The mission, composed of deputy-garter, sir Thomas Tyrwhitt, knight, Black Rod; George Frederic Bettz, esq. secretary of the legation;

George



George Stevenfon, esq. Falcon Herald; Arthur Wilton, esq. acting as register to the mission, and James Puluan, esq. secretary to sir Thomas Tyrwhitt, accompanied by several other gentlemen; left London on the 8th of August, whence they proceeded to Yarmouth, where they embarked on-board the *Cydnus* for Gottenburgh. The ceremony was performed on the 27th at Toplitz, the headquarters of the emperor, who received the mission with his usual affability, and ordered presents to be distributed among the members of the legation. The next day the emperor gave a grand dinner to the plenipotentiaries, and to the English ministers resident at the headquarters of the allied sovereigns; the members of their respective embassies; several Russian and English persons of distinction; and the gentlemen who had attended the mission. Upon this occasion his imperial majesty appeared in the ensigns of the order.

The friends of religious enthusiasm, who most likely are sorry that the age of miracles performed by sacred relics is irrevocably past, will certainly be glad to hear that, at the sale of the effects of the late Mr. Huntington, the self-anointed prophet, and sinner saved, which took place at Pentonville on the 1st of October, an old arm-chair, not worth having, and in glaring want of repair, fetched the enormous price of sixty guineas; as if the blessing of inspiration were still fluttering about it, or as if it were impressed with the gift of prophecy, like Elijah's mantle. Several other articles were knocked down at equally high prices, particularly the prophet's spectacles, and his snuff-box—so anxious were the admirers of this curious character to preserve some memorial of his past existence; and so true is the saying of the poet; *Stulto semper adest mirator stultior ipso*.—We do not pretend to infer from the above, that Mr. Huntington was either a fool or a conjuror; but only to point out a certain degree of extravagance and folly which lurks behind the distorted mask of hyperbolized religion.

William Hunt was born in the weald of Kent about the year 1743. Being in a very low station, and having a bastard sworn to him, he decamped, and lengthened his name to Huntington. At Mortlake in Surry he married; and soon after went to live at Ewell in the same county. He had been first an errand-boy, then a day-labourer, afterwards a cobbler, and at Ewell he first became a preacher. Wretchedly poor he continued for a long time; but Providence assisted him occasionally, by laying in his way—at one time a large eel not quite dead, at another time a partridge not quite dead, at another time a pair of breeches.—Persecution at length drove him to Thames Ditton, where he was first compelled to embark in the servile-laborious occupation of coal-heaving. This appears to have been that precise portion of his existence during which he felt most disgust, and to which he never reverts without some expression of indignant grief. Notwithstanding the great advantage he subsequently reaped from the mere circumstance of his having been once a coal-heaver, by judiciously intimating to the world that “coal-heaving was hard work, and that coal-heavers required better food than compliments;” and notwithstanding the spiritual manifestations he there experienced, during an illness at once gracious as trying; yet, because the people of the place, contemning him on account of his employment, which ignorant men too naturally would, rejected his ministry, he appears to have considered Thames Ditton as deserving only of anathemas, and consigns its inhabitants to illimitable reprobation. Yet had Ditton not been so unkind to him: “Some few years before I was married,” says Mr. H. “all my personal effects used to be carried in my hand, or on my shoulders, in one or two large handkerchiefs; and after marriage, for some few years, I used to carry all the goods that we had gotten, on my shoulders, in a sack: but, when we moved from Thames Ditton to London, we loaded two large carts with furniture and other necessaries; besides a post-chaise, well filled with children and cats.”

The cause of his going to London must be related in his own words: “After preaching at Woking, one evening,” says he, “I told my dame that I would lie alone that night, &c. Accordingly I went into another bed, and fell into a very sound sleep: when I dreamed, and behold! in my dream I thought I heard the Lord call to me with a very shrill voice, saying.—*Son of man! son of man! prophecy; son of man, prophecy!* I answered, *Lord what shall I prophesy?* The voice came again, saying, *Prophecy upon the thick boughs.* I immediately awoke; and felt a comfortable power on my heart, and thought the voice seemed fresh in my ears. I got up immediately and traced my Bible, to see if I could find those words there; thinking that, if I could, I should conclude the dream to be from God. I soon found the words, (Ezekiel xvii. 23. xxxi. 3.) and perceived the thick boughs to be *men*.” London, of course, was the place to find *men* in abundance, though certainly not *boughs*. To London therefore he came; where he preached first at Margaret-street chapel, near Cavendish-square. He soon longed to have a chapel of his own, though he felt almost hopeless at seeing this wish brought about by one so mean and poor as himself. “However,” he observes, “God sent a person, unknown to me, to look at a certain spot, who afterwards took me to look at it; but I trembled at the very thought of such an undertaking. Then God stirred up a wife man to offer to build the chapel, and to manage the work without fee or reward: God drew the pattern on his imagination, while he was hearing me preach a sermon. I then took the ground; this person executed the plan; and the chapel sprung up like a mushroom.” Providence-Chapel was thus speedily erected: this chapel was in Little Titchfield-street, Oxford market; it was opened in 1788; but was afterwards destroyed by fire. Its successor, likewise named, was built in the years 1810-11; and is situated in Gray's-Inn-lane. Both chapels owed their existence to the liberality of Mr. Huntington's congregation; but he refused to officiate in this last chapel till it was made his own personal freehold; and so great was the devotion of his followers, that they resigned their shares in his favour. He did not, however, live long after this instance of worldly wisdom.

When he had attained great popularity, he began to find himself so much at his ease in the pulpit, that he could, in imitation of other low preachers and low actors, indulge in such sprightly digressions as—“Take care of your pockets!” “Wake that snoring sinner!” “Silence that noisy nunsull!” “Turn out that drunken dog!” &c. &c. Nothing could exceed the dictatorial dogmatism of this famous preacher. Believe him, none but him, and that was enough. If he aimed thus to pin the faith of those who heard him, he would say over and over, “As sure as I am born 'tis;” or “I know this, I am sure of it;” or “I believe the plain English of it (some difficult text) to be,” &c. Adding, by way of fixing his point, “Now you can't help it;” or “so it is;” or “it must be so in spite of you;” with a most significant shake of his head, with a sort of beldam hauteur, and all the dignity of defiance. He would sometimes observe, softening his deportment, “I don't know whether I make *you* understand these things; but *I* understand them well!” His epitaph, penned by himself, will fully exemplify his spirit of decision. He was quite as fanciful in his applications of sacred Scripture as ever was commentator in his supposed illustrations of it; and he derived much of his success from this trait. He put his own sense on all he quoted, and gave it as such. Sadly would he ramble. So much did he stray from his text, that you at times lost all sight of it; and such was the multiplicity of his heads, so did he run to and fro, that any one of his sermons might make three. It should also be observed, that, in his pulpit-prayers, he was never used to intercede for the king or his land.—His writings and his sermons contained frequent mention of the presents that had been made him. His Bank of Faith proved a bank of gold! When he wrote so much of what came to him as gifts,



was it not done to rouse more to give? The man who says he lives by gifts, will, as he gets friends, find gifts by which he may live. His works amount to twenty vols. 8vo.

A few years before his end, Mr. Huntington married a second wife, the reputedly-affluent widow of the late Sir James Saunderson, and daughter of the patriotic alderman Skinner. Lady Saunderson is understood to have first repaired to Providence Chapel with the view of ridiculing that preacher of whom she afterwards became the wife. She survives Mr. Huntington; who, by his first marriage, had thirteen children, though many of them died before him. Although not so rich as he was thought, he had for some years kept his carriage. "I had told the whole company that rose up against me," says Mr. Huntington, speaking of the congregational commotions which were excited by his opposition to the writings of Paine, "and told them publicly in the chapel, that, so far from their being able to pull me down, they must not wonder to see me in my coach when old age came on; nor was the hand of God withdrawn till this came to pass." He was seldom mistaken in such predictions as related to himself. When some of his family were assisting him in pulling off his coat, after the last sermon that he preached, he told them—that he knew his work was almost done. He supped the evening before his death, saying, when he had finished, that it was the last supper he should eat; and that he was ready to meet his God and Saviour! He died the next day, at Tunbridge Wells, where he had gone for the benefit of his health. Diabetes was found the immediate cause of his dissolution. His remains were interred at Lewes; and a stone, at the head of his grave, displayed the following epitaph, composed by himself some time before: "Here lies the Coal-heaver; who departed this life July 1, 1813, in the 70th year of his age; beloved of his God, but abhorred of men. The omniscient Judge, at the Grand Assize, shall ratify and confirm this, to the confusion of many thousands; for England and its Metropolis shall know, that there hath been a Prophet among them! W. H. S. S."—We have been informed, but we cannot say with what truth, that the stone has been removed, by order of the heads of the parish of Lewes.

Huntington has constituted an era in the modern church, notwithstanding his peculiarities and eccentricities; a circumstance that would alone render his decease an event not destitute of importance. While, together with the names of Whitfield and Wesley, however, the name of Huntington seems likely to be commemorated in future times, still, unlike both of those preachers, he, having established no germinating bodies, has died without making any religious provision for the continuance of that congregation whose founder he indisputably was. He declared, that his "doctrine and reputation should stand and fall together; that it never should be—the Coal-heaver and Co." *Dedication to the Bank of Faith.*

We shall not have a better opportunity than the present to resume the history of Joanna Southcott, whom we left, at p. 149. victorious over the devil. Her Third Book of Wonders, just published, is in manner like the former, as described at p. 147. but in matter more blasphemous. The Spirit says to her, "This year, in the sixty-fifth year of thy age, thou shalt have a Son, by the power of the Most High, which if they (the Jews) receive as their Prophet, Priest, and King, then I will restore them to their own land, and cast out the heathens for their sakes, as I cast out them when they cast out me, by rejecting me as their Saviour, Prince, and King, for which I said I was born, but not at that time to establish my kingdom. But how is the Lord God to dwell amongst them, if I do not create a Son, by the same power I came amongst them? And, to prove my power, that it is of God, and not of men, it must be made known unto all men whomsoever that read this book of thine, that no man hath been in thy presence, or put a foot in the room where I have confined thee, since the time I ordered thy confinement,

which time was October 11, 1813. And thou must let it be known to the world, that thou canst say with Agur; *There be three things which are too wonderful for me, yea, four which I know not. The way of an eagle in the air; the way of a serpent upon a rock; the way of a ship in the midst of the sea; and the way of a man with a maid.* Prov. xxx. 18, 19."

Then Joanna speaks in her own person: "This I can take my solemn oath to, that I never had knowledge of man in my life. So that, if the words of the Spirit are fulfilled in me, this year, to have a Son, it is by the power of the Lord, and not of man; and this sign is set, to prove the truth of the Gospel, or to prove that the Gospel is not true. For, if the visitation of the Lord to me now does not produce a Son this year, then Jesus Christ was not the Son of God, born in the manner spoken by the Virgin Mary; but, if I have a Son this year, then in like manner our Saviour was born."

Now the Spirit speaks: "Let them look to their prophets, then they will see that they prophesied of me two ways; to come as a sufferer, and to come as a conqueror. And now I tell them, it is not all the power in the world, nor all the nations upon earth, shall ever establish the Jews upon the throne of Jerusalem, to be a peaceable and happy nation, if they will not receive the Son, that I have told thee shall be born this year, to be the King over them. Therefore, let them not look to the great men amongst them, or to their rabbies, their priests, or their rulers, to think that their King shall come from them, when their great men amongst them sought my life, and the meanness of my birth was then despised. But let them look to the marvellous manner the way I have placed the sign before them; let them look to thy age, and the manner I have confined thee from any man coming into thy presence; and, to prevent men's saying a man might come in woman's apparel, I have also forbidden all thy female friends to come into thy presence likewise. Therefore I have ordered it in such manner as it is impossible for deceit to be practised." Third Book of Wonders, p. 4, 6, 9.

Some of our readers may perhaps blame us for making these extracts, the subject and expressions being too solemn to be treated with levity. We should certainly think it not an undue stretch of power, if a magistrate were to interfere, and order this mad foolish woman into confinement in Bedlam, or *Bethlehem*, as being of all places the most proper for this second incarnation; where she might be secluded from the visits of Mr. Tozer and every other comforter, till the grand manifestation takes place, which, according to the common course of nature, cannot be farther distant than the month of July or August next.

On the 27th of October, the friends of the uninstructed poor witnessed a most interesting ceremony, in laying the first stone of a building for the education of 1000 children, in the Whitechapel-road, by the duke of Cambridge, who honoured the institution set on foot by the Whitechapel Society for the Education of the Poor with his presence. His R. H. was attended in the procession by the bishop of London, the lord-mayor, Mr. Sheriff Marsh, Rev. Archdeacon Cambridge, Rev. Archdeacon Pott, Rev. Thos. Hughes, D.D. canon residentiary of St. Paul's; Jesse Russell, esq. treasurer of the society; David Pike Watts, esq. and a numerous assemblage of the clergy, and friends of the society; together with the committee of management of the school, and the children under their patronage (at present educating in a temporary school-room), the children of the Whitechapel and Gower's-walk free-schools, &c. and the regiment of Whitechapel volunteers escorted the whole. Some gold and silver coins, of the present reign, and latest mintage, having been deposited in the stone, under a plate, with an appropriate inscription, which was publicly read by the secretary, his R. H. in the presence of several thousand spectators, went through the usual ceremony of spreading the cement and laying the first stone, and another stone was fastened down upon the whole.



The Rev. Daniel Mathias, the rector of the parish of St. Mary, Whitechapel, after reciting with great feeling a prayer prepared for the occasion, addressed his R. H. with infinite energy and pathos, as follows: "May it please your royal highness; I am deputed by the committee of management for the Whitechapel Society, on behalf of them, of all the subscribers, and of the parish at large, to convey to your royal highness their profound sense of the obligation, and their grateful acknowledgments for the signal honour which you have been graciously pleased this day to confer upon them. Great as the honour is, and no men can estimate it higher than they do, yet they presume to think that the occasion is as great: an occasion not unworthy the presence, support, and countenance, even of a prince of your illustrious birth, and more illustrious virtues. We are engaged in a work which concerns all, and is intended to benefit all:—high and low; rich and poor; the private individual and the public weal; the prince who governs, and the subject who obeys. By means of this institution, we endeavour to draw closer that chain of union which connects the several ranks of society, and fitly joins together all the members of every well-constituted state, and, by purifying and refining some of its links, to give strength and durability to the whole. Your royal highness has been pleased to lend a helping hand to this our undertaking. May this building, so designed, long remain a monument of your kind condescension and noble co-operation; and of our wisdom, patriotism, and humanity! It was the pious wish of our beloved sovereign, your honoured father, that the poorest of his subjects might be able to read the Bible. This wish, so becoming the dignity of so great a monarch, so worthy the care of the father of his people, so agreeable to the piety of the best of Christians, it is our earnest endeavour to accomplish. We hope to teach the children of the poor, not only to read, but to understand, the Bible! If we can but infuse into their minds the pure precepts of the Gospel, they will be good Christians; and, if good Christians, they will be good subjects; they will all their lives through cherish and maintain those principles which placed your illustrious family upon the throne of these realms. Our hopes of success are most sanguine; and our endeavours will be increased, when we see among us the virtuous son of a most virtuous sire, so zealously active to carry into effect the best wishes of so good a father, and so patriotic a king! Accept, sir, our most cordial thanks."

His R. H. was graciously pleased to reply as follows: "Reverend Sir; I request that you will offer my grateful thanks to the committee of this institution, and state to them that I feel great satisfaction in being present and assisting on this occasion. That I most heartily concur with them in the important undertaking, which does infinite honour to their parish. I trust that their example may be imitated, not only in the metropolis, but throughout the country in general."

The ceremony concluded with a benediction pronounced by the bishop of London; after which the company repaired to the City-of-London Tavern to dinner, where Mr. Sheriff Marsh presided, and where the bishop of London, Mr. Alderman Atkins, William Mellish, esq. sir Wm. Blizard, &c. honoured the society with their presence. The bishop of London, in returning thanks on his health being drunk, took occasion to observe, that this institution had his unqualified approbation; that the best means of bettering the condition of the poor was through the medium of religious and moral instruction; and that he hailed the establishment of this school as the planting of a tree whose branches he hoped to see spread over all the island.

On Monday the 8th of November, the Right Hon. Geo. Scholey, lord-mayor of London, attended by sixteen senior members of the livery of distillers, and accompanied by several of the aldermen, the two sheriffs, the recorder, chamberlain, town-clerk, law-officers, &c. proceeded with the usual formalities from the Mansion-house to Guild-

hall; and were followed by Mr. Alderman Domville, lord-mayor elect, supported by sixteen members of the company of stationers. When the several parties were arranged on the hustings at Guildhall, the oaths of allegiance and supremacy were solemnly administered by the town-clerk, kneeling, to the lord-mayor elect; who being then invested with the insignia of office, Mr. Scholey resigned to him the civic chair; after which, the chamberlain, Mr. Clark, advancing three several times from the front of the hustings to the chair of state, and each time making three several obeisances, delivered up to the new chief-magistrate the insignia of his office with the city-purse and seal; all which were separately restored into the hands of the chamberlain, who retreated, bowing as before, walking backward, and whose graceful demeanour on this occasion was much admired. The sword-bearer, Mr. Cotterell, then in like manner delivered up the city-sword; which the lord-mayor replaced in the hands of one who has borne it twenty-seven years, who also retired bowing in due form. The aldermen, city-officers, and members of the livery-companies, then severally paid their respects to the new lord-mayor, agreeably to ancient custom, by *shaking hands* and *wishing joy*.

This custom of *shaking hands*, and *wishing joy*, is very ancient in the city ceremonial. It is particularly practised, in the livery-companies, when a young man takes up his freedom; and at the chamberlain's office the speeches made to the greatest personages uniformly begin with *I give you joy*. It is remarkable also, that on the continent the fraternities of crafts and livery-companies are generally distinguished, like freemasons, by a peculiar way of shaking hands which is called the secret or mystery of the trade, *le secret du métier*.

On the 13th of November, the lord-mayor, aldermen, sheriffs, recorder, common-council, and other officers of the city of London, waited on the prince-regent at Carlton house, with an address to congratulate his R. H. on the prospect of the deliverance of Europe from a most disgraceful yoke; on the re-establishment of the house of Orange in Holland; on the return of Hanover to the allegiance of its legitimate sovereign; on the successes of marquis Wellington; &c. to which the prince-regent returned a most gracious answer.

These glorious events were to be celebrated also in the true English manner; namely, by eating and drinking.—To commemorate the revolution in Holland, a banquet was provided on the 14th of December, at the City-of-London tavern, at which the viands were no less gratifying to the animal appetite than the moral sensibility excited was to the liberal mind. The duke of Clarence, in the chair, was supported by the dukes of York and Kent, the hereditary prince of Orange; the earls of Harrowby, Westmoreland, Buckinghamshire, Liverpool, Bathurst, and Dartmouth; viscounts Sidmouth and Castlereagh; lords Reay and Athlone; right hon. N. Vansturt; G. Rose; sir W. Scott; F. Robinson, lord provost of Edinburgh; J. H. Addington; greffier Fagel; their excellencies count de Funchal, baron Wessenberg, baron Jacobi Kleist, count de Palmella; and M. de Lorentz; under secretaries of state, W. Hamilton and W. Becket; Dutch legation, J. Fagel, count Stirum, M. de Lelefeld, and W. Ragay, Rev. Dr. Werninck, &c. Among the vocal performers who contributed to the amusement of the company, were Braham, Taylor, and Bellamy; and a glee of peculiar interest was sung, composed for the occasion. The usual toasts were given in compliment to the royal family; and in addition—The Emancipation of Holland—The Sovereign Prince of the Netherlands—The Hereditary Prince—The Duke of York and the Army—The Duke of Clarence and the Navy, &c.—His serene highness, in returning thanks for the honour conferred upon him, and for the sentiments expressed of his illustrious father, in delicate terms adverted to the pride he felt at having received a British education, and his instruction in the art of war from the gallant commander of the allies in the peninsula.—The duke of Clarence maintained the spirit



of the convivial meeting, by frequent appropriate addresses to the company; and the utmost harmony prevailed during the whole entertainment. Among the decorations were an illumination, with the words *Soli Deo gloria*; and on the right of the chairman were displayed the British, and on the left the Dutch, colours.

In the early part of the same day, the hereditary prince of Orange paid a visit to the princess Charlotte at Warwick-house, to which he was introduced by the prince-regent in person. On the preceding Sunday, the hereditary prince had dined with the regent; and the princess Charlotte was of the party. On Wednesday, the 15th, at two o'clock, the hereditary prince left his father's house in Harley-street, to proceed on his way to Holland: he arrived at Colchester the same evening about ten o'clock, and immediately proceeded to Harwich, where he embarked on-board the Meteor bomb, for Holland. It is understood that this illustrious person is to be the consort of our charming princess, and that the union will take place, in July next, in London, where the prince has just arrived, and where we hope the parties will continue to reside.

A disaster almost equally calamitous with that which happened about eighteen months before, again occurred at Felling colliery, (see p. 316.) About two o'clock on Dec. 24, the foul air took fire; and nine men, thirteen boys, and twelve horses, fell victims, and eight men were severely scorched. The deceased have left eight widows and eighteen fatherless children.—At Jarro colliery, a large stone fell on two pit-men, and crushed them to death: both left families.—Dec. 28, in a pit belonging to Mr. Burdon, of Hartford, a man named Nicholson, upon whom a large stone fell while ascending the pit, had his head cleft in two, and died instantly; while another, in the same loop, had his thigh dreadfully lacerated, but kept his hold both of the rope and the dead man till they reached the top. Two men at the bottom of the pit were also injured.

The parliament met on the 4th of November. The address in answer to the speech from the throne was moved in the upper house by the earl of Digby, and seconded by the earl of Clare. Much was said by marquis Wellesley in favour of the address, which he approved without restriction. The duke of Sussex extolled the spirit shown by our army. Lord Grenville expressed his entire concurrence in both the speech and the address; he thanked God he had been permitted to live to see this period of success, and hoped it would be followed by unceasing exertions to cement the grand confederacy against France. Lord Liverpool observed, that the Portuguese were the first who resisted French tyranny; the period had now arrived when large and liberal efforts should be made, in order to secure a permanent and general peace; and he used these remarkable words; that "he would ask no concession of the enemy to obtain peace, which, were he in his situation, he would not be willing to make." The address was agreed to *nem. con.*

The debate upon the address was as favourably treated in the lower house.

On the 8th of November, another vote of thanks was moved by earl Bathurst to the marquis (now duke) of Wellington, which was unanimously agreed to; and separate thanks were voted to sir Thomas Graham (now lord Lyndoch) and sir Rowland (now lord) Hill, as well as to the officers and soldiers of the army.

On the 11th of the same month, lord Castlereagh brought forward his plan for augmenting the disposable force of the country. It is a singular fact, that, just as if the nation and its government were as yet in their infancy, every session during the war has introduced a new system of military defence; till at length our truly-constitutional guard of citizen-soldiers, or militia, seems entirely lost, together with the only new system that ever deserved applause, namely, the enlisting of soldiers for a limited time only.—Lord Castlereagh's plan, this year, was two-fold; first, to induce militia-men to transfer their services from

England to any part of Europe; and secondly, to give additional encouragement for volunteering into the line. Those who make a transfer of their services as militia-men, to receive a bounty of eight guineas, and retain their privileges as in the militia; their officers to receive half-pay when the regiment is disembodied. The militia-man volunteering into the line, if his services are limited to five years, to receive twelve guineas; if he volunteers his services for life, sixteen: officers as high as captains (inclusive) may volunteer with the privates, in the proportion of one captain, one lieutenant, and one ensign, to every hundred men. On entering the army, the officers will at first receive half-pay, and, after one campaign on foreign service, rank as officers of the army with permanent rank, or, if they choose, still continue in the militia. His lordship concluded by stating, that the recruiting by beat of drum gave annually 10,000 men; that his plan would give 20,000 the present year, to which adding 7000, the arrears of former years, there would be an additional disposable force of 27,000 men; and, in the next year, the operation of this plan would give 40,000 men, including 25,000 the average waste; or from 10,000 to 15,000 troops annually. He said he should never lose sight of continuing the militia on its present system, though he entertained sanguine hopes that the men might be replaced without having recourse to the ballot, which was deemed a hardship. His lordship concluded by obtaining leave to bring in "a bill, to enable his majesty to accept of the services of a portion of the militia for the more vigorous prosecution of the war."

On the third reading of this bill, on the 18th, sir William Curtis moved a clause by way of rider, "to save the rights and privileges of the city of London;" which was agreed to. The bill received the royal assent on the 23d of November.

On the same day, lord Castlereagh introduced bills enabling the crown to accept the services of the local militia out of their counties, (in place of the regular militia,) for six weeks at one time; to allow the militias of England and Ireland to interchange with less limitation; to grant pensions to surgeons and non-commissioned officers; &c. &c. These bills passed through both houses, and received the royal assent on the 10th of December.

On the 17th of November, Mr. B. Bathurst obtained leave to bring in a bill to suspend for a limited time the proceedings on actions for recovery of penalties under the act of the 43d of the king, commonly called the *non-residence act*. The grounds of this measure were the following: Mr. Wright, who had been the registrar (or secretary) in the bishoprics of London, Norwich, and Ely, had instituted prosecutions against the clergy in the above dioceses, for penalties, for non-residence, to the amount, if recovered, of 80,000l. In the situations which that individual held, he had not only acquired the means of knowing what had been done, and what had been omitted to be done, by the clergy of those dioceses, but he had possessed the power of preventing, if he chose it, the appearance of those documents which might be a defence against the prosecutions that he had since instituted: for, in the ordinary course of episcopal business, the particular notifications of the clergy were entrusted to this very individual himself!—The transactions of every diocese were so extensive, that it was impossible for the bishop personally to go through them; and it was not at all improbable that many of the letters of notification, for the non-delivery of which the actions had been brought, had been put into the hands of this identical registrar, or secretary, and might by him be suppressed or not, at pleasure. In fact, he had received many letters from highly-respectable individuals, in which they assured him that they had applied, first by letter, and then by word of mouth, to this Mr. Wright, and that they had been assured their licenses would be made out in consequence. In some cases, he had been out of the way, and no satisfactory answer could be obtained; until at length, for some reason into which he would not then



enter, this person was removed from his situation on the accession to the see of London of the present bishop. He had subsequently been removed from his office in the other episcopacies; and had since openly avowed that, "having done with the bishops, he would attack the clergy." The greater proportion of these actions (he said) were founded on the mere omission of the returns.—As to the real state of residence and non-residence, and whether the clergy deserve to be attacked or not, see the list at p. 316, 17.

Lord Castlereagh, on the same day, spoke at full length upon the engagements his majesty had entered into with foreign powers in the course of the year; and observed, that it would be useful that such a statement should be made, in order that foreign powers might themselves see the extent of the exertions made by this country; for it had fallen to the lot of government to refuse many applications for assistance, which it was impossible for it to give. A considerable aid had been afforded to the armies of Spain and Portugal, independently of the subsidies furnished to those governments. In the field, it had been found that the public service could not be allowed to stand still; to prevent which, they had been in many instances supplied from our commissariat. The direct aid to Spain was two millions as a subsidy; and quantities of military stores, which had been left by parliament to the discretion of the government, had been given on a principle of liberality. The actual provision; therefore, made by parliament, was two millions for Spain and Portugal; for Sicily 400,000*l.* and for Sweden one million. The house would feel the extent of the support which we had offered to the cause of the world, when he stated, besides the waste of our own army, we had furnished half a million of stand of arms to Spain and Portugal, and 400,000 stand of arms to various parts of the continent. He admitted that the efforts made by this country, in support of the allies, were some of the greatest that this country had ever made. The subsidy, and the credit granted by this country to Russia, would amount to not less than five millions. The general ground on which the government had thought it right to stretch the sum to five millions, was, because the salvation of Europe, at the time of signing the treaty, seemed to depend mainly on the exertions of Russia and Prussia. Every delicacy had been shown by the emperor of Russia to this country and to the allies; and he acceded to the armistice from a wish to satisfy Austria whether the French ruler seriously wished for a peace or not; but, at the same time, he was training his reserves, and by the 17th of August he had the full amount of his stipulated force in the field. The exertions of Prussia, in point of numbers, had been of a lower character. But it was pleasing to see, that that country, which was supposed to have been the most depressed and plundered by the enemy, had now shown the greatness of its mind, and had made the most extraordinary exertions. Besides its garrisons, Prussia had brought into the field 200,000 men; and this exertion had been mainly owing to that great man, Gen. Schaloft, who fell in the battle of Lutzen. He hoped that, in consequence of these exertions made for peace, the house would not think ministers had acted imprudently. Having given this general view as to the negotiation with Sweden, Russia, and Prussia, he now wished to state what had been the transactions of his majesty's ministers with the court of Austria. Much as Austria had at stake in the present struggle, he was satisfied that that power would never have joined the combination, but from the conviction that France was indisposed towards a pacific settlement of Europe. There was not sufficient information before the house to justify him in going into any details of Austria's efforts towards a pacification; but he was desirous to say something, in order to correct an apparent misconception of the member for Bedford. That gentleman had said, that whatever conditions had in a former stage been proposed to France, should now be adopted. Such a supposition put the government into a dilemma, into which they ought not to be thrust; as it implied, either that our

proposals were then not of a nature to be accepted, or that now, in consequence of successes, our demands would be still more exalted. In point of fact, *no plan had been offered*: Austria never went farther than an attempt to mediate, which was met by France by a variety of evasions, which left Austria no alternative, except at once to take arms, or to state the grounds on which she was disposed to mediate. These grounds did not pledge the continental allies or this country: they were merely a basis, scarcely affecting the interests of the other countries, by which Austria wished to ascertain whether her attempts at peace would be hopeless. The reply of France at once showed that all these endeavours were fruitless. The battle of Leipzig, if followed up with discretion and ability, would, he trusted, produce such results as would show, that ministers had not forgotten their duty. He had the satisfaction to say, that the language now adopted was the very same which they had used in a time of comparative depression. The sum to be advanced to Austria was one million, and 100,000 stand of arms, with military stores. It appeared, then, that the subsidies amounted to the sum of 10,000,000*l.* four of which were devoted to the peninsula, the rest to the continental system. It was now necessary for him to say, that he must call upon the house to vote a provision on account, and to enable his majesty's ministers to make good their engagements. He should move, therefore, first, that a provision of three millions should be voted to his majesty on account; and secondly, that leave be given to bring in a bill to recognize the engagements of two millions and a half, already entered into in the subsidiary treaties. His lordship then moved the first resolution.

Mr. Canning, in a brilliant speech, contrasted the past and present state of the war, with the military glory acquired by our troops in the peninsula; and gave his cordial assent to the motion. He characterized the arrogance, tyranny, and unbounded ambition, of Bonaparte, in the most appropriate terms; and deprecated the sickly sensibility which induced many to blame the advance of lord Wellington into France. For his part, he rejoiced at the establishment of the British, Spanish, and Portuguese, forces in the enemy's country.

Sir Gilbert Heathcote objected to the grant of such vast subsidies to foreign powers, at a time when the annual taxes bore so heavy on the community.

Mr. Whitbread said, that unless some broad and definite outline of the demands of the allies, and of the concessions of Bonaparte, were previously laid down and firmly adhered to, we should soon hear of some of our allies making a separate peace. The great course of events held out to us a most important lesson. If we did not take warning from it, but attempted blindly to push our advantages too far, he feared that we should only raise the same irresistible power in France, which, in 1793, had repelled the combined attacks of Europe.—The resolutions were then passed.

On the 19th of November, the sum of 3059*l.* was voted for the repairs of St. Margaret's church.

An official account was laid before the house of commons, and ordered to be printed, which states the amount of the net produce of the permanent taxes in Great Britain, for the year ending the 25th of October, 1812, at 38,743,428*l.* 16*s.* 8*d.* and for the year ending the 15th of October, 1813, at 37,833,366*l.* 12*s.* 1*d.* being a deficiency of about 900,000*l.* The same account states the total amount of the net produce of the war-taxes, for the year ending the 25th of January, 1812, at 21,822,532*l.* 14*s.* 10*d.* and for the year ending the 25th of October, 1813, at 22,740,568*l.* 4*s.* 0*d.* being an increase of about the amount of the deficiency in the permanent taxes. Thus the net produce of the whole of the taxes in Great Britain, for the year ending the 25th of October, 1813, exceeded sixty millions.

The abolition of the slave-trade, that hydra which the herculean labours of our senate thought to have entirely destroyed,



destroyed, still shows one of her heads in the Portuguese and Spanish islands.—Lord Holland, in the house of lords, Dec. 6. recommended that in any treaty with Holland a stipulation should be introduced for the abolition of that traffic. The house seemed to concur in opinion with his lordship; and we trust, that at the present moment, when such an intimate union is about to take place between the two nations, this material point will not be forgotten: indeed, from what passed in the house of commons on the 3d of May following, we may be pretty well assured it will not.

On the 7th of December, Mr. Eden moved, in the house of commons, for some papers respecting the state of Newgate. He said, that the grand jury of the city of London had reported, that in the women's ward, where there were accommodations for not more than 60 females, 120 were now confined; in the debtors' ward, where only 100 ought to be, they found not less than 340, most of whom were destitute of clothes and bedding, and without adequate shelter from the rain. Even the hospital and infirmary were crammed with 120 women, being 20 above the proper number. The dimensions of the principal room for the women, according to the statement of Mr. Newman, was 70 feet in length, and 16 in breadth; in this only twenty women were originally placed, so as to have each three feet six inches in length. Now that number was trebled, and every female prisoner had no more space allowed to her than one foot three inches; they had even less, as many were compelled to keep their children with them, for want of a home to send them to. The hon. gentleman remarked, in conclusion, that the persons thus confined were convicts sentenced to transportation, but waiting the means of conveyance; and prisoners committed on suspicion of crimes, waiting for trial. The hardened were mingled with those who had but just committed a first offence, and who, if they had brought a single seed of virtue into that horrid den, would soon have it choaked in the company of the most abandoned.

Sir James Shaw said, that the over-fullness of Newgate was occasioned by the failure of the late insolvent-debtors' act. The number confined amounted to 350, which rendered it impossible to separate the unfortunate from the depraved. The city of London intended to remove all debtors from Newgate, and a building was erecting for that purpose, which would contain 500 debtors. No objection, however, was made to the production of the papers; and the motion was agreed to.

On the 10th, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, in reply to some observations of Mr. Grenfell respecting the depreciated state of our copper-currency, said, that it was intended to produce a general reformation of the copper-currency, by calling in the Tower-halfpence, suppressing the private tokens, and ordering an issue of improved value.—This conversation caused an alarm in the city, in the expectation that the old halfpence would be immediately cried down. A meeting of tradesmen was convened at some tavern; and they (illegally) determined to accept of none but the new copper coin; and the consequence has been, that good old Tower-halfpence are now become of no value. The subject was therefore again mentioned in the house on the 14th, when the Chancellor of the Exchequer said, that, "in consequence of the misapprehension that prevailed among tradesmen in the metropolis, and their having refused, to a certain degree, the copper-currency of the realm, he thought it proper to state, that it was illegal to refuse the Tower-halfpence, which, on the issuing of the new coin, would be received at the Mint at their full current-value. He trusted this declaration would remove all needless alarm."—The explanation, however, came too late: only a few shops in the metropolis will take the good old halfpence; and the magistrates decline to receive informations against those who refuse them.

As proposals to negotiate for a general peace had been offered by the allies to Bonaparte, and as he had accepted the basis of those proposals, (see p. 350, 1.) it was now thought proper that the parliament should be adjourned for a long period, in order to release lord Castlereagh from his attendance here, and dismiss him to the continent, as if he were the only man capable of managing our affairs at home and abroad. On the 20th of December, therefore, both houses adjourned to the 1st of March; and subsequently, for the same reason, to the 21st.

On the 27th of December, lord Castlereagh took leave of his royal highness the prince-regent. His lordship, accompanied by his lady, two secretaries, and four messengers, besides servants, set off the next day for Harwich, whence they sailed on the 30th for Holland. After arriving at the Hague on the 5th of January, lord Castlereagh, leaving his lady behind, continued his journey by land to Frankfort, where he arrived on the 15th; to Basle, on the 18th; and thence to Chatillon-sur-Seine, where the congress was opened on the 5th of February. All hearts went with his lordship in the wish that he might forward the work of peace; though none could anticipate the mode in which it was to be so happily effected.

That this nation, as well as others, had need of peace, may be seen from the following list of the number of bankruptcies, since the re-commencement of the war, in England and Wales only.

In 1803	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	912
In 1804	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	842
In 1805	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	792
In 1806	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	908
In 1807	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	944
In 1808	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,092
In 1809	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,088
In 1810	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,638
In 1811	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,056
In 1812	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,616
In 1813	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,557

Bankruptcies since the commencement of the war 13,695

Six thousand more might probably be added for Scotland and Ireland; and five times that total for failures equally mischievous to the parties, but settled by a composition: the whole forming a total of 108,000 traders, ruined within the last ten years. When also we consider the dependants, relatives, and connections, of 108,000 of the most active traders in the empire, can we doubt how grateful the return of peace must be to the majority of the people?

It appears by an official report lately published by the commissioners for managing the sinking fund, that they had purchased, on the 21st of Dec. 258,409,466l. 15s. 6d. of capital stock, which bore an annual interest of 7,833,088l. and that, as the public debt of the country on the 5th of January, 1786, when the sinking fund was first established, was but 238,231,248l. 5s. 2½d. more than the whole debt which then existed has now been liquidated, by above twenty millions.—It appears also by another official document, that the outstanding exchequer-bills, or unfunded debt, amounted on the 5th of January, 1814, to 47,156,800l. of which three millions are held by the Bank of England, without interest, and three millions at three per cent. interest, to be paid six months after peace.—The income of the consolidated fund for the quarter ending on the 5th Jan. 1814, amounts to 11,352,000l. exceeding that of the corresponding quarter of the year 1813, by 1,014,000l. The charge upon the consolidated fund is about 12,000,000l. being an excess of about 279,000l. compared with that of the 5th of January, 1813. The deficiency, it thus appears, is not more than 647,000l. whereas in the year 1813 it amounted to 1,383,000l. The war-taxes, after deducting 614,000l. carried to the consolidated fund to defray the charges of different loans, have produced about 3,829,000l.



yielding a surplus of 1,001,000*l.* over the receipts of the corresponding quarter of 1813. The property-taxes have produced near 200,000*l.* more. The customs have fallen off to the amount of 355,000*l.* but, on the other hand, the excise has experienced an increase of near 700,000.

1814.—The last year concluded, and this year began, with such a fog as had been known in the memory of few. The density of the atmosphere during the day, and the heavy fog at night, during a whole week, in London and many miles round, were very remarkable, and occasioned several accidents. On Monday evening, the 27th, his royal highness the prince-regent left town, intending to proceed to Hatfield, on his way to Belvoir Castle, to stand godfather to the duke of Rutland's infant son and heir; the fog, however, was so dense in the metropolis, and for several miles round, that he was obliged to return. Lord Lowther was in one carriage with the prince, and Gen. Turner in a second: they had not got further than about a mile from Tottenham-court-road, when an outrider was thrown off into a ditch. The same night, the mails and other coaches were delayed unusually long, and proceeded on their way with great difficulty and danger. Many coaches were overturned; the York mail twice, near Ware, notwithstanding the guard and passengers walked to keep it in the road. The Maidenhead coach, on its return from town, missed the road, and was also overturned. The daughter of Mr. Griffiths, a publican in Deptford, fell into the Surry canal, and was drowned. On Tuesday night, Dec. 28, a watchman in the parish of Marybone fell down an area, and was found dead the next morning; and on Thursday night, the 30th, a serjeant of the West Kent militia garrisoned in the Tower, fell into the river, and was drowned. There had been no instance of such a fog as now pervaded the metropolis, extending many miles round, since the earthquake at Lisbon, 1755, when this country was visited by a fog which had not been equalled for a century before, lasting eight days. On Saturday afternoon, Jan. 1, between two and four, the obscurity was greater than it had been during the daytime since the commencement, and the evening was equally bad with any that had preceded. On Sunday, however, the fog disappeared, in consequence of a change of the wind; and a frost then set in, almost as unexampled in its duration and severity as the fog had been for its density.

The frost, which set in on Monday the 3d of January, continued with great intensity till Wednesday the 26th, when a partial thaw commenced, which however did not continue longer than the Saturday following, when its progress was arrested by a sharp frost which set in on that night. The thaw had sent such a quantity of ice down the river as completely to choke up the Thames between Blackfriars and London bridges, and the renewed frost so united the vast masses as to render it immovable by the tide. On Monday the 31st several adventurous persons of light weight crossed the river; and their example was followed by a multitude of boys, many of whom, from the rottenness of the connecting ice, particularly near Blackfriars' Bridge, did not escape without an unwelcome immersion. After that period, the ice between the two bridges presented the novel scene of thousands of persons moving on it in all directions. Midway between the two bridges, and nearly opposite Queenhithe, above thirty booths were erected, for the sale of porter, spirits, gingerbread, &c. Skittles were played by several parties, and the drinking-tents filled by females and their companions, dancing reels, while others sat round large fires, drinking rum, grog, and other spirits. Several tradesmen also attended, selling books, toys, and trinkets, of every description. Several printers, having brought their presses, pulled off various impressions, which they sold for a trifle. Among the paths for the convenience of perambulation, the principal was dignified with the appellation of the City Road; and an inscription stated, "Ground to be let on a building-lease; enquire of Mr. Frost." The booths extended

down to London Bridge, under the centre-arches of which numerous spectators were to be seen. The watermen and coal-heavers did not fail to benefit by this curiosity, as the progress of the visitors was much facilitated by their simple inventions at the different stairs and elsewhere, and they were at much trouble to beat footways in different directions. On Thursday, Feb. 3, a sheep was roasted, or rather burnt, over a charcoal fire, in a large iron pan. The admission to the booth where this culinary skill was displayed, was 6*d.* a-head. The ice, from its roughness and inequalities, having been in many places covered several feet with snow, was totally unfit for skating or sliding.—The tide, from the obstruction at London-Bridge, did not ebb for some days more than half the usual marks. On Thursday the 3d, a plumber, named Davis, attempting to cross near Blackfriars' Bridge with some lead in his hand, sunk between two masses of ice, and rose no more.—On the 5th, a thaw again took place; and Kingston-bridge, which had been built upwards of 300 years, gave way by the consequent pressure of the ice. Between high and low pier it sunk near three feet, which rendered it impassable for carriages.—In the night, or rather morning, an accident happened on the Thames, which threatened serious consequences. A booth, which had been erected opposite Brookes's Wharf, for the accommodation of the curious, was left in the care of two men. At two o'clock on Sunday morning, the 6th, the tide began to flow at London Bridge with great rapidity, assisted by the thaw, and the booth was hurried along, with the quickness of lightning, towards Blackfriars' Bridge. There were nine men in the booth; and in their alarm at the violence of their progress they neglected the fire and candles, which, communicating with the covering, set it instantly in a flame. They succeeded in getting into a lighter which had been broken from its moorings; but immediately afterwards it was dashed to pieces against the arches of Blackfriars' Bridge. The poor fellows, nearly exhausted, at length got hold of the balustrades, and so escaped.—The frost set in again on the 11th, and continued till the morning of the 28th, when a thaw again commenced, and continued till the 2d of March; after which the frost again set in sharply, and on the 10th the snow again fell copiously, and continued so to do till the 13th. The frost continued till the 19th of March, when the wind shifted suddenly from north-east to south-east; and on the 20th the temperature was ten degrees warmer.

So long a continuance of very cold weather has seldom been experienced in our climate; but greater degrees of cold have been known often. The average height of the thermometer for Jan. and Feb. 1814 was 17°. On the 31st of January, 1768, Fahrenheit's thermometer at Glasgow was 2 degrees below 0; or 34° below the freezing point; on the 24th of January 1795, the thermometer is noticed in Rees's Cyclopædia to have fallen 6° below 0, but in what part of Great Britain, or what situation, is not stated. In London, during this winter (1814), the thermometer does not appear to have been so low as 0; on the 9th of January it was but 3° above 0, and on the 15th, 4°, in a southern exposed aspect, fifteen feet from the ground: the average height about 17°. There was not much piercing wind; but the great quantity of snow was the means of consolidating the masses of ice on the Thames.

The snow accumulated in the midland counties, particularly on the borders of Northamptonshire and Warwickshire, to a height altogether unprecedented. In the neighbourhood of Dunchurch, (a small village on the road to Birmingham through Coventry,) and for a few miles round that place, in all directions, the drifts exceeded the height of four-and-twenty feet.—At Newcastle the frost was so intense, that Fahrenheit's thermometer, on the town-moor, was 14 degrees below the freezing point; and in a garden at Ravenworth it was at 18. At York it was 23 degrees below the freezing point. The River Tyne was long frozen both above and below the bridge. It will be a memorable circumstance, that so large and rapid a river should



have been frozen to the thickness of 20 inches; and the Antiquarian Society of Newcastle have recorded the event on vellum. Gambols were exhibited in every form on the ice.

In Ireland, so completely was the intercourse between Dublin and the interior suspended, that on the 17th of January no fewer than 1500 country mails were due in the Irish capital; and, in consequence of the mails not being able to travel, not less than ten tons weight of newspapers were accumulated at the post-office in Dublin.—Many persons perished with cold in various parts of the united kingdom.

A letter from St. John's, Newfoundland, of the 3d of March, says; "No inhabitant remembers so mild a winter as we have had here. The harbour has not been frozen over; nor has there been the least impediment to ships entering or leaving the island, further than what is usually experienced from contrary winds."

The severity of the weather in Europe did not hinder the progress of a campaign the most important in its unexpected results that Europe has ever witnessed.

The allied armies began to cross the Rhine on the 21st of December; previous to which, the following proclamation of that date was issued from the head-quarters at Lorrach.—"People of France; Victory has conducted the allied armies to your frontier. They are about to pass it. We do not make war upon France; but we repel far from us the yoke which your government wished to impose upon our respective countries, which have the same rights to independence as yours. Magistrates, landholders, cultivators, remain at your homes. The maintenance of public order, respect for private property, the most severe discipline, shall characterize the progress and the stay of the allied armies. They are not animated by the spirit of vengeance; they wish not to retaliate upon France the numberless calamities with which France, for the last twenty years, overwhelmed her neighbours, and the most distant countries. Other principles and other views than those which led your armies among us, preside over the councils of the allied monarchs. Their glory will consist in having put the speediest period to the misfortunes of Europe. The only conquest which is the object of their ambition is that of peace; but, at the same time, a peace which shall secure to their own people, to France, and to Europe, a state of real repose. We had hoped to find it before touching the soil of France. We come hither in quest of it.

—SCHWARTZENBERG."

Twenty thousand men immediately entered Switzerland at Lauffenberg, a column of 5000 between Rheinfeldt and Balle, where they threw a bridge over the Rhine; 20,000 crossed the bridge at Balle; thus invading France through Switzerland, whose neutrality (see p. 351) was, of course, disregarded. The allies entered Switzerland as friends; and the Swiss soldiers retired to their homes without attempting resistance; doubtless, happy in having been thus relieved from the French yoke. The Swiss cantons indeed immediately made pacific arrangements with the allies; who pledged themselves to replace that country in the same state of integrity and independence as before the French revolution.

Other armies passed the Rhine at Dusseldorf and Coblenz. The whole force amounted to at least 300,000 men; and their route was through Franche Comté and Lorraine, the most vulnerable part of France. The emperor of Russia, with the last of his reserves, crossed the Rhine at Basle on the 13th of January, the anniversary of his crossing the Niemen (the extreme boundary of his empire) in pursuit of the French, who had presumed to invade him. On this occasion, all means were taken (in the Bonaparte-style) to impress on the minds of the enthusiastic Russians, that the two events were interwoven together by the hand of Providence itself.

The first severe affair which occurred in the advance of the allies, was one between the Bavarians under Gen. Wrede, and the French under Victor, near St. Drey; in

the commencement of which the French had some advantage; but, on the arrival of a Bavarian brigade, under Gen. Roy, the French were defeated with loss, and obliged to retreat towards Luneville. Thus the whole extensive plain, from the frontiers of Lorraine, Champagne, and Burgundy, to Paris, was laid open to the allies; who were allowed by the French themselves to possess an immense superiority of cavalry, and whose light troops are represented as "clouds of armed men."

On Thursday, Dec. 30, Napoleon, being seated on the throne, received the senate in a body; when count Lacedepede, the president, presented the following Address:—"Sire; The enemy has invaded our territory; he designs to penetrate to the centre of our provinces. The French, united in sentiment and interest, under a chief like you, will not suffer their energy to be cast down. Empires, like individuals, have their days of mourning and of prosperity; it is in great exigencies that great nations show themselves. No, the enemy shall not tear afunder this beautiful and noble France, which for these fourteen centuries has maintained itself with glory through such diversities of fortune, and which, for the interest of the neighbouring nations themselves, ought always to throw a considerable weight into the balance of Europe. We have for pledge your heroic firmness and the national honour. We will fight for our dear country between the tombs of our fathers, and the cradles of our infants. Sire, obtain peace by a last effort, worthy of yourself and of the French; and let your hand, so often victorious, let fall your arms, after having signed the repose of the world. This, sire, is the wish of France, the wish of the senate—this is the wish and want of the human race."

Napoleon replied—"I am sensible to the sentiments which you express towards me. You have seen, by the documents which I have caused to be laid before you, what I do for the sake of peace. I will make without regret the sacrifices implied by the preliminary basis which the enemy has proposed, and which I have accepted; my life has but one object, the happiness of the French. Meantime, Bearn, Alsace, Franche Comté, Brabant, are invaded. The cries of this part of my family rend my heart; I call the French to succour the French: I call the French of Paris, of Bretagne, of Normandy, of Champagne, and of the other departments, to the succour of their brethren. Shall we forsake them in their distress? Peace and the deliverance of our territory ought to be our rallying cry—at the sight of all this nation in arms, the enemy will fly, or will sign peace on the basis which he has himself proposed. *The question is now no more to recover the conquests we have made.*"

In this extremity, the French ruler was forsaken by almost his last ally, the king of Denmark; for at length that prince was induced to join the allies. (See p. 341.) On or about the 14th of January, three treaties were signed, viz. one between this country and Denmark, one between Denmark and Sweden, and a third with the three powers in conjunction. The following are the terms:—"All conquests to be restored, except Heligoland. Prisoners of war on both sides to be released. Denmark to join the allies with 10,000 men, if England will give a subsidy of 400,000l. Pomerania to be ceded by Sweden to Denmark, in lieu of Norway. Stralsund still to continue a depot for English produce. Denmark to do all in her power to abolish the slave-trade. England to mediate between Denmark and the other allies."

On the 25th of January, at seven in the morning, Bonaparte left Paris, *to which he was never to return!* He had been preceded, on the 20th, by Berthier; and on the 24th he a second time confided the regency, during his absence, to the empress Maria-Louisa; on which occasion she took the oath before him and in a council of princes, grand dignitaries, cabinet-ministers, and ministers of state. On the 23d, the officers of the national guard of Paris, in number 800, were presented to the emperor, in the saloon of marshals; on which occasion the follow-

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ing scene is described to have taken place:—"When his majesty passed on his way to mafs, he was faluted with unanimous shouts of *Vive l'Empereur*. On his return they were reiterated with new force. The officers, divided into legions, formed a vast circle, in the midft of which the emperor placed himfelf. Then appeared a fcene the moft affecting, the moft fublime. The emperor, addreffing himfelf to the officers of the national guard, told them, that a part of the French territory was invaded; that he was going to place himfelf at the head of his army; and that he hoped, with the affiftance of God, and the valour of his troops, to repulfe the enemy beyond the frontiers. At this moment his majesty's looks were tenderly fixed upon the empress and the king of Rome, whom his august mother carried in her arms; and his majesty added, *with a tremulous voice*, that he confided his wife and his fon to the love of his faithful city of Paris; that he gave it the higheft mark of his efteem, in leaving under its protection the objects of his deareft affections; that *he hoped his capital would not be polluted by the prefence of the enemy*; that however, if, in the midft of the grand manœuvres which were preparing, fome hordes of light troops dared to infult its barriers, he was fure that its brave inhabitants would not forget that their fovereign had confided its defence to them."—At that infant, it is added, "a thoufand voices refounded, a thoufand arms were raifed to fwear to defend the precious truft confided to a faithful people."

The national bank of France encountered difficulties amounting nearly to a ftoppage of payment.—It appears that, on the 18th of January, the directors afsembled in a general committee, to deliberate on the fituation in which the commerce of Paris now is; and in the report publifhed of their proceedings, it is affirmed, that they had in ready money fomewhat more than fourteen millions of francs, (about 600,000l.) but that "the eagernels which the holders of notes fhewed to come and require payment of them, would exhauft in a few days all the cash in the bank." They obferved, that the greateft part of their money was in gold; that gold was at a confiderable premium; and that this circumftance would naturally render the draining of the bank the more rapid, as the gold would infallibly difappear from circulation. Under thefe circumftances they refolved not to pay more than 500,000 francs (about 20,000l.) per day; and, in order to make the reftriction more effectual, the prefect of police had announced, by order of Bonaparte, "that no one could apply to the bank of France to change bank-notes, unlefs he were the bearer of a number which fhall have been delivered to him by the mayor of his quarter."

An engagement was fought on the 1ft of February, which lord Burgherth calls the battle of La Rothiere; the French, that of Brienne. The troops immediately engaged, on both fides, amounted to 70 or 80,000 men. The whole of the allied corps were placed, as a particular mark of confidence, under the command of marfhal Blucher; and Bonaparte commanded the French in perfon. The engagement commenced at twelve o'clock. Both armies occupied extended pofitions. The moft obftinate refiftance was experienced at the village of La Rothiere, where Bonaparte led on the young guards in an attack, and had a horfe fhot under him. At twelve at night victory crowned the valour of the allied troops, and the fkilful combinations and movements of their commanders. The French, defeated at all points, retreated in two columns upon Lefmont, Leflicourt, and Ronay: their lofs, which could not be afcertained, was fuppofed to be immense. Thirty-fix pieces of cannon, and four thoufand prifoners, were taken by the allies. The prince royal of Wirtemberg and general Wrede purfued the French; and general Guilay took Lefmont by affault.

The refult of the victory of La Rothiere was the immediate advance of the allied armies, which however were foon to receive a check. The following is an abftract of the official accounts.—Gen. d'Yorck attacked Chalons

on the 5th of February, which furrendered by capitulation, marfhal Macdonald retiring over the Marne in the direktion of Meaux; he had with him the corps of Sebafiani and Arrighi, befides his own. On the 6th, marfhal Blucher's head-quarters were at Sandron. On the 8th they were moved from Vertus to Etoges; Gen. Sacken being then at Montmirail, Gen. d'Yorck at Chateau Thierry, and Gen. Kleift at Chalons; the whole advancing upon the army of Macdonald, who was retiring, with 100 pieces of artillery. On the evening of the 8th, Blucher's head-quarters were again removed to Vertus, on the report of a Ruffian regiment having been attacked at Baye. The advanced pofts of d'Yorck from Dormant, and of Sacken from Montmirail, now reached as far as Chateau Thierry, and la Ferte fous Joare.—In the afternoon of the 10th, the Ruffian corps of Alfsuffe, being at Champaubert, was attacked by a very fuperior force of the French from Sezanne; and, after an obftinate refiftance, was compelled to retire, with confiderable lofs.

On the 11th, marfhal Blucher's head-quarters were at Bergeres. On that day the corps of Sacken and d'Yorck marched upon Montmirail againft the enemy. A fevere engagement enfued for feveral hours, both armies remaining in their pofitions. Gen. Sacken loft four guns. The hotteft part of the action was in the village of Marchais, which was taken and re-taken three times. The French were 30,000 ftrong, under Bonaparte. On the 12th, Sacken was at Chateau Thierry, and d'Yorck at Biffert; Marmont, with the fixth corps, at Etoges. On the fame day, marfhal Blucher, with the corps of Kleift and Kafsiewitz, were in pofition at Bergeres.

On the 13th, Blucher's head-quarters were at Champaubert. He had advanced from Bergeres to attack marfhal Marmont at Etoges, who had about 9 or 10,000 men. The French gradually retired, and feveral brisk attacks were made upon their rear, particularly by the Cofacs. The purfuit continued from Etoges to beyond Champaubert. The French bivouacked in front of Fromentieres. In the mean time Bonaparte marched upon Chateau Thierry, from whence generals d'Yorck and Sacken had retired behind the Marne. On the 14th, Marmont retired from Fromentieres to Janvillieres, where he was joined by Bonaparte, who had made a forced march in the night from Chateau Thierry, with the whole of his guards and a large body of cavalry. A very fevere action now took place. Marfhal Blucher's force being very inferior in numbers, and particularly in cavalry, his infantry was formed into fquares, and he determined on a retreat. The French made the moft defperate attacks of cavalry upon thefe fquares, but were received with fuch undaunted firmnefs, that not one of them was broken. After a very fevere and unequal conteft, carried on during a retreat of nearly four leagues, marfhal Blucher obferved a large corps of cavalry pofted on the chaulée in his rear near Etoges. He refolved to force his way through this obftacle, and, by opening a heavy fire of artillery and mufketry upon this cavalry, pofted in a folid mafs on the chaulée, he fucceeded in his object. Upon reaching Etoges towards night, he was affailed by a body of infantry, which had penetrated through by-roads upon his flanks and rear; but generals Kleift and Kafsiewitz forced their way through this obftacle alfo, and placed their corps for the night in the pofition of Bergeres. Gen. Blucher's whole lofs on thefe days is eftimated at 3500 men killed, wounded, and prifoners; that of the French is ftated to have been very great, as they were expofed to a tremendous fire of artillery, in which Blucher was fuperior. Blucher fubfequently retired to Chalons, where he was joined on the 16th by Sacken and d'Yorck. Part of Gen. Winzingerode's corps had carried Soiffons by affault, taking two generals and about 3000 men. Gen. Winzingerode was himfelf at Rheims. Counts Langeron and St. Priefft were rapidly advancing to join marfhal Blucher, whofe whole army was to unite at Chalons, to refume the offensive.

The town of Sens was taken by affault on the 11th, by  
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the prince-royal of Wirtemberg, who immediately marched on Bray by Pont-sur-Yonne. On the 9th, count Hardegg attacked the rear of the French at Romilly and St. Hilaire; and, joined by Wittgenstein, he again attacked them near St. Aubin and Marnay, and drove them upon Nogent, part of which was occupied by count Hardegg on the 10th. Wittgenstein having advanced towards Pont-sur-Seine, general Wrede towards Bray, the French abandoned the left of the Seine, and destroyed the bridges, which were re-established by the allies; and Gen. Wrede advanced towards Provins. Gen. Wittgenstein crossing at Pont-sur-Seine, generals Bianchi and Guilay were at the same time marching on Montereau; and measures were taken to place the grand army on the left of the Seine, with the right at Mery and the left at Montereau, with the corps of generals Wrede and Wittgenstein, and of the prince-royal of Wirtemberg, at Provins and Ville-neuve.—On the 16th, dispositions were made (on receiving intelligence that Blucher had repulsed the corps opposed to him, and was advancing beyond Etoges) to remove the head-quarters to Bray, and the corps of Wrede and Wittgenstein by Nangis towards Melun; that of Gen. Bianchi pressing upon Fontainebleau.—Mr. Robinson (who brought the dispatches) was officially acquainted, on his road, at Troyes, that, on the 17th, Fontainebleau had been taken by counts Hardegg and Thurn, and general Platoff; that the enemy lost some guns and prisoners, and that the allied advanced posts were again pushed on towards Paris.

On the 18th Bonaparte attacked, with a large corps of cavalry, at Nangis, the advanced guard of count Wittgenstein's corps, under count Pahlen, and drove it back with considerable loss both of men and artillery. Prince Schwartzberg then withdrew his army behind the Seine. On the 19th the French made three desperate attacks upon the corps of the prince-royal of Wirtemberg, posted at Montereau, and occupying the bridge at that place. They were repulsed with loss: the prince of Wirtemberg took some cannon: late, however, in the evening the attack was renewed, and the French succeeded in obtaining possession of the bridge, and passed over a considerable part of the army.

In the mean time, a treaty had been concluded between Bonaparte and Ferdinand VII. king of Spain. The bearer of it to the Spanish government was the duke of San Carlos. He arrived at Madrid on the 4th of Jan. with a letter from Ferdinand, dated from Valence in France; in which, after announcing his own good health, and that of his uncle and brother, he expressed the satisfaction he felt with the sacrifices of the nation for his person, and its exertions in his behalf. He is farther made to praise the persevering spirit of the English, and the admirable conduct of lord Wellington, together with that of the Spanish generals and the allies. The treaty is dated Valence, Dec. 11, 1813; and is comprised in 15 articles. The places occupied by the French are to be restored in their present state. Ferdinand engages to maintain the integrity of Spain in all her possessions, particularly in those of Port Mahon and Ceuta. A military convention is to be concluded, whereby the English and French troops are to evacuate the peninsula at the same time. Napoleon and Ferdinand agree to maintain the maritime rights of Europe, such as they are said to have been settled by the treaty of Utrecht, and to have existed in 1792. All the Spaniards attached to Joseph are to be restored to their country. The garrison of Pamplona, together with the prisoners at Cadix, Corunna, &c. placed in the hands of the English, to be restored. Ferdinand to pay his father and mother 30 millions of rials annually; and, at the death of the father, two millions of francs to be continued to the mother.

The following extract from the Conciso, Spanish paper, shows that the Spaniards were not duped by the artifice thus laid to entrap them: "There is not a good Spaniard who does not desire the return of the unfortunate Ferdinand; but he wishes it for the good of his country, and

not to expose it to greater evils than those it has already suffered. Ferdinand must return in the way in which Spaniards wish it, and not as Bonaparte means it. He must come to make us happy, and not to be the cause (though the innocent one) of new calamities. Happy will be the day on which Ferdinand, restored to his loyal subjects, may be thus addressed: Here is your throne, preserved by the loyalty of your subjects; here is your crown, ransomed by the blood of Spaniards; here is your sceptre, which Spanish constancy replaces in your hands; here is your royal robe, tinged with the blood of thousands of victims who have fallen that you might preserve it. Never forget that to the Spanish people you owe every thing! Never forget that you are come to be the chief of a nation, the monarch of subjects, who have abolished the vestiges of despotism."

The Cortes came, on the 2d of February, to a final determination, respecting the mode of receiving Ferdinand VII. By a decree, consisting of 14 articles, it is resolved, that Ferdinand, on entering the territories of Spain, must immediately swear to observe the provisions of the new constitution. He is to be accompanied by no foreign force, by no renegade Spaniards, by no foreigners of any description, either in the capacity of domestics, or any other.

It was on this occasion noticed, with great concern, that two parties are gradually forming in Spain; one the advocates of a despotic monarchy, the other the admirers of the new constitution. Reyna, the deputy for Seville, declared at this sitting of the Cortes, "that, when Ferdinand VII. was born, with him was born the right of ruling Spain despotically; and that, when he should return, the constitution would be null and void." The deputies and the people in the galleries were so indignant, that Reyna was driven from his place, and a process instituted against him.

Ferdinand has however now reached his father's kingdom under better auspices. He arrived at Valencia in Spain on the 16th of April, and is probably before this time at Madrid.

The present was thought a favourable opportunity for endeavouring to ascertain how the minds of the French people were affected towards the Bourbons. The experiment was attended with the happiest result. The count d'Artois, brother to the king, left Basle on the 19th of February, and advanced into Franche Comté. He immediately published the following proclamation:—"We, Charles Philip of France, Son of France, Monsieur, Count d'Artois, Brother to the King, and Lieutenant-general of the Kingdom; to all Frenchmen, greeting, Frenchmen! The day of your redemption is arrived; the brother of your king is in the midst of you—he comes to rear again the ancient banner of the lilies in the heart of France, and to announce to you the return of happiness and peace, and the restoration of law and public liberty under a protecting government. No conqueror, no war, no confiscation, no consolidated taxes; any longer! At the voice of your sovereign, your father, may your misfortunes be wiped off by hope, your errors by forgiveness, and your dissensions by the union to be effected, for which he is your security. He burns with desire to fulfil the promises he has made to you, which he this day solemnly renews; and by his love and benevolence to render happy the moment, which, bringing him back to his subjects, restores him to his children. *Vive le roi!*"

The count was received in all the French towns and villages with acclamations, and with cries of *Vive le roi Louis XVIII. Vivent les Bourbons*. On arriving at Vesoul, the population of the town, about 5000 souls, came out to meet him.

But it was at Bourdeaux that the first official and important manifestation of this happy change took place.—In consequence of the defeat of Soult by lord Wellington at Orthes on the 27th of February, general Beresford was ordered to push forward to attack Bourdeaux; but he



there met with a reception as gratifying as it was unexpected. As soon as his approach, at the head of the allied troops, was known at Bourdeaux, Mr. Lynch, the mayor, advanced on the way to meet him, attended by the constituted authorities, the principal inhabitants, and an immense multitude, in carriages, on horseback, and on foot. In his capacity of mayor, he was decorated with the insignia of Bonaparte's government; but, on his drawing near to marshal Beresford, he tore them and trampled them under foot. The white cockade was instantly substituted for them. This conduct was greeted with universal acclamation, and the mayor immediately addressed marshal Beresford in a prepared speech. He then, at the head of the procession, conducted the marshal into the city. This was on the 12th of March. On the day following, his royal highness the duke of Angoulême, son of the count d'Artois, and married to the daughter of Louis XVI. approached the city of Bourdeaux. He was met at two leagues' distance by a troop of 200 young men of the first families in the neighbourhood, mounted on horseback, and adorned with white cockades and sashes. Bourdeaux, it is to be observed, is the second city in France for wealth, size, and numbers; and has a population of 112,800 souls.

*Murat*, Bonaparte's brother-in-law, and his king of Naples, like other rats, now thought fit to forsake a falling house, in hopes of preserving his kingship. A proclamation, issued by him on the 17th of February, states his having joined the allies; that he had given up the three islands opposite Naples, and his whole fleet, for which he was to receive sufficient compensation; and that he was going to take possession of the south of Italy, as far as the right bank of the Po. Immediately after this proclamation, the Neapolitan troops took possession of Rome in the name of the allies. The treaty of peace between the allied powers and Murat of Naples was ratified in that city on the 30th. The most important article is, that the naval and military force of Naples is to be commanded by British officers. Murat, soon after he joined the allies, set at liberty all the priests who were imprisoned in Rome for having refused to take the oath of allegiance to Bonaparte.

After the defeats which two columns of the allied army had suffered up to the 19th of February, their advanced posts, which had occupied Fontainebleau, fell back to Troyes, to which city they were followed, on the 23d of February, by Napoleon. A general battle was expected; but they evacuated Troyes, and retreated beyond Bar-sur-Aube, even to Chaumont. Blucher, in the mean time, endeavoured to join Schwartzberg at Troyes; but, not arriving in time, he was again attacked by Napoleon on the 28th of February, driven across the Aube, and followed to Sezanne, Meaux, and Soissons, across the Aisne to Laon, a strong position, in which he was joined by 40,000 men under Winzengerode and Bulow from Flanders.

In Laon Blucher was attacked, on the 9th of March, by the whole army of Napoleon, who continued the attack through the 10th. On the 9th, the French were repulsed with the loss of 45 pieces of cannon, with tumbrils, baggage, and many prisoners. The city of Laon is situated on an elevated plateau, with deep shelving banks, which command an extensive plain around; the town covers the greater part of the plateau; the remainder is crowned by an old castle, and by several windmills built on high terrace-walls. General Bulow's army occupied this position; the remainder of Blucher's army was posted on the plain below, to the right and left of the town, fronting towards Soissons; and the cavalry was in reserve in the rear. Before day-light in the morning the French made their attack; and, under cover of a thick fog, which concealed all their movements, obtained possession of the villages of Semilly and Ardon, close under the town, and which may be regarded as its suburbs. The musketry reached the walls of the town, and continued

without intermission until about eleven o'clock, when the fog began to disperse. The French were then driven from Semilly; and Blucher, the moment he could observe any thing of the enemy's position, ordered the cavalry from the rear to advance, and turn his left flank. General count Woronzoff, who was on the right of the field-marshal's position, advanced at the same time with his infantry, pushed forward two battalions of yagers, which drove in the enemy's posts, sustained a charge of cavalry, and maintained themselves in an attitude to keep the left of the enemy in check until the cavalry could advance. Blucher, at the same time, directed the advance of a part of general Bulow's corps against the village of Ardon, from which the French, after sustaining a fire for about half an hour, were compelled to retreat. Whilst the cavalry was taking a circuit round from the rear, and at about two o'clock in the afternoon, the enemy was observed to be advancing a column of sixteen battalions of infantry, with cavalry and artillery, along the *chaussée* from Rheims. General d'Yorck was directed to oppose him, and general baron Sacken ordered to general d'Yorck's support. It was here the battle became most general and decisive. The French opened a formidable battery of at least 40 or 50 pieces of artillery, and advanced with a confidence from which they must have arrogated to themselves every success. They formed a column of attack, and were moving forward with a *pas de charge* to the village of Althies, when prince William of Prussia, who was advancing to the village at the same time, met them half-way, and overthrew them. They then began a retreat, which soon became a flight. Eight pieces of artillery, with horses and every thing belonging to them, were immediately taken, and successively twenty-two pieces more. They were pursued as far as Corbeny, losing baggage, prisoners, &c. in the way; and the pursuit continued during the whole of the night.

On the right, no particular advantages were gained beyond the expulsion of the French from the villages they had gained possession of in the morning. General count Woronzoff, towards the close of the day, again attacked with the greatest vigour; but he had large masses opposed to him, and the ground presented difficulties against the active co-operation of his cavalry.

The attack continued during the whole of the next day. The plain below the city of Laon is interspersed with villages and small woods, which became the scene of very warm and obstinate contests. A wood near the village of Clacy, on the right of the position, was taken and retaken four or five different times, and remained finally in possession of the allied troops. The infantry of general Winzengerode's corps; under the command of general count Woronzoff, were the troops engaged there; in the centre and left of the position the French maintained themselves; and, at about half an hour before sunset, threw forward a body of skirmishers, supported by two battalions of infantry (the rest of their army remaining in reserve), and attacked the village of Semilly close under the walls of the town; but a battalion of Prussians threw itself in the road, and, supported by the fire of the troops on each flank, compelled them to retire in disorder, and with loss, towards Chavignon, on the road to Soissons.

While these affairs were passing before Laon, St. Priest, another Russian general, captured Rheims; and Schwartzberg, to whom the road to Paris apparently lay open, took a lateral route towards Chalons, crossing the Aube at Arcis, Pont, and Nogent, and bearing with his left upon Paris. Napoleon, on his return to Soissons, marched to the relief of Rheims, which he recaptured on the 11th, taking, according to his bulletin, 5000 prisoners and 22 pieces of cannon, and dispersing St. Priest's corps. The next French papers announced the subsequent occupation of Chalons, after some advantages; and, on Napoleon's moving towards the Aube, the allies recrossed that river, and retreated again towards Bar-sur-Aube and Chaumont.



Thus it is evident that Bonaparte had need of all his generalship, and all his activity, to repel alternately the different armies that were advancing against him in different directions. His old comrade Bernadotte, however, who might have turned the scale suddenly against him, remained quiet at Liege, displeas'd, as it is said, that he was not permitted to send a plenipotentiary to Chatillon, where the congress for negotiating peace had been sitting ever since the 5th of February.

On the 18th of March the conferences were broken off, as we were informed by a letter from lord Castlereagh, dated Bar-sur-Aube, on the 22d; and a few days after, the allies published the following Declaration:

"The allied powers owe it to themselves, to their people, and to France, as soon as the negotiations at Chatillon are broken off, publicly to declare the reason which induced them to enter into negotiations with the French government, as well as the causes of the breaking off of the negotiations.

"Military events, to which history can produce no parallel, overthrew in the month of October last the ill-constructed edifice, known under the name of the French Empire—an edifice erected on the ruins of states lately independent and happy; augmented by conquests from ancient monarchies, and held together at the expense of the blood, of the fortune, of the welfare, of a whole generation. The allied sovereigns, led by conquest to the Rhine, thought it their duty to proclaim to Europe anew, their principles, their wishes, and their object. Far from every wish of domination or conquest—animated solely by the desire to see Europe restored to a just balance of the different powers—resolved not to lay down their arms till they had obtained the noble object of their efforts—they made known the irrevocableness of their resolution by a public act, and they did not hesitate to declare themselves to the enemy's government in a manner conformable to their unalterable determination. The French government made use of the frank declarations of the allied powers to express inclinations to peace. It certainly had need of the appearance of this inclination, in order to justify, in the eyes of its people, the new exertions which it did not cease to require. Every thing, however, convinced the allied cabinets that it merely endeavoured to take advantage of the appearance of a negotiation, in order to prejudice public opinion in its favour; but that the peace of Europe was very far from its thoughts. The powers, penetrating its secret views, resolved to go and conquer, in France itself, the long-desired peace. Numerous armies crossed the Rhine; scarcely were they past the frontiers, when the French minister for foreign affairs appeared at the outposts. All the proceedings of the French government had henceforth no other object than to mislead opinion, to blind the French people, and to throw on the allies the odium of all the miseries attendant on an invasion.

"The course of events had given the allies a proof of the full power of the European league; the principles which, since their first union for the common good, had animated the councils of the allied sovereigns, were fully developed; nothing more hindered them from unfolding the conditions of the re-construction of the common edifice; these conditions must be such as were no hindrance to peace after so many conquests. The only power calculated to throw into the scale indemnifications for France, England, spoke frankly respecting the sacrifices which it was ready to make for a general peace. The allied sovereigns were permitted to hope that the experience of late events would have had some influence on a conqueror exposed to the observation of a great nation, which was for the first time witness in the capital itself to the miseries he had brought on France. This experience might have demonstrated that the support of thrones is principally dependent on moderation and probity. The allied powers, however, convinced that the trial which they made ought not to endanger the military operations, saw

that these operations must be continued during the negotiations. The experience of the past and afflicting revolutions showed them the necessity of this step. Their plenipotentiaries met those of the French government.

"Meantime the victorious armies approached the gates of the capital. The government took every measure to prevent its falling into an enemy's hands. The plenipotentiary of France received orders to propose an armistice, upon conditions which were conformable to those which the allies themselves judged necessary for the restoration of general peace. He offered the immediate surrender of the fortresses in the countries which France was to give up—all on condition of a suspension of military operations.

"The allied courts, convinced by twenty years experience that in negotiations with the French cabinet it was necessary carefully to distinguish the apparent from the real intention, proposed, instead of this, immediately to sign preliminaries of peace. This measure would have had for France all the advantages of an armistice, without exposing the allies to the danger of a suspension of arms. Some partial advantages, however, accompanied the first motions of an army collected under the walls of Paris, composed of the flower of the present generation, the last hope of the nation, and the remainder of a million of warriors, who, either fallen on the field of battle or left on the way from Lisbon to Moscow, have been sacrificed, for interests with which France had no concern. Immediately the negotiations at Chatillon assumed another appearance; the French plenipotentiary remained without instructions, and was away instead of answering the representations of the allied courts. They commissioned their plenipotentiaries to give in the *projet* of a preliminary treaty, containing all the grounds which they deemed necessary for the restoration of a balance of power, and which a few days before had been presented by the French government itself, at a moment, doubtless, when it conceived its existence in danger. It contained the groundwork for the re-establishment of Europe. France, restored to the frontiers, which under the government of its kings had ensured to it ages of glory and prosperity, was to have, with the rest of Europe, the blessings of liberty, national independence, and peace. It depended absolutely on its government, to end by a single word the sufferings of the nation—to restore to it, with peace, its colonies, its trade, and the renewal of its industry. What did it want more? The allies had offered, with a spirit of pacification, to discuss its wishes upon the subject of mutual convenience, which should extend the frontiers of France beyond what they were before the wars of the revolution.

"Fourteen days elapsed without any answer's being returned by the French government. The plenipotentiaries of the allies insisted on the fixing of a day for the acceptance or rejection of the conditions of peace. They left the French plenipotentiary the liberty to present a *contre-projet*, on condition that this *contre-projet* should agree in spirit and in its general contents with the conditions proposed by the allied courts. The 10th of March was fixed by the mutual consent of both parties. This term being arrived, the French plenipotentiary produced nothing but pieces, the discussion of which, far from advancing the proposed object, could only have caused fruitless negotiation. A delay of a few days was granted at the desire of the French plenipotentiary. On the 15th of March he at last delivered a *contre-projet*, which left no doubt that the sufferings of France had not changed the views of its government. The French government, receding from what it had itself proposed, demanded, in a new *projet*, that nations which were quite foreign to France, which by a domination of many ages could not be amalgamated with the French nation, should now remain a part of it; that France should retain frontiers inconsistent with the fundamental principles of equilibrium, and out of all proportion with the other great powers of Europe; that it should remain master of the same positions and points of aggression, by means of which its government, to the misfortune



fortune of Europe and that of France, had effected the fall of so many thrones, and caused so many revolutions; that members of the family reigning in France should be placed on foreign thrones; the French government, in short, that government which for so many years has sought to rule no less by discord than by force of arms, was to remain the arbiter of the external concerns of the powers of Europe.

"By continuing the negotiations under such circumstances, the allies would have neglected what they owe to themselves—they would from that moment have deviated from the glorious goal they had before them—their efforts would have been turned against their people. By signing a treaty upon the principles of the French project, they would have placed their arms in the hands of the common enemy; they would have betrayed the expectation of nations, and the confidence of their allies.

"It is in a moment so decisive for the welfare of the world that the allied sovereigns renew the solemn engagement, not to lay down their arms till they shall have attained the great object of their union. France has to blame its government alone for its sufferings. Peace alone can heal the wound which a spirit of universal domination, unexampled in history, has produced. **THIS PEACE SHALL BE THE PEACE OF EUROPE**—no other can be accepted. It is at length time that princes should watch over the welfare of the people without foreign influence; that nations should respect their mutual independence; that social institutions should be protected from daily revolutions, property respected, and trade free. All Europe has absolutely the same wish to make France participate in the blessings of peace—France, whose dismemberment the allied powers neither can nor will permit. The confidence in their promises may be found in the principles for which they contend. But whence shall the sovereigns infer that France will take part in the principles that must fix the happiness of the world, so long as they see that the same ambition which has brought so many misfortunes on Europe, is still the sole spring that actuates the government? that, while the French blood is shed in torrents, the general interest is always sacrificed to private? whence under such circumstances should be the guarantee for the future, if such a desolating system found no check in the general will of the nation? Then is the peace of Europe insured, and nothing shall in future be able to disturb it."

Napoleon never put forth any declaration in answer to this, in order to throw the odium of breaking off the negotiations upon his enemies; and, as the papers relating to the proceedings at Chatillon are not, and probably will not be, laid before the British parliament, we cannot pretend to say upon what particular points the French emperor was so unreasonable as they say he was. It is probable that he hoped, from his usual good fortune, to recover himself by some lucky stroke; and expected that at any rate his father-in-law would not abandon him.

On the 19th of March, immediately after the rupture of the negotiations, the French army moved upon Arcis, behind which the corps commanded by Gen. Wrede was posted. The allies under the prince Schwartzberg, viz. the 3d, 4th, and 6th, corps, under the prince-royal of Wirtemberg, and the 5th under Wrede, with the whole reserve, were concentrated on the Aube, near Pougy and Arcis, and a general attack was made by the allies on the 20th, in which the French were defeated at all points, with great loss, and Arcis was retaken. At this juncture, Napoleon formed the desperate and extraordinary plan of passing between the armies of the allies, and of striking at their communications with the Rhine, intending at the same time to liberate the garrison of Metz. For this purpose he moved by Chalons on Vitry and St. Dizier, his head-quarters being on the 22d at Obcombe, between the two latter places. Vitry was held by a small Prussian garrison, which refused to surrender. The extent and nature of this project was fully ascertained on the 23d. A movement was immediately resolved upon Vitry, to secure

that place, and to endeavour to cut off the corps of marshal Macdonald, said to be on the left bank of the Marne, between Chalons and Vitry, to operate a junction with the troops under general Winzingerode, which had moved upon Chalons, and to unite both armies.

The emperor of Russia and the king of Prussia left Troyes the 20th, and had their quarters at Pougy. The emperor of Austria moved his quarters on the 19th to Bar-sur-Seine, with all the cabinet-ministers, and came on the 21st to Bar-sur-Aube. On the evening of the 23d, the army broke up from Pougy; and, having marched by Ramerne and Dompierre, assembled at day-break near Sommepeuis; but the corps of marshal Macdonald had crossed the Marne the preceding day, before it could be intercepted. —On the 24th, the junction with Gen. Winzingerode was effected at Vitry and Chalons; and the Silesian army came within reach of co-operating with the grand army. On the 25th, Gen. Winzingerode, with his own and several other corps of cavalry, being left to observe the enemy, the united allied force began its movement by rapid and continued marches on Paris.

The corps of marshals Mortier and Marmont were found at Vetry and Soumefous, and were driven back with loss, and pursued in the direction of Paris. On the 25th, the emperor of Russia, the king of Prussia, and prince Schwartzberg, were at Ferre Champenoise, and on the 26th at Treffaux. Field-marshal Blucher was at Etoges on the 26th, and continued to march on Meaux by Montmirail. In the course of that week not less than 100 cannon and 9000 prisoners were taken, with several general officers. At the affair near Ferre Champenoise, colonel Rapatel, late aide-de-camp to general Moreau, was killed, while exhorting the French to surrender; and colonel Neil Campbell, who had been with the advanced Russian corps in all the affairs since his return from the siege of Dantzic, was severely wounded, having been run through the body by a Cosak, who mistook him for an enemy.

On the 27th, the head-quarters of the allies were at Coulomiers, and the Silesian army reached Meaux. On the 28th, head-quarters at Quincy. Bridges were prepared at Meaux and Triport. The Silesian army advanced to Claye, in front of which village a severe action took place, in which the French were repulsed. On the 29th, the emperor of Russia, the king of Prussia, and prince Schwartzberg, crossed the Marne at Meaux; and the French, being still in possession of the woods near Ville Parisis and Bondi, were attacked and driven beyond Bondi towards Pantin; the head-quarters were established at the former of those places. Field-marshal Blucher the same day marched in two columns to the right, pointing upon Montmartre through Mory, Draucey, and St. Denis.

It appears that, during the night of the 29th, the corps of marshals Mortier and Marmont entered Paris. The garrison, which previously was assembled in it, was composed of a part of general Gerard's corps, under general Compans, and a force of about 8000 regular troops and 30,000 national guards, under general Huin, the governor of the town. This force, under the command of Joseph Bonaparte, took up a position, the right on the height of Belleville occupying that town, the centre on the canal de l'Ourque, the left towards Neuilly. This position was strong, from the intersected nature of the ground on its right. The heights of Montmartre commanded the plain in rear of the canal of l'Ourque, and added strength to the position of the French.

The disposition of attack for the 30th was, the prince-royal of Wirtemberg, forming the left, marching upon Vincennes; general Reissky upon Belleville; the guards and reserves upon the great chaussée leading from Bondi to Paris. Marshal Blucher was to march upon the chaussées from Soissons, and attack Montmartre. All the attacks succeeded: Gen. Reissky possessed himself of the heights of Belleville; the troops under his orders particularly distinguished themselves in the different attacks made by them. The village of Pantin was carried at the point



of the bayonet; the heights above Belleville were carried in the most gallant manner by the Prussian guards; these corps captured 43 pieces of cannon, and took a great number of prisoners.

Nearly at the time these successes had been obtained, marshal Blücher commenced his attack upon Montmartre. The regiment of Prussian black hussars made a most brilliant charge upon a column of the enemy, and took twenty cannon. At the moment of these decisive advantages, a flag of truce was sent from marshal Marmont, intimating a desire to receive any propositions that it might have been intended to make to him, by a flag of truce which had previously been refused admittance. An armistice was also proposed by him for two hours; to obtain which, he consented to abandon every position he occupied without the barriers of Paris. Prince Schwartzberg agreed to these terms. Count Nesselrode on the part of the emperor of Russia, and count Paar from prince Schwartzberg, were sent into the town to demand its surrender.

It was agreed, that marshals Marmont and Mortier should evacuate Paris, with their corps, on the 31st of March, at seven in the morning;—that all the magazines, &c. should be left in their proper state;—that all the national guards should be kept on foot at Paris, or disarmed, as it might be arranged; that the wounded left at Paris should be prisoners; and that the city should be recommended to the generosity of the allies.

It appears from the French papers, that on the night of the 28th Bonaparte came *incog.* and travelled post, to the very gates of Paris; where he had a secret interview with a general from the city, and endeavoured to concert means for forming an army out of the wrecks of the different corps which had been beaten and dispersed in various directions. At dawn of day he returned post-haste to his army.

Meantime the eyes of most people were turned upon the empress. Many proposals were made to this princess to leave Paris, and to throw herself upon the protection of the allies; but she rejected them all, and declared at last, that she desired to be spared all persuasion to this and similar steps, as she was firmly resolved to share the fate of her husband, whatever it might be. She abided by this resolution; and, because Napoleon wished that she should not leave the city except in case of the utmost necessity, she remained there as long as possible; and it is therefore not true that she left the city by Napoleon's order. As the allies approached nearer, every hour the disorder and confusion increased. The real adherents of Napoleon showed more and more that they knew not what to do. Their councils and orders, partly contradictory, partly impracticable, only increased the confusion. As the coming of the allies was wished or feared, various reports for or against the probability of it were spread. A crowd of people assembled on the Place Vendôme, and were preparing to pull down Napoleon's statue, when they were deterred by another swarm, who asserted they had heard that the emperor would enter the city in the evening as conqueror. On the 28th of March a disinterested spectator might foresee what would happen. Already white cockades were distributed, and the adherents of Napoleon diminished more and more. Those, however, who either out of inclination or interest still adhered to him, ardently wished that the empress might not leave Paris, as they hoped to obtain, by her means, a reconciliation with the emperor of Austria, and through him with all the rest of the allies; but the majority, who were already gained for Louis XVIII. endeavoured to obviate this resource. To this end they mixed among the crowd of people, whom they strove to convince that any mediation in which the empress might succeed would prolong Napoleon's sway, and with that the misery of France. The people flocked to the palace of the empress, and uttered threats if she did not withdraw. This princess had now no choice, and she left Paris (not on the 28th of March,

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as was said by some, but) on the 30th, not twenty-four hours before the allies entered it.

In the course of the 29th and 30th, the battles which decided the fate of France and of Europe were fought. Bonaparte had moved his army from Troyes by Sens, towards Fontainebleau. He arrived at Fromont on the 30th; and would have been in Paris, had it not been in possession of the allies. On hearing what had occurred, he retired to Corbeil; and from thence collected his army in the neighbourhood of Fontainebleau, which could not amount to more than forty or fifty thousand men. There it was expected he would make a desperate stand; and accordingly a large part of the allied army was detached to observe his motions.

On the morning of the 31st, the emperor Alexander, with the king of Prussia, and prince Schwartzberg as representative of the emperor of Austria, marched into Paris. They were received by all ranks of the population with the warmest acclamations. The windows of the best houses were filled by well-dressed persons waving white handkerchiefs and clapping their hands; the populace, intermixed with many of a superior class, were in the streets pressing forward to see the emperor, and to endeavour to touch his horse. The general cry was, "Vive l'Empereur Alexandre; Vive notre Libérateur; Vive le Roi de Prusse." Very many persons appeared with white cockades, and there was a considerable cry of "Vive Louis XVIII. Vivent les Bourbons;" which gradually increased.

The enemies became the saviours of the city. The three chiefs, before they entered any house, remained in a square, to see their troops file off before them, to make discipline be observed, and prevent all disorders. At one o'clock, these great military and civil cares were fulfilled. The chiefs of the three armies entered the house of Talleyrand prince of Benevento. The emperor of Russia went to lodge in the house of Talleyrand; the king of Prussia in that of M. Beauharnois; prince Schwartzberg at general Sebastiani's.—At three in the afternoon, the emperor of Russia published the following Declaration: "The armies of the allied powers have occupied the capital of France. The allied sovereigns receive favourably the wish of the French nation. They declare, that, if the conditions of peace ought to contain stronger guarantees when the question was to bind down the ambition of Bonaparte, they may be more favourable, when, by a return to a wise government, France herself offers the assurance of this repose. The sovereigns proclaim in consequence, that they will no more treat with Napoleon Bonaparte, nor with any of his family; that they respect the integrity of ancient France, as it existed under its legitimate kings; they may even do more, because they profess it as a principle, that, for the happiness of Europe, France must be great and strong. That they will recognise and guarantee the constitution which France shall adopt. They therefore invite the senate to name immediately a provisional government, which may provide for the wants of the administration, and prepare a constitution which shall suit the French people. The intentions which I have just expressed are common to all the allied powers.

ALEXANDER."

The conduct of the allied princes on this occasion was really noble. Their own policy, it is true, required what they have done; and perhaps a natural sense of the greatness and power of the nation whose metropolis they were entering helped to confirm it; but it is seldom that princes, who have been exasperated by an enemy's conduct, can restrain their passions in the hour of conquest; and the calm and reasonable proceedings of the Russian and Prussian sovereigns, in securing the peace and property of the city after so many temptations and examples to the contrary, do infinite honour to their characters, and cast back upon the head of their enemy all the mortifications he had endeavoured to heap upon the one, and had actually heaped upon the other. Any punishment that could have been inflicted on him, without

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wantonly



wantonly destroying others, might have been put in effect; but to visit the helpless of all ages, sexes, and conditions, with fresh wretchedness and bloodshed, after all they have suffered from the revolution, and from the faults of their despotic masters, legitimate and illegitimate, was a work of barbarous supererogation, from which, we see, even soldiers shrunk in the hour of victory, and of which, let us hope, the advisers in this country are now well ashamed. The example will not be lost on future occasions. History will remember the just princes, who knew how to separate a bad master, though he had bitterly offended them, from the people who had had the misfortune to be under a succession of bad masters; and the new authorities in Paris, when addressing the two sovereigns, may tell them, in the words of the poet of chivalry, that they have conferred a favour, not only on the Parisians, but on every city and country in the civilized world:

Dico, salvando voi questa cittade,  
V' obbligate non solo i Parigini,  
Ma d'ogni intorno tutte le contrade.

The subsequent conduct of these monarchs has admirably kept pace with the outset; and it will be recorded as not among the least singular events of our extraordinary times, that, under the auspices of two northern despots, then present with their victorious armies, the authorities of the most brilliant state in the south of Europe were allowed and even encouraged to set up their own form of government, and to make it as free and liberal as they chose.

Accordingly, the next day, April 1, at half after three, the senate met by an extraordinary convocation, under the presidency of Talleyrand, when the latter addressed them in a speech in which he designated the people as "forsaken;" and, after proposals from several members, it was decreed that a Provisional Government should be formed, consisting of five persons, with Talleyrand himself at their head. An address also was recommended to be made to the people; and it was to be laid down as principles in this address, that the Senate and Legislative Body should be integral parts of the intended Constitution—that the army, as well as the retired officers and soldiers, should retain their ranks, honours, and pensions—that the public debt should be inviolable, that the sale of the national domains should be irrevocably maintained, that no Frenchman should be made answerable for the public opinions which he might have expressed, and that the liberties of worship, of conscience, and of the press, should be proclaimed; the latter to be subject to the laws. The sitting adjourned for some hours only, and was resumed at nine in the evening, when the signatures were put to the proces verbal of the day. They present us with a number of well-known names, which will raise curious emotions and recollections: among them are Garat, Gregoire, Roger Ducos, Schimmelpenninck, and Volney.

On the succeeding day, the 2d of April, another meeting took place at nine in the evening, when the deposition of Bonaparte, together with the forfeiture of all right to the crown by his family, was announced to the members of the Provisional Government in a letter from the president. The same day appeared an Address to the French Armies, speaking with great bitterness of the calamities which they had suffered through the ambition of Bonaparte, and calling upon them to join the new order of things. The *Moniteur* was at the same time declared to be the only official journal.

The next thing we have to notice is an address made by the emperor Alexander to the senate, who waited upon him the same evening, and to whom, in consequence, he said, of the resolutions they had taken that day, he granted the restoration of all the French prisoners in Russia, amounting, it is supposed, to nearly 200,000 men. This is another of those steps, in which policy and well-tempered feeling equally coincide, and which were greater blows to Napoleon than all the severe hostilities they could

have put in practice. The emperor repeated the sentiments that were put forth by the declaration at Frankfurt; saying, that he made war, not upon the French, but upon a man who had wantonly aggressed him; and that it was "wise and just to give France strong and liberal institutions, conformable to the present state of knowledge." His majesty is resolved to surprise as well as please us every way—both as a Russian and as an absolute monarch. He deserves to be the king of a free people.

The following decree was issued by the Provisional Government on the 2d of April.—1. That all the emblems, ciphers, and arms, which have characterized the government of Bonaparte, shall be suppressed and effaced, wherever they exist. 2. That this suppression shall be executed exclusively by persons delegated by the authority of the police, or the municipality, without the zeal of individuals assisting in it, or preventing it. 3. That no address, proclamation, public journal, or private writing, shall contain injurious expressions against the government overthrown, the cause of the country being too noble to adopt such means!

On the 3d of April, prince Schwartzberg wrote a letter to marshal Marmont, duke of Ragusa, inviting him to accede to the decree by which Napoleon Bonaparte is declared to have forfeited the throne, and to pass with his troops under the new government. M. Marmont, in his reply to the prince, expresses his willingness to contribute to the interests of France, which have ever been his first wish, but requires as a guarantee—"That all troops quitting the standard of Napoleon Bonaparte shall have leave to pass freely into Normandy; and that, if the events of the war shall place Bonaparte a prisoner in the hands of the allies, the prince shall guarantee his life and safety, and that he shall be sent to a country chosen by the allied powers and the French government."—In reply to this letter, prince Schwartzberg accedes to the demand of a guarantee, promises life and safety to Napoleon Bonaparte, and compliments the marshal upon the generosity of his character. Marshal Marmont then passed with his corps of 12,000 men within the lines of the allies.—Thus did this general, by his prudent and noble conduct, mainly contribute, not only to the preservation of Paris, but to the safety of Napoleon himself.

The Provisional Government lost no time in completing its work. On the 6th of April, the Conservative Senate, deliberating upon the Plan of Constitution presented to it by the Provisional Government in execution of the Act of the Senate of the 1st, after having heard the Report of a Special Commission of Seven Members, decreed the following CHARTER OF CONSTITUTION; which, whether it shall hereafter become, as intended, the fundamental law of France, or not, we think very worthy to remain on record, and shall therefore present it to our readers.

Article 1. The French government is monarchical, and hereditary from male to male, in order of primogeniture.

2. The French people call freely to the throne of France, Louis Stanislaus Xavier de France, brother of the last king, and after him the other members of the house of Bourbon, in the usual order.

3. The ancient nobility resume their titles; the new preserve their's hereditarily. The legion of honour is maintained with its prerogatives; the king shall fix the decoration.

4. The executive power belongs to the king.

5. The king, the senate, and the legislative body, concur in the making of laws. Plans of laws may be equally proposed in the senate and in the legislative body; those relating to contributions can only be proposed in the legislative body. The king can invite equally the two bodies to occupy themselves upon objects which he deems proper. The sanction of the king is necessary for the completion of a law.

6. There are 150 senators at least, and 200 at most. Their dignity is immoveable, and hereditary from male



to male, in the order of primogeniture. They are named by the king. The present senators, with the exception of those who should renounce the quality of French citizens, are maintained, and form part of this number. The actual endowments of the senate and the senatorships belong to them; the revenues are divided equally between them, and pass to their successors; in case of the death of a senator without direct male posterity, his portion returns to the public treasure. The senators who shall be named in future cannot partake of this endowment.

7. The princes of the royal family, and the princes of the blood, are by right members of the senate. The functions of a senator cannot be exercised until the person has attained the age of twenty-one years.

8. The senate decides the cases in which the discussion of objects before them shall be public or secret.

9. Each department shall send to the legislative body the same number of deputies it has already sent thither. The deputies who sit in the legislative body at the period of the last adjournment shall continue to sit till they are replaced. All preserve their pay. In future they shall be chosen immediately by the electoral bodies, which are preserved, with the exception of the changes that may be made by a law in their organization. The duration of the functions of the deputies to the legislative body is fixed at five years. The new election shall take place for the session of 1816.

10. The legislative body shall assemble of right each year on the 1st of October. The king may convoke it extraordinarily; he may adjourn it; he may also dissolve it; but in the latter case another legislative body must be formed, in three months at the latest, by the electoral colleges.

11. The legislative body has the right of discussion. The sittings are public, unless in cases where it chuses to form itself into a general committee.

12. The senate, legislative body, electoral colleges, and assemblies of cantons, elect their president from among themselves.

13. No member of the senate, or legislative body, can be arrested without a previous authority from the body to which he belongs. The trial of a member of the senate or legislative body belongs exclusively to the senate.

14. The ministers may be members either of the senate or legislative body.

15. Equality of proportion in the taxes is of right; no tax can be imposed or received unless it has been freely consented to by the legislative body and the senate. The land-tax can only be established for a year. The budget of the following year, and the accounts of the preceding year, are presented annually to the legislative body and the senate, at the opening of the sitting of the legislative body.

16. The law shall fix the mode and amount of the recruiting of the army.

17. The independence of the judicial power is guaranteed. No one can be removed from his natural judges. The institution of juries is preserved, as well as the publicity of trial in criminal matters. The penalty of confiscation of goods is abolished. The king has the right of pardoning.

18. The courts and ordinary tribunals existing at present are preserved; their number cannot be diminished or increased, but in virtue of a law. The judges are for life and irremovable, except the justices of the peace and the judges of commerce. The commissions and extraordinary tribunals are suppressed, and cannot be re-established.

19. The court of cassation, the courts of appeal, and the tribunals of the first instance, propose to the king three candidates for each place of judge, vacant in their body. The king chooses one of the three. The king names the first presidents and the public ministry of the courts and the tribunals.

20. The military on service, the officers and soldiers on

half-pay, the widows and pensioned officers, preserve their ranks, honours, and pensions.

21. The person of the king is sacred and inviolable. All the acts of the government are signed by a minister. The ministers are responsible for all which those acts contain, violations of the laws, public and private liberty, and the rights of citizens.

22. The freedom of worship and conscience is guaranteed. The ministers of worship are treated and protected alike.

23. The liberty of the press is entire, with the exception of the legal repression of offences which may result from the abuse of that liberty. The senatorial commissions of the liberty of the press and individual liberty are preserved.

24. The public debt is guaranteed. The sales of the national domains are irrevocably maintained.

25. No Frenchman can be prosecuted for opinions or votes which he has given.

26. Every person has the right to address individual petitions to every constituted authority.

27. All Frenchmen are equally admissible to all civil and military employments.

28. All the laws existing at present remain in vigour until they be legally repealed. The code of civil laws shall be entitled, Civil Code of the French.

29. The present constitution shall be submitted to the acceptance of the French people, in the form which shall be regulated. Louis Stanislaus Xavier shall be proclaimed King of the French, as soon as he shall have signed and sworn, by an act stating, "I accept the Constitution; I swear to observe it, and cause it to be observed." This oath shall be repeated in the solemnity, when he shall receive the oath of fidelity of the French. (Signed)

TALLEYRAND, Prince of Benevento, President;  
and 67 Members of the Senate.

On the two or three succeeding days, the provisional authorities appear to have been occupied in making the constitution public, and in receiving letters of adherence from the members of the late government. Among the earliest of the names sent in, is that of cardinal Maury, one of the noisiest of Bonaparte's flatterers, and, in short, a gross man of the world, who for his tergiversations, and his efforts to keep well under all changes, deserves to be called the French Vicar of Bray. His eminence however does not appear in the present instance to have had the vicar's good fortune, and has since been recommended not to officiate. He was preparing to officiate in *pontificalibus* on Easter-day. The pulpit was already prepared, and the episcopal throne decorated: but, the chapter having taken from *his eminence* the administration of the church, he was deceived in his expectation; and the preparations that had been made served for M. La Roue, the arch-priest, who performed mass.

While these important transactions were going forward, Bonaparte remained at Fontainebleau.—We have seen that the allies entered Paris on the morning of the 31st of March.—In the evening of the same day, Caulincourt duke of Vicenza came from Bonaparte to the emperor of Russia, offering to accede to the terms of peace which the allies had offered at Chatillon. The emperor gave no other answer, than that the time was past for treating with Bonaparte as sovereign of France.

On the first of April, in the morning, Bonaparte reviewed the troops, which he seemed to consider as his own; the marshals and generals, who had learned from the papers the resolutions of the senate and the provisional government, conversed together on the subject loud enough to be heard by Napoleon; but he appeared to pay no attention to what they said, and the review passed quietly. When it was over, marshal Ney, as had been settled, entered the palace with him, and followed him into his cabinet, where he asked him if he was informed of the great revolution that had taken place at Paris. He replied, with all the composure he could assume, that he knew nothing of



it; though he was doubtless well informed of the whole. The marshal then gave him the Paris papers, which he seemed to read with attention; but he was only seeking to gain time to form an answer. Meantime came marshal Lefebvre, who, addressing his late emperor in a feeling tone, said, "You are undone! you would not listen to the counsels of your servants; and now the senate has declared that you have forfeited the throne." These words made such an impression on him, that he burst into a flood of tears.

It was not, however, till the 4th, two days after the decree of exclusion, that Napoleon dispatched Ney, Caulincourt, and Macdonald, to Paris, offering to abdicate in favour of his son. He seems to have carried his blindness the length of a thorough persuasion that this offer must be accepted; for on the 5th, in the morning, he notified publicly to his army, on the parade, that such was the proposal which he had made to the allies. In the early part of the morning, several of the generals sent to the duke of Bassano, who was mostly alone with the emperor, to dissuade him from appearing on the parade. But he would not refrain from it. About half past eleven he formed a plan, which he made the duke of Bassano write and sign, to repair with 20,000 men, that he had still with him, to Italy, and join the prince Eugene-Napoleon. He repeated several times, "If I choose to go there, I am certain that all Italy will declare for me." On the parade he looked horribly pale and thoughtful, and his convulsive motions showed his internal struggles; he did not stop above eight or ten minutes. When he got into the palace, he sent for Oudinot duke of Reggio, and asked him if the troops would follow him? "No, sir," answered the duke; "you have abdicated." "Yes, but upon certain conditions." "The soldiers," refused the duke, "don't comprehend the difference; they think you have no more any right to command them." "Well then," said Napoleon, "this is no more to be thought of; let us wait for the accounts from Paris."—The marshals returned in the night between twelve and one. Ney entered first. "Well, have you succeeded?" exclaimed the emperor. "Revolutions do not turn back," answered Ney; "this has begun its course; it was too late. To-morrow the senate will recognize the Bourbons."—"Where shall I be able to live with my family?"—"Where your majesty shall please, and, for example, in the Isle of Elba, with a revenue of six millions." "Six millions! that is a great deal for a soldier, as I am. I see very well I must submit. Salute all my companions in arms."—Here Napoleon ceased speaking; and Ney retired to rest; but again entered his master's chamber soon after daylight, and obtained from him the following unconditional abdication:

*"The Allied Powers having proclaimed that the Emperor Napoleon was the only obstacle to the re-establishment of the Peace of Europe; the Emperor Napoleon, faithful to his Oath, declares, that he renounces for Himself and his Heirs the Thrones of France and Italy; and that there is no personal sacrifice, even that of life, which he is not ready to make to the interest of France.*

*Done at the Palace of Fontainebleau,  
the — April, 1814."*

It is not possible to describe in adequate terms the triumphant joy which was testified by all classes, when this unlooked-for intelligence was officially announced in London. The satisfaction was rendered complete upon finding that this was a revolution without bloodshed; and that the people of France were permitted, by their humane, generous, and disinterested, conquerors, to choose a governor, and to frame a constitution, for themselves.

Napoleon's act of abdication was published in the London Gazette Extraordinary on Easter-eve, the 9th of April; and thus the usual civic fête on the following Monday was rendered uncommonly joyous by the memorable events which had recently occurred.—About eleven in the morning, a considerable number of the aldermen of London, the sheriffs, chamberlain, recorder, town-clerk, remembrancer, comptroller, &c. assembled at the Mansion-house,

to accompany the lord-mayor to Christchurch, Newgate-street. The procession was led by the city-marshal and other proper officers, who were followed by the bluecoat-boys (about 700 in number), with their masters and beads; the lord-mayor and the two sheriffs, in their state-carriages; the recorder and aldermen in their carriages,—the horses decorated with white ribbon; and several private carriages with the ladies and friends of the aldermen. Before the sermon, which was preached by the bishop of Ely, an anthem for the occasion was sung by the boys; and after the sermon an account of the progress of the different hospitals was read. The company then returned to the Mansion-house, where they retired to the Chinese parlour and other splendid apartments, till the dinner-hour. The Egyptian-hall was illuminated in a style of great splendour. At half-past six, dinner being announced, the lady-mayor's was conducted to her seat by the duke of Suffex, who sat on her left hand; the duke of Devonshire on the lord-mayor's right; and the foreign ambassadors, ministers, and ladies of distinction, on each side. Besides the great table, there were four long ones; all laid out in the most superb style. The entertainment, consisting of every delicacy of the season in profusion, was served up with much regularity, and was equal, if not superior, to former occasions. The sideboard at the bottom of the hall was graced by a stupendous baron of beef, a present from Mr. Sheriff Magnay. It weighed twenty-six stone; and was part of a Highland ox, sent to the sheriff by his friend James Gibson, esq. on whose estate, at Ingliston, near Edinburgh, it had been fed.

Dinner being ended, the lord-mayor, after a very impressive introduction to the health of our venerable sovereign, and a high complimentary address on proposing the health of the prince-regent, passed a just eulogium on the illustrious prince who had honoured the city and himself personally with his presence at their feast on that day. His royal highness (he said) was no less distinguished for his indefatigable exertions in advancing the cause of national education, than in promoting every useful and humane institution for the relief of the industrious poor. He therefore proposed the health of "The Duke of Suffex;" which was drunk with the warmest and most heartfelt applause. The duke returned thanks in an eloquent address—in which he made a beautiful eulogium on the liberal character of the city of London, which was ever the first to stand forward in the relief of suffering humanity. No man, he observed, could contemplate the issue of the struggle in which Europe had been so long engaged, without feelings of gratitude to the Disposer of all human events; and he trusted that the example of the horrors with which the French people had been so long afflicted, and with which their despot had been allowed to scourge all surrounding nations, would make a deep impression on the minds of all; and on those the most, upon whose conduct the happiness of others must depend. In the course of this fatal period of anarchy and persecution, there had been two distinct and memorable stages—the one, that of unbridled licentiousness, arising from popular fury—the other, that of intolerable oppression under military despotism. He trusted that these would produce an awful warning to the royal family now recalled—so as that, by steering the middle course of a lenient government on the basis of a free constitution, they would maintain with a just authority the peace, security, and happiness, of their people. The duke, after other appropriate observations, concluded with a high compliment personally to the lord-mayor, whom he was happy to attend as an old acquaintance, and whose virtues in private life did honour to him in his high public station.

The lord-mayor, previous to giving the healths of the allied sovereigns, stated, that his mind was so overcome with the succession of events that had taken place within the last few days, that he was fearful he should not be able to give correctly what he meant to say; but he was sure that he should find, in the enthusiasm which filled every



every breath in the hall, as well as his own, an indulgence for his want of ability to do justice to the merits of the high and illustrious characters to whom he was desirous to draw their attention, as well as to his own feelings on the occasion. "In proposing the health of the illustrious sovereign who has appeared most prominent in the wonderful scenes that have passed on the continent within the short space of the last fortnight," said his lordship, "I cannot but wish to offer a few words, expressive of my admiration of a monarch at once so great and so good. His moderation in success, his magnanimity of conduct in circumstances so trying to the vanity of ordinary minds, are without a parallel in history, and probably will ever remain so. But, as I am confident that every sentiment of admiration which I could utter, in praise of so exalted a character, would only be the echo of those sentiments which every individual at present must feel, I shall not longer delay the gratification which all must be impatiently expecting; and give as a toast, "The Emperor Alexander;" which was received with loud and universal bursts of heartfelt acclamation.

The lord-mayor, after an heroic song, in parts, appropriate to the toast, said, "I am highly gratified in having the honour to propose the health of another illustrious sovereign; to whose unshaken adherence to the grand alliance, though placed by family-connexions in a situation of the greatest delicacy, yet to whose preference of the public good and the common cause, over every other motive and feeling, we owe, in a very eminent degree, the liberation of the continent from the tyranny of military despotism—"The Emperor of Austria." This toast was also received with peculiar marks of enthusiasm, and followed by a song in parts.

The lord-mayor then said, "I have now the honour to give the health of another illustrious sovereign, to whose energetic and wonderful military exertions the allied princes and states are in an extraordinary degree indebted for their ultimate success—the sovereign of the immortal Blucher—the king who in his own personal feelings has suffered most in the general misfortunes of the continent; who, besides sharing in the calamities of his country, had to attribute to the insults of the oppressor the severest of all domestic afflictions—"His Majesty the King of Prussia." Repeated bursts of applause resounded through the echoing hall.

His lordship afterwards introduced a tribute to the house of Bourbon, in words to the following effect: "I have now the honour to propose a toast which is new to a public company in this country, but which will not be received with less enthusiasm on that account. I congratulate Europe and the world on the repose and happiness which (we may now indulge the hope) will result from the overthrow of military despotism in France, and the establishment of a limited monarchy, founded, like our own, in a declaration of the people's rights to civil and religious liberty; and I rejoice that the monarchy is restored to the ancient dynasty, because I feel confident, not only that it will give permanence to an honourable peace, but that the present and future princes of that illustrious house will seek their glory in the happiness of their subjects.—"His Majesty Louis XVIII." This was also received by the company with the most lively acclamations.

The duke of Sussex, in a neat address, gave the health of the lord-mayor; who, with equal modesty and dignity, returned thanks; and afterwards gave severally the following toasts:—"The Crown Prince of Sweden—The Marquis of Wellington—His gallant Army—General Blucher—The City of London," &c. &c. all which were most warmly received; and the duke of Sussex concluded the festivity of the table with the constitutional sentiment which he sincerely feels; "The Respectability of the Crown, the Durability of the Constitution, and the Prosperity of the People."

At half-past nine the ladies withdrew to their coffee. The lord-mayor kept up the conviviality with the highest

spirit for an hour, when they all joined the ladies in the ball-room, which was superbly illuminated. At ten, the lady-mayorefs (Miss Domville) entered the ball-room, followed by about one hundred ladies, whose dresses were only surpassed by the beauty of the fair wearers. When seated in her chair of state, the fair visitors arranged themselves on the surrounding benches, and tea was served on massy silver waiters. At half-past ten, Miss E. Domville (sister to the lady-mayorefs) and his excellency the count de la Gardie opened the ball; and dancing was kept up till a late hour.

Illuminations to celebrate these great events commenced in the evening in the metropolis, and were continued on the two following with increased splendour.—Carlton-house was particularly conspicuous. The colonnade was wreathed with continued festooning of flame-coloured lamps. On the architrave blazed in large characters the names of RUSSIA, AUSTRIA, PRUSSIA, and ENGLAND. In the centre was the motto, *Vivent les Bourbons*; and, within a pediment in the centre, the arms of France in a transparency.

The War Office was covered with lamps, forming the name of Louis XVIII. "Moscow burnt—Paris spared."

The statue of king Charles at Charing-cross was covered with laurel. Northumberland House had the whole of the top parapet in a blaze of flambeaux; the lion on the top had his head crowned with laurel, and several bunches of laurel were distributed to ornament the parapet; every window from top to bottom along the front was illuminated, having a candle in each pane.

Marquis Wellesley's house, at Hyde-Park-corner, was lighted up with magnificence. Arches of lamps covered the entrances. Festoons were drawn along the summit of the porch; an illuminated temple, with the arms of the king of France, formed the centre.

Pulteney Hotel had "Thank God" in strong light on the front of the balcony.

The decorations of the Spanish Ambassador's Hotel were costly; large ranges of lamps ran along the outlines of the architecture, and every form of star and wreath glittered above. In the centre was the name of FERDINAND; and underneath, "Good old Times."

Mr. Hunter, Upper Berkeley-street, Portman-square, a transparency, G. P. R. surmounted with the crown; the plume and fleur-de-lis on each side: in the centre, ALEXANDER under a wreath of laurel encircled with olive, and the motto, "May the Rose and the Lily be for ever united;" underneath, LOUIS XVIII. In the windows on each side, the names of WELLINGTON and BLUCHER.

Mr. Bullock, Tenterden-street, Hanover-square, had an illuminated figure of Peace descending on the World, displayed from the roof of his house, facing Oxford-street, during the two last nights, which excited much public curiosity. The figure was upwards of 20 feet high: the globe, over which the figure seems to hover, 9 feet diameter; the whole elevated more than 100 feet above the level of the street. The figure was shown by lights concealed behind the parapet, and thrown upon the object by reflectors; the globe illuminated by lamps within. We conceive this to be a new mode of producing a curious and splendid effect, and well calculated for public occasions of this nature; besides that it has the advantage of appearing as well by day as night.

Lord Liverpool had a small decoration on the entrance to Fife-house. An arch of thick splendour enclosed the motto, "Reward of Perseverance;" on the capitals of the side-pillars were a lion sitting under the shadow of the British crown, and the lilies under that of France.

Spencer-house was magnificently decorated along its entire front, and bore the inscription—

Europa Instaurata,      G.P.R.      Auspice Britannicæ,  
Tyrannide Subversa,      Vindice Libertatis.

Mr. Ackermann's, in the Strand, exhibited a transparency of the dethroned Emperor attacked by Death, who



places his foot on his breast, and holds in one hand an hour-glass almost expended, and in the other a spear. The fallen ruler supplicates Death to arrest his fatal purpose: beneath him are broken eagles, torn flags, &c. and in his hand he grasps the shattered remains of a sword. On the walls of Paris are seen Cossacs and other Russians, Prussians, Austrians, &c. who are raising the standard of the Bourbons.

Cockney punning was not forgotten in some of the designs. In a large transparency representing Napoleon tumbling from the Mount of Republicanism into the arms of a demon, there was the inscription, "To Hell-Bay."

Covent-Garden Theatre.—On a tablet was the word PEACE, formed of transparent lamps, laid on a gold ground, surmounted by a regal crown of great splendour; covering one of the windows there was a hay-rake and fork crossways, also formed of small lamps; and on the window on the other side the crown, the figure of a scythe and sickle crossways, as emblematical of returning peace and plenty.

Drury-Lane Theatre had two branches of laurel, over which the word PEACE, in letters of nearly four feet long, formed of many chains of amber-coloured lamps, laid on a silver ground, which had a very fine effect; this was surmounted by a crown of large dimensions, appearing to be formed of various precious stones, which covered a considerable part of the front of the building.

The Bank was marked out in the architecture of its arches and architraves by illuminated lamps; and the arches were filled up by oval stars. On the top of the façade appeared the words "Europe delivered!" in the centre was a rich crown, supported by stars, and at the bottom was inscribed "Our brave Allies."

The East-India-house covered its pillars with lamps, as usual, and illuminated its centre with the name WEL-LINGTON at the top; underneath, ALLIES, PEACE, COM-MERCE, in deep-yellow lamps; below, the letters G. P. R. and the prince's feathers encircled by laurel.

Rowland Hill's Chapel, in Blackfriars-road, had a large scroll, headed with the words, "The Tyrant is fallen;" and the following quotations from sacred writ:—"And the pride of thine heart hath deceived thee, thou that dwellest in the clefts of the rock, whose habitation is high, that saith in his heart, Who shall bring me down to the ground? Though thou exalt thyself as the eagle, and though thou set thy nest among the clouds, thence will I bring thee down, saith the Lord." "Therefore, O ye judges, be just; learn righteousness, ye princes of the earth."—Underneath was a representation of the emblems of peace, the lion sitting down with the lamb, the implements of agriculture, the view of a village-church, and the sea in the back ground, covered with commerce; the whole denoting the repose to which the world may now look forward.

At Southgate, the effigy of Bonaparte, dressed in his military uniform, and decorated with all his imperial insignia (furnished by Sir Wm. Curtis), was hung up, and in the evening burnt. The baronet added to the joy of the villagers by a donation of beef and ale.

On Wednesday night, at twelve o'clock, the gates of Carlton-house were thrown open, and six hogheads of strong ale were trundled into the street, to wet the throats of many who were hoarse with making huzzas, &c. &c. In a moment the head of each cask was staved; and, for want of a better substitute, the mob filled their hats. The screaming of the women, the huzzaing of the men, the firing of guns and pistols, rent the skies. Drums, trumpets, horns, hand-bells, marrowbones and cleavers, added to the glorious confusion.

The following curious robbery took place on Thursday morning: Two or three men, having the appearance of lamp-lighters, came with ladders and hampers, and took down all the lamps which were used in illuminating the fronts of some houses in Holborn, which they carried away, leaving behind them the frames on which they hung. No suspicion being entertained of their stealing them, they

were suffered to take them away without being asked a single question, or any particular notice taken of their persons. At twelve o'clock, when the real owners came to take down their lamps, they discovered that they were eased of that trouble.

A foreign guest, not a little gratified at our rejoicings, was her imperial highness the countess Romanoff, duchess of Oldenburg, and sister to the emperor of Russia, who had arrived in London on the 31st of March, the very day that her august brother entered Paris. She had landed at Sheerness on the day preceding, in company with his R. H. the duke of Clarence. She is a very elegant and accomplished lady, speaking English well. The prince-regent sent his carriage and beautiful bay horses to bring her imperial highness into London, which she entered in state, followed by a party of light horse, and proceeded to the Pulteney Grand Hotel. The duke of Clarence and colonel Bloomfield handed her from her carriage; and the regent sent his congratulations. She was accompanied by the princess Volochowsky, madame Aladensky, countess Lieven, and prince Gagarin. Her highness has experienced great attention from the royal family; and has visited almost every object of curiosity in the metropolis, displaying, by judicious inquiries and remarks, a well-informed mind and a correct taste. She has also been on a tour through the west of England.

The object of this lady in visiting our island is said to be the restoration of her health, which has been much shattered by the death of the duke her husband. The cause of that event was the duke's constant attendance upon sick and wounded prisoners, which brought on a malignant fever; and during the last four days of his life his imperial consort would suffer nobody to come near him but herself. The immediate consequence of her loss was a succession of fainting-fits, to which she is still subject; and these were followed by a settled melancholy, which, by the advice of her physicians, and chiefly by the tenderness and anxiety of her brother the Russian emperor, she has been induced to relieve by change of scene and climate, and the amusements of society. The duchess has two sons, but has brought only one of them with her, who is still an infant: the other is left under the protection of the emperor Alexander, who intends, it is said, to bring him over among us himself. Her highness resides at the Pulteney Hotel in Piccadilly, and has a suite of thirty-nine domestics, of whom only four are English. None of the male servants speak either French or English; and, as a mark of Russian tenaciousness, we are informed by the Morning Post (who is our authority indeed for all these particulars), that two of them who guard the entrance to her sitting-room "refused to admit the duke of Clarence without a special order from their mistress." Her highness's fortune is about 200,000 rubles per annum. The duchess is about twenty-six years of age, and has been a widow fourteen months. She constantly wears black, with three ostrich-feathers of the same colour affixed to a simple head-dress. We trust that our fair visitor will find what she has come to seek. The plan, which has been advised for her recovery, is the best which she could adopt; and, though there are finer climates than England for such kind of indispositions, there is no country where she may meet with society calculated so much to relieve her, or with so many varieties of men and objects worthy to be seen.

Monsieur, the brother of Louis, made his public entry into Paris on the 12th of April.—At mid-day, the members of the provisional government, and the commissaries of the several ministerial departments, preceded and followed by the municipal body, and numerous detachments of the national guard of Paris, repaired to the barrier de Bondi, to meet his Royal Highness Monsieur, Brother of the King, and Lieutenant-general of the Kingdom. A little before one o'clock his R. H. appeared on the outside of the barrier, surrounded by several grand officers and officers of his household, and a group of marshals of France, who had gone before to meet him. Monsieur, and all the persons



sons who surrounded him, were on horseback. His R. H. was dressed in the uniform of the national-guard.—At this moment the members of the provisional government, preceded by the masters of the ceremonies; advanced; and Talleyrand prince of Benevento, in the name of the provisional government, addressed the prince in these terms:—“Monseigneur; the happiness which we feel, on this day of regeneration, is beyond expression, if Monsieur receives with that celestial goodness which distinguishes his august house, the homage of our religious tenderness, and of our respectful devotion.”

The following is nearly the answer of Monsieur, as far it could be collected:—“Gentlemen, Members of the Provisional Government; I thank you for all you have done for our country. I experience an emotion which deprives me of the power of expressing all that I feel. No more divisions—Peace; and France. I see it once more, and nothing is changed, except that there is one Frenchman more amongst you.”

The cries of *Vive le Roi! Vive Monsieur! Vivent les Bourbons!* resounded on all sides. His R. H. having entered within the barrier, the baron de Chabrol, prefect of the department of the Seine, presented to his R. H. the municipal body of Paris.—The cavalcade then advanced to the metropolitan church. New cries of *Vive le Roi! Vive Monsieur!* resounded every where as he passed. It was nearly three hours before the cavalcade reached the church of Notre Dame.—The church, which could not be very magnificently prepared for the occasion in the short space of scarcely twenty-four hours, presented an appearance much superior to all possible decorations. In the sanctuary were assembled the cardinals, archbishops, and bishops, that were at Paris, and the clergy of the metropolis and its environs; in the choir and in the upper part of the nave several of the principal bodies of the state, and a considerable number of generals and officers, both French and foreigners. The nave, passages, and aisles, were filled with an immense crowd of spectators, waiting for the prince with the most lively emotion, whom some were eager to recognize, and others to see for the first time. At last his arrival was announced by long-continued acclamations. The canons, in their robes, waited for his R. H. at the great gate of the church. He was received under the canopy; and his first movement was to throw himself on his knees to return thanks to God. The abbé Lemire, in the name of the chapter of the cathedral, pronounced a speech; to which the prince made an answer full of grace and goodness. On the passage of his R. H. into the nave and into the choir, the cries of *Vive le Roi! Vive Monsieur!* were repeated with an ardour that the sanctity of the place could not restrain.—Monsieur was conducted by the baron de Cramayel, performing the office of master of the ceremonies, to the chair and desk which were reserved for him under a canopy in the middle of the choir. His R. H. took his place there, surrounded by his officers and almoners. Behind the chair of Monsieur were chairs on which were placed the members of the provisional government. Around the prince, on his right and left, were Gen. Dessolles, commandant of the national guards of the department of the Seine, the marshals of France, and the commissaries for the ministerial department; in front of the chair of his R. H. were the masters of the ceremonies with their assistants. The enthusiasm with which all the French were animated was rapidly communicated to the Russian, Austrian, Prussian, English, Spanish, and Portuguese, officers, stationed in the choir of the cathedral. Many shed tears of joy. It appeared as if the whole of Europe, represented by a selection of French and foreign warriors, swore at that moment peace, the blessing of which is about to heal the deep wounds of France. The canons having taken their stations in the sanctuary, the *Te Deum* was performed at the grand orchestra. It was followed by *Domine salvum fac regem*, which all hearts repeated.

The ceremony being over, his R. H. was conducted

back under the canopy, amid acclamations still louder, if possible, than those which were heard at his arrival. He again mounted his horse; and the cavalcade that had gone to meet him at the barrier conducted him to the palace of the Thuilleries, amidst the transports and effusions of a people abandoning themselves to the most lively enthusiasm. At the moment of the prince's entering the palace, the white flag was hoisted over the pavilion of the centre, amid the acclamations of the innumerable crowd who covered the gardens of the Thuilleries. Being conducted to his apartments by his attendants, he gave several audiences; at the conclusion of which the cavalcade retired, carrying away those lively impressions, the memory of which will never be effaced. When his R. H. had re-entered his apartments, one of his suite said to him, “Your royal highness must be much fatigued.”—“How,” replied the prince, “can I be fatigued on such a day as this!”

In the evening the greater part of the public edifices, and a great number of private houses, were spontaneously illuminated, and decorated with ingenious emblems. At the Theatre Français, in the evening, was represented the piece called the Hunting Party of Henry IV. which had not been performed for twenty years before. The allusions which it presented to the existing state of affairs were eagerly seized, and cheered with indescribable enthusiasm. The national air of *Vive Henry Quatre* was joined in by the audience with exclamations of *Vive le Roi! Vive Monsieur!* and, in the scene where the health of the good Henry is drunk, the spectators, amid the loudest acclamations, made the performers follow it up by giving the healths of the king and his brother, and of the emperor Alexander and the allied sovereigns.

On the 14th, Monsieur received the senate and the legislative body.—The senate was presented by Talleyrand, who said; “Monseigneur, The senate presents to your R. H. the homage of its respectful devotion. It has proposed the return of your august house to the throne of France. Too well instructed by the present and the past, it desires, with the nation, to confirm for ever the royal authority upon a just division of powers and upon public liberty, the only guarantees of the happiness and interest of all. The senate, persuaded that the principles of the new constitution are in your heart, conveys to you, by the decree which I have the honour to present to you, the title of *Lieutenant-General of the Kingdom*, until the arrival of your august brother. Our respectful confidence cannot better honour the ancient loyalty which was transmitted to you by your ancestors.—For myself, Monseigneur, permit me to congratulate myself upon being the interpreter to your R. H. of the senate, which has done me the honour to choose me for its organ. The senate, which knows my attachment to its members, has wished to afford me one sweet and happy moment more. The sweetest indeed are those in which one approaches your royal highness to renew to you the testimony of one's respect and love.”

His royal highness immediately replied; “Gentlemen, I have taken cognizance of the Constitutional Charter which recalls to the throne of France the king my august brother. I have not received from him the power to accept the Constitution; but I know his sentiments and principles, and I do not fear being disavowed when I assure you, in his name, that he will admit the bases of it.” Here his R. H. recapitulated the heads of the new constitution, and then added—“I thank you, in the name of the king my brother, for the part which you have had in the restoration of our legitimate sovereign, and for having thereby secured the happiness of France, for which the king and all his family are ready to sacrifice their blood. There can in future be among us but one sentiment; the past is no longer to be recollected. We must henceforth form only a nation of brothers. During the period in which power shall be placed in my hands, a period which I hope will be very short, I shall exert all my endeavours to promote the public good.”



Monsieur, as Lieutenant-General of the Kingdom, appointed the following persons to be members of the Provisional Council of State:—Talleyrand prince of Benevento; Mancey duke of Corneghiano, marshal of France; Oudinot duke of Reggio, ditto; the duke of Dalberg; the count de Jancourt, senator; Gen. count Beurnonville, senator; l'abbé de Montesquieu; Gen. Desfolles. Baron Vitrioles, provisional secretary of state, and secretary to the council.

On the 15th, the emperor of Austria entered Paris, and was received, among others, by Bernadotte, the crown-prince of Sweden, who of course had preceded him, and whose previous visit to Monsieur had been formally returned. What strange feelings must there be among these princes, new and old!

On the succeeding day, the emperor of Austria had an interview with his daughter, the ex-empress of France, at Petit Trianon, the favourite residence of the other unfortunate Austrian princess, who preceded her on the French throne.—When his majesty visited the palace of the legislative-body, his attention was caught by a full-length portrait of Maria-Louisa, executed by one of the first-rate painters. "I should request to carry with me this excellent picture," said his majesty, "if it did not belong to so respectable a body as the legislative body." "Sire," answered the officers who conducted the monarch, "the princess who is here represented has merited in so many respects the gratitude and veneration of the French, that the legislative body could not part with her image." "I shall feel a pleasure," rejoined his majesty, "in reporting to my daughter this mark of attachment."

In respect to the terms upon which the ex-emperor Napoleon gives up his dignity, the following is copied from the Vienna Court Gazette:

"PARIS, April 13.—In virtue of a Convention between the Ministers of the Allied Courts and the Envoys of Napoleon, furnished with powers, to which the Provisional Government accedes, the *ci-devant* Emperor renounces formally all kind of pretension to the Crowns of France and Italy; and shall enjoy, in exchange, during his life, the Isle of Elba, where a pension shall be paid to him and the members of his family. The Duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla, shall, at the approaching peace, be ceded in full property to the Empress Maria-Louisa, who shall transmit them to her son, to whom the title of Prince of Parma and Placentia is granted from this time."

Here is one of those antithetical freaks of fortune, in which Voltaire would have delighted.—A gentleman is born in a place in Italy, and goes to be an emperor over France; the son is born a king in France, and he goes to reign over a principality in Italy. Now the late emperor and empress will thus become neighbours; and it might not be easy to show, that the renewal of their intercourse would be unlikely, or that any thing was intended by their separation in the first instance but to save the princess the first sight of her husband's mortification. It is difficult however to speculate upon either side of the question.—It is observable in this convention, that Maria-Louisa is styled "the Empress;" and that, although Bonaparte is not styled the Emperor, he is called the "late Emperor" and "Napoleon." The report therefore is a probable one, which says that he is to retain the title of Emperor by courtesy; and, if so, his brothers, we suppose, are to be called Kings, or at least Princes, for their pretensions to both these titles have been acknowledged by all the allied powers but England; and England, it seems, is not a party to this convention, though the term "allied powers" is used without reserve, the exception not being mentioned in the extract from the Vienna Court Gazette, published in the Paris papers; neither is the date of the treaty given. It is not a little singular, that this article, taken from the Vienna Court Gazette of the 22d, is dated from Paris the 15th, although the Paris papers had not published a word of this treaty, except in the shape in which it is here given.

Owing to some unfortunate delays in sending off couriers to the different parts of France, Spain, and Italy, not less than ten thousand lives have been lost in the various seats of war.—Thus a battle took place, near Toulouse, on the 10th of April, which cost the allies only, 4650 men killed and wounded; an affair before Bayonne, on the 14th, which cost them 1000 more; and in a series of operations, from the 13th to the 17th, before Genoa, (which at length capitulated,) a loss was sustained on our side, in killed and wounded, soldiers and sailors, to the number of 224.

On Wednesday the 20th of April, Louis XVIII. king of France, made his public entry into London.—Soon after four o'clock in the morning, the royal carriages and horses intended to form the procession, left London for Stanmore, there to meet the king. The prince-regent left Cariton-house in his travelling carriage, for Stanmore, at half-past twelve, attended by the duke of Montrose and viscount Melbourne. His R. H. was drawn by four beautiful bays, driven by postillions in white jackets, white hats, and white cockades in them; with three outriders in the royal liveries and white cockades. The grand duchess of Oldenburg sent invitations to the queen; princesses Elizabeth, Mary, Charlotte of Wales, and Sophia of Gloucester, to come to Pulteney Hotel to see the royal procession; which they all accepted, except her majesty. The prince-regent arrived at the Abercorn-arms inn, at Stanmore, about two o'clock, whence the procession was to proceed in state. The town of Stanmore exhibited a most novel sight: there was hardly a house but exhibited the French colour—some actually displayed sheets and pillow-cases. The principal part of the gentry of that part of the country went on horseback a mile out of the town to accompany Louis into Stanmore; and, when the king had got within a short distance of the town, the populace, who had become extremely numerous, took the horses from his carriage, and drew him into the town. On the arrival of the carriage at the Abercorn-arms, the king was so infirm that he was lifted out of the carriage by his servants; the prince-regent was at the door of the inn in readiness to receive his majesty. The king was dressed in the uniform of a marshal of France. The prince-regent was dressed in a field-marshal's uniform, with his Russian and English orders. The procession began to move in the following order, at twenty minutes past three o'clock:

One Hundred Gentlemen on horseback.

Horse Trumpeters, in their splendid gold-lace dress.

A numerous party of the Royal Horse Guards.

Six Royal Carriages, the Servants with White Cockades.

An Outrider to each Carriage.

A party of the Royal Horse Guards.

*First Carriage.*—The great Officers of the French Crown, the Dukes of Avrai and Grammont, Captains of his Majesty's Guards: Count Blacas, Grand Master of the Wardrobe; Chevalier de Riviere, his Majesty's First Equerry.

*2d Carriage.*—The KING of FRANCE, the PRINCE-REGENT, the DUCHESS of ANGOULEME, the PRINCE of CONDE'.

*3d Carriage.*—The Duke of Bourbon.

*4th Carriage.*—The Duchesse of Angouleme's Ladies of Honour.

*5th Carriage.*—Equerries of his Majesty.

*6th Carriage.*—Other Officers of the Royal Household.

An officer of the royal horse-guards rode at each window, and a numerous party of horse closed the procession.—They proceeded at a slow trot till they came to Kilburn, when they commenced a walking pace, and a groom to each horse was added.—On the entrance of the procession into Hyde Park, and as it passed through it, the motion of the crowd in the wide part of the park became like a torrent. The procession arrived at Hyde-park-corner at half-past five o'clock, and proceeded along Piccadilly at a slow pace, amidst the shouts of the populace. A little before six, the cavalcade arrived at Grillon's Hotel, Albemarle-street. As the carriage with the cream-coloured horses



horses approached, in which were his majesty Louis XVIII. and his royal highness the prince-regent, the people unanimously huzzaed, the ladies from the windows waved their handkerchiefs. His majesty had hold of the prince's arm, who conducted him to the principal parlour; on his arrival there he found himself much overcome with fatigue; an arm-chair was brought, in which his majesty seated himself, the duke of York on his left, the prince-regent and the duchess d'Angoulême on his right, the prince de Condé and the duke de Bourbon facing him, with all his suite surrounding him. The marquis of Hertford and the earl of Cholmondeley were behind the chair; the Austrian, Spanish, Russian, and Portuguese, ambassadors, with all the ministers, were present. About 150 of the French noblesse were also assembled at the hotel, to greet the arrival of their sovereign, and an interesting scene took place. His majesty addressed the prince-regent, expressing his gratitude for the favours conferred upon him; stating, that he had been indebted to his R. H. for an asylum; and had now to express his obligations to his R. H. for his support of the house of Bourbon. It was impossible for him to find language to convey in adequate terms the sense of gratitude he felt, or the delight which he now experienced.—The prince-regent, in reply, assured his majesty, that *no obligation was personally due to himself for the events which had occurred*, and in which he felt the highest gratification.—His majesty again expressed his gratitude; and, taking off the cordon and star of the order of the Holy Ghost, which he wore, he personally placed the star upon the breast of the prince-regent; and, with the assistance of the prince de Condé and the duke de Bourbon, invested his R. H. with the cordon.—On his R. H. taking his leave, he saluted his majesty several times, as did his majesty him.

On the following day, a Chapter of the Order of the Garter was held at Carlton-house. Every thing being prepared, the prince-regent took his seat in a superb state-chair, at the head of a table. The knights then bowed to his R. H. and took their seats; and, dispensing with the usual form of election, they unanimously declared his Most Christian Majesty, Louis XVIII. King of France, duly elected a member. The two senior knights, the dukes of York and Kent, (instead of the two junior knights, as usual,) retired to introduce the king from the prince's closet. Their royal highnesses presented the king to the prince, when his majesty knelt on a crimson cushion, and the prince waved the sword of state, and conferred the honour of knighthood on his majesty, and afterwards placed the garter of the order on the king's left knee, &c. &c.—The king and the English royal family then retired to the prince-regent's closet; where the king was pleased to take off the insignia of the order of the Holy Ghost from his person, and invest the duke of York with it. The royal assembly afterwards dined with the prince-regent.

Louis remained at Grillon's Hotel during the whole of Friday the 22d, for the purpose of receiving all the French emigrants who were desirous of being introduced to him previous to his departure for France.

On Saturday morning, at eight o'clock, his majesty set off for Dover. A great crowd of eager spectators had assembled to see him depart. The dukes of Kent and Suffex had paid their respects to him early; and the duchess of Angoulême soon after arrived, and appeared nearly overcome with her feelings.—His majesty, on entering his carriage, was greeted with acclamations by the multitude. He was accompanied by three noblemen, escorted by a party of light horse, and followed by the prince of Condé and the duke de Bourbon. The duke of Suffex also accompanied him some way out of town. As soon as the royal carriage entered Kent, it was met by lord Camden, the lord lieutenant of the county, and a party of volunteer-cavalry, who escorted his majesty to Dover, which he reached about six o'clock. The prince-regent (who had set off from London two hours before his majesty) was there to receive him; and accompanied him on-board the

Jason frigate to dinner. The road from London to Dover was one continued scene of gaiety. Every hamlet, village, and town, poured forth its population to witness the royal progress. Gravesend, Dartmouth, Chatham, and Canterbury, with their white cockades, bands of music, yeomanry, volunteers, &c. &c. had quite a holiday aspect; and the French monarch was every-where met with smiles and congratulations. In the evening, the king and the prince-regent left the Jason, and returned to Dover to sleep. The town was brilliantly illuminated. Next day, (Sunday,) his majesty went on-board the Royal Sovereign yacht, accompanied by the regent, &c. &c. A little before one, his R. H. took his leave of the French monarch, and returned to the shore, when a royal salute was fired. The yacht was close to the quay. The king of France did not appear upon deck; but the duke de Bourbon, and the other French nobility present, took off their hats on the regent leaving the ship. The tide then serving, the Royal Sovereign got under weigh, and passed the pier-head under a royal salute from all the batteries. Here the scene was most interesting; the prince-regent had taken his station on the farthest point of the pier, and cheered the vessel as she passed, in which he was accompanied by an immense concourse of spectators of all classes. It would be difficult to describe the feelings to which such a scene gave birth. Its novelty, its importance, the various circumstances attending the principal personages engaged in it, all contributed to render it interesting and impressive in the highest degree; tears and acclamations were mixed, and all appeared affected. On the yacht reaching the roads, she was received by a royal salute from the ships of war there stationed; among which was the Jason, the flag-ship of the duke of Clarence. She then ran over for Calais with a fine breeze, and was only between three and four hours on her passage. Such a day as this was never witnessed at Dover by any person now living; and it is supposed only to have been equalled on the day Charles II. landed from Holland.

Louis XVIII. when he reached Calais, was conveyed by means of a platform into an open calèche, or carriage, with four seats, into which he was followed by the duchess of Angoulême, the prince of Condé, and the duke de Bourbon. The horses were soon taken off, and the carriage was dragged by the populace to the door of the principal church. The streets through which it passed were crowded with white flags, and the windows filled with well-dressed women waving white handkerchiefs; the air resounded with cries of *Vive Louis XVIII! Vivent les Bourbons!* At the door of the church his majesty was received by the principal clergy, who conducted him under a canopy to a seat of state in the middle of the choir, where the king and the duchess of Angoulême fell on their knees, and appeared to pray with the most fervent devotion, while the *Te Deum*, and *Domine salvum fac Regem*, were sung. They then returned to the calèche, and were drawn as before to the Hotel de Tillac, formerly Dessein's, where the king and his party dined in public, and after dinner received the compliments of those who wished to be presented to him. We are told, that, when the king arrived at the inn at Calais, he ordered money to be given to the populace who drew his carriage; but they unanimously refused it, and said they only wished to testify their affection for him.

The next day, the tide not serving at an early hour for landing the king's carriages, his majesty determined to spend that day at Calais also, and again dined in public, giving orders that all the English who wished it should be admitted. He set off from Calais on Tuesday at noon, escorted by a body of French lancers on horseback, and another corps of French cavalry; and slept that night at Boulogne-sur-Mer. On Wednesday his majesty left that place for Abbeville, where he passed the night. On Thursday he went from Abbeville to Amiens, there he slept; and on Friday the 29th, about six in the evening, he reached Compiègne, where the kings of France have a palace, and where he rested two days.



The marshals of France entered the chateau de Compiègne in the suite of the king, to present the homage of their most profound respect to his majesty. The king having been pleased to receive them, they were introduced. Berthier prince of Neufchatel said to his majesty;—"Sire, After twenty-five years of uncertainty and tumult, the French people have again entrusted the care of their happiness to that dynasty which eight ages of glory have consecrated in the history of the world, as the most ancient that ever existed. As warriors and citizens, the marshals of France have been led by all the impulses of their soul to second this movement of the national wish. Absolute confidence in the future, admiration for greatness under misfortune, all, even to former recollections, concur to excite in our warriors, always the support of the splendours of the French armies, those transports which your majesty has observed on your passage. Already, sire, the accounts of their gratitude have preceded you. How is it possible to paint the emotion with which they were penetrated on hearing with what touching interest your majesty, forgetting your own misfortunes, seemed only to be occupied with those of the French prisoners? 'It is of little importance,' you said to the magnanimous Alexander, 'under what banners these 150,000 prisoners have served; they are unfortunate; I see amongst them only my children.' At these memorable words, which each soldier repeated to his comrade, what Frenchman could fail to perceive the blood of the great Henry, who nourished Paris whilst he besieged it? Like him his illustrious descendant comes to unite all Frenchmen in one family. Your armies, sire, of which the marshals are to-day the organ, consider themselves happy in being called by their devotion and fidelity to second such generous efforts."

The king replied with a most affecting kindness, that he saw with pleasure the marshals of France, and that he relied on the sentiments of fidelity and attachment which they expressed in the name of the French armies. His majesty then rose from his seat, though suffering under the gout; and, at the moment when his grand officers were approaching to assist him, his majesty, seizing the arms of the two marshals, who were the nearest him, said with an overflowing heart; "It is on you, marshals, I wish always to support myself; approach and surround me. You have always been good Frenchmen. I hope France will no longer have need of your swords. If ever, which God forbid, we are forced to draw them, afflicted as I am with the gout, I will march with you."—The marshals replied; "Sire, Be pleased to consider us as the pillars of your majesty's throne. It is our wish to be its firmest support."

The king withdrew. The marshals were afterwards presented to the duchess d'Angouleme, and to the prince of Condé and the duke of Bourbon. The king moreover honoured the marshals with an invitation to dinner; and at the commencement of the repast his majesty said, "Messieurs les Marechaux, I send you some wine; I wish to drink with you to the French armies." A sentiment of respect restrained the marshals, who, in their enthusiasm, wished to reply by drinking the health of the king; but, by a spontaneous feeling, their hearts made them silent.

Monsieur and the duke de Berri arrived from Paris early in the morning of the 30th, to pay their respects to the king. They returned in the evening to prepare for his majesty's reception.

As the king's grand entry into Paris was fixed for Tuesday the 3d of May, it was thought fit that his majesty should remove, on the preceding day, to St. Ouen, which is only four miles north of that gay metropolis. And now, having heard so much of the army, and so little of the constitution, we shall take the opportunity of recording Louis's Declaration upon the latter subject.—"Louis, by the Grace of God, King of France and Navarre, to all to whom these presents shall come, greeting. Recalled by the love of our people to the throne of our fathers, enlightened by the misfortunes of the nation which we are destined to govern, our first thought is to invoke that mutual confi-

dence so necessary to our repose and their happiness. After having read with attention the plan of the Constitution proposed by the senate, in the sitting of the 10th of April last, we have recognized that the bases were good, but that a great number of articles, bearing the marks of the precipitation with which they have been drawn up, cannot, in their present form, become fundamental laws of the state. Resolved to adopt a liberal constitution, we wish that it should be wisely combined; and, *not being able to accept one which it is indispensably necessary to correct*, we convoke for the 31st of May of the present year the senate and legislative body, engaging to lay before them the result of our labours with a commission chosen from those two bodies, and to give that constitution the following guarantees:—The representative government shall be maintained such as it exists at present, divided into two bodies; viz. the senate, and a house composed of deputies of departments.—The taxes shall be freely imposed.—Public and private liberty insured.—The liberty of the press respected, with the precautions necessary to the public tranquillity.—The freedom of worship guaranteed.—Property shall be sacred and inviolable. The sale of national domains shall remain irrevocable.—The ministers, responsible, may be prosecuted by one of the legislative houses, and tried by the other.—The judges are irremovable, and the judicial power independent.—The public debt shall be guaranteed.—Pensions, ranks, military honours, preserved, as well as the ancient and new nobility. The legion of honour, the decoration of which we will determine, shall be maintained.—Every Frenchman shall be admitted to civil and military employments.—Lastly, no individual shall be disturbed for his opinions and votes. Done at St. Ouen, May 2, 1814. LOUIS."

Thus we see the trial by jury is not to form any part of the ensuing French law; and, if other parts of that excellent and sound Constitution of the 6th of April should be abrogated by the forthcoming one of the 31st of May, the reader will perhaps have a melancholy recollection of the words of Reyna in the Cortes, p. 377. as applying to all European governments but our own.

At length the grand day arrived. On Tuesday the 3d of May, Louis XVIII. made his entry into Paris, attended by the members of the household and of government, the marshals of France, the court-attendants, by Monsieur on horseback, and by a long file of carriages. In the carriage with the king was the duchess of Angouleme, the prince of Condé, and the duke of Bourbon. This grand procession was preceded by cavalry of the national guards and of the line, and closed with detachments of the national guards and gendarmerie. The prefects of the Seine and of the police were stationed at the barrier. The prefect of the Seine addressed his majesty, and presented to him the keys of the city. His majesty replied, "I am at last in my good city of Paris: I experience a lively emotion from the proofs of affection which are at this moment given me. Nothing could be more agreeable to my heart than to see erected the statue of him, the recollection of whom, among all my noble ancestors, is the most dear to me. I touch the keys, and restore them to you; they could not be in better hands, nor entrusted to magistrates more worthy of guarding them."

The procession proceeded to the cathedral. The *Domine salvum fac Regem et Te Deum* were performed. The procession then continued to the palace of the Thuilleries. Acclamations of *Vive le Roi! Vivent les Bourbons!* were unceasingly heard from an immense concourse of spectators, who preceded, attended, and followed, the procession. The enthusiasm was wrought up to an intense pitch when it reached the spot on which is raised the statue of Henry IV. The conservatory assembled around it, played the air sacred to the memory of that monarch, the people and the soldiers repeating it in chorus. The weather was delightful, and the sky unclouded during the whole day. In the vast interior of Paris, and adjacent towns, all business was suspended. From the dawn of day, garlands of lilies, tapestry with ingenious inscriptions, floated from the windows.



dows. The cannon fired, and the bells rung. The triumphal arch of the Porte St. Denis was ornamented with the arms of France, and a crown of flowers surmounted by the spotless standard decked with lilies. In passing under the arch, the king seemed agitated, while the countenance of the daughter of Louis XVI. wore an expression of soft melancholy. In the cathedral, the senate, legislative body, university, and judicial courts, mixed with the military and clergy. When the king reached the Pont Neuf, Mad. Blanchard ascended in a balloon to the sound of cannon: several white pigeons were let fly from it, and, like the dove from the ark, seemed to take their flight to the provinces, to announce that the storms of France were over.—The duchess of Angouleme was received by 144 ladies, twelve from each department. The king and royal family appeared at the windows, and embraced Monsieur amidst the acclamations of the people. At night there was a general illumination. Fire-works were let off on Port Louis XVI. The musicians of the conservatory played several airs under the windows of the Thuilleries. At half-past ten, the king appeared again at the windows, placed his hand upon his heart, and saluted the assembled thousands with affection. Swiss guards mounted guard at the Thuilleries, as in old times.

The allied sovereigns, with a most noble delicacy, were desirous of enjoying the beauty of the spectacle; without taking from Louis XVIII. a particle of the homage which on that day so wholly related to the king of France and the house of Bourbon. The emperors of Austria and Russia placed themselves at windows to see the procession pass. They had carefully concealed every decoration that might be the means of their being recognized; but they could not escape the regards of a grateful people. They were observed to applaud the public felicity, and their voices mingled with the acclamations of the Parisians.

During this memorable day the most perfect order prevailed in Paris, and no accident disturbed the public tranquillity.

On the day following, there was a grand review of the Russian and Prussian guard, and of all the allied troops at Paris. At four in the afternoon, the emperors of Russia and Austria and the king of Prussia arrived, attended by a numerous and brilliant staff, by the Quay of the Thuilleries, and entered the court of the chateau by the first wicket of the Louvre. The sovereigns proceeded to the palace of his majesty Louis XVIII. At half-past four, a carpet of red velvet was placed on the balcony at one of the windows of the Pavilion of Flora, amidst shouts of "Vive le Roi!" Louis appeared in the uniform of a marshal of France, in the midst of the allied sovereigns. Near his majesty were the duchess d'Angouleme, Monsieur, and the duc de Berri. Immediately afterwards, the troops defiled under the windows of the Pavilion of Flora; they were commanded by his imperial highness the grand duke Constantine. The infantry marched in echelon three deep, twenty-five men in front. Their march lasted about three hours; they proceeded towards the Place Louis Quinze, in order to return to their respective cantonments. They made a very fine appearance.

The duke of Wellington was also at Paris. He attended publicly at the review, where he was placed between lord Castlereagh and the hon. Wellesley Pole; and in the evening was present at a grand ball given by sir Charles Stewart. Nothing could exceed the enthusiasm with which his grace was received. The emperors of Russia and Austria, the kings of Prussia and France, were present, and about seven hundred persons of the first distinction. Marshals Blucher and Platoff laid hold of his arms, and walked with him for some time. They and every other general besides exclaimed, "Here is the first captain of the age; here is the man that set the whole machine in motion." All the French marshals pressed about him with marks of the highest admiration and respect. What a triumph for the duke!—What a tribute to Great Britain!

On the day that Louis emerged from his retreat, and

entered London on his way to France, namely, on the memorable 20th of April, did Napoleon, the late emperor of France, set out from Fontainebleau on his journey to the island of Elba.

What a contrast strikes one in looking at the fate of these two personages. The one, after an exile of twenty years, issuing from absolute obscurity to the possession of a throne—the other, after a career of conquest for nearly the same space of time, dropping from the loftiest throne in the world to exile and obscurity in his turn! If Louis be the man he is described, here is patience rewarded and impatience punished in as finished a manner as the lovers of story-conclusions can desire. And the reader may carry the contrast farther, if he pleases, especially if his philosophy stands in need of a little present example. Louis's exile appeared at one time to be quite hopeless of change; yet here we see, that, after a lapse of many years, the change has come about. Napoleon's dynasty, on the other hand, seemed at one time—at the period of his Austrian marriage for instance, or the birth of his son and heir—to be quite secure from change—himself, at the very least, to be secure from it;—yet here his dynasty is overthrown, and himself with it. Again, if Louis has had more than ordinary adversity, it has clearly given him a greater relish for the enjoyment of prosperity; nay, perhaps it has even helped him to regain his prosperity; for, had he previously acquired the turbulent reputation of his predecessor, the French would most likely have had nothing farther to do with him. On the other hand, Napoleon's singular prosperity must as clearly have given him a double distaste for adversity; and not only so, but it has helped to bring him into adversity by inciting him to push his fortunes too far. In short, Louis comes from his books out into the world, and may there practise to advantage the lessons they have taught him;—Napoleon goes from the world to his books, and will there have to unlearn every thing in which the world has misled him.

The following are the circumstances, if at this critical moment we may trust the Paris papers on such a subject, which attended his departure. He spoke thus to the officers and soldiers: "I bid you farewell. For these twenty years that we have been together, I have been satisfied with you. I have always found you on the road to glory. All the powers of Europe have taken up arms against me: part of my generals have betrayed their duty, and France herself has betrayed her's. With you and the brave men who remained faithful to me, I have preferred France from civil war. Be faithful to the new king whom France has chosen, and forsake not your dear country, which has been too long unfortunate. Lament not my fate: I shall be happy when I know you are so. I could have been satisfied to die: nothing would have been more easy for me; but I wish still to pursue the road to glory. I will write the history of our achievements. I cannot embrace you all: but I will embrace your general. Come, general." (*He embraces him.*)—"Bring me the eagle; let me embrace that too. Ah! dear eagle, may the kisses which I give thee resound in the ears of posterity.—Farewell, my lads! Farewell, my heroes! Come around me once more!" The staff then formed a circle round him.—Bonaparte afterwards got into his carriage; and at this moment, unable to repress his emotion, he shed some tears.

Bonaparte quitted Fontainebleau in a carriage and six, with about twenty-five horsemen behind him. The Russian, Austrian, French, English, and Prussian, officers, were in six chariots; and were followed by about twenty carriages, with the baggage and domestics of Bonaparte. He passed through Montargis on the 22d: baggage and led horses, with piquets of cavalry, had passed through in the morning. The foot-guards in the barracks were under arms: they respected the fall of Bonaparte by keeping silence, and giving no sign either of approbation or disapprobation. Bonaparte passed through the ranks of these brave troops, and entered the town, affecting a calm air, and saluting to the right and left the persons who

were.



were at the windows, and were curious to see him. Many people charge him with a boastful assumption of insensibility. The truth is, that Gen. Bertrand, who was in the carriage, appeared more affected than he.—Bonaparte slept at the castle of Briare. He passed through Lyons in the night of the 24th; through Avignon and Aix on the 25th; and arrived at Frejus on the 27th; where he embarked, on the 28th, on-board of the English frigate *Undaunted*, Capt. Usher. The badness of the roads, it is said, prevented his going on to St. Tropez; but it is a singular coincidence that he should embark, on his exile to Elba, at the same place where he landed on his return from Egypt. When passing through Lyons, we are told that he was anxious to procure the best collection of pamphlets, posting-bills, acts of adhesion, &c. relative to the manifestation of public joy for his dethronement.

The inhabitants of Lyons, and of several other places, accompanied him with cries of *Vive le roi!* and more than once the populace forced him to repeat those words himself. At Avignon, a plan had been laid to assassinate him. As almost every particular relating to this extraordinary man will be perused with curiosity, we shall copy the account from a Paris newspaper.—“On Monday the 25th, at four in the morning, arrived here the English commissioner who preceded Bonaparte. The officer on guard asked him if the escort accompanying him was strong, and in a state to prevent every sort of unpleasant movement. The commissioner appeared deeply affected at the apprehensions which were manifested; and called upon the guard to protect, to the utmost of its power, the passage of Napoleon, whose life and safety were under the protection of the august allies. At last, at six o'clock, the carriage of Bonaparte arrived; but, in consequence of the notice which had been given, the escort stopped at the opposite extremity of the city to that by which it would naturally pass. The post-horses were taken there; and the same officer who had spoken to the English commissioner, repaired to the spot with his troop; he found the carriage surrounded, and the multitude about to give themselves up to excesses: men and women demanded their children, their relations, who had fallen victims to the ambition of Bonaparte, and complained of all the vexations they had endured. Already a man had taken hold of the handle of the carriage-door; a valet of Napoleon, seated on the coach-box, was about to draw his sword to defend his master. The officer said to him, “Do not stir;” and, in speaking thus, he pushed away the man who had taken hold of the door. Bonaparte, hastily letting down the windows of the carriage, thrice called out to his domestic to remain quiet, and made a sign of acknowledgment to the officer. In the midst of these movements, the people had recognized Bonaparte, and seemed to be only the more roused. At length the officer succeeded, with some difficulty, by the help of the soldiers, in clearing the streets, and opening a passage; and he ordered the postillions to set off at full gallop. Bonaparte had only time to call out, “I am much obliged to you.” General Bertrand was in the left corner of the carriage: he did not move or speak a single word during the whole transaction. The foreign generals who accompanied Bonaparte were going to alight to join the soldiers, and to defend, if necessary, the charge entrusted to them; but they were persuaded not to leave their carriages; and the respect felt for their characters was one of the causes which protected Bonaparte. It was also remarked, that the officer who defended Bonaparte had been always a zealous advocate for the Bourbons; but the cause of these princes is the cause of justice and of honour; nothing ought to fully it.”

Such are the accounts in the Paris papers; yet we own that we receive them with some degree of hesitation, because they differ extremely from the report of persons of credit who are continually arriving in this country from Paris. Sir Thomas Lavie, who is just returned from France, after a captivity of seven years, says, that he was

a spectator of the passage of Napoleon through one of the towns on his way to the coast; and that, to his astonishment, many of the inhabitants saluted him in the most gracious manner, and that the air rung with the old cry of *Vive l'Empereur!* “I have seldom been more surprised (he adds) than at the apparent state of the public mind in the metropolis of France. Mixed with considerable coldness and indifference, is seen a lurking admiration of the military glory of Bonaparte. This I do not believe to be the general feeling; but it is certainly that of a considerable number of persons. What is, perhaps, worthy of notice, is, that the common people still call Bonaparte *l'empereur* in speaking of him. Several satirical publications against the late ruler of France have been suppressed by the police.”

The Russian, Prussian, Austrian, and English, commissioners, and Capt. Usher, of the *Undaunted* frigate, who was appointed to convey Bonaparte to Elba, dined with him on the 27th. On the introduction of Capt. Usher, he said, that, though formerly our enemy, he was now as sincerely our friend; and that we were a great nation. On Capt. Usher observing, that he feared he could but ill accommodate him, Bonaparte said, a British man-of-war was a palace. At dinner the subject was chiefly naval affairs, of which he appeared a perfect master. On some surprise being expressed, how he could make himself so perfect a master of the minutiae of the navy, when he had directed so many other affairs of high importance, he bowed, and felt the compliment; but said, that in three years his plans would have been complete—that he was about to build 20 sail of the line on the Elbe, and would have had 200 sail of the line well manned, for that his naval conscription fully answered his expectations. On its being observed by Capt. Usher, that his naval conscripts did not create much alarm, he seemed surprised; adding, that our ministers well knew the Toulon fleet was manned with them. He said, that his principal object in annexing Holland to France, was for the purpose of making good sailors by exercising them on the Zuyderzee; and, turning round toward the Russian commissioner, said, that he had constructed a three-decker, then called the *Austerlitz*. On being asked what he thought of our expedition to Holland? he said, rather turning to the Austrian commissioner, “I wrote from Vienna before the expedition failed, desiring them to be prepared for it.” The conversation in general was highly interesting. Bonaparte looked remarkably well, and talked with all his accustomed authority. A French frigate was sent to wait upon him; but he preferred going in the English frigate. Lieutenant Hastings was sent with a French and Austrian commissioner to take possession of the Island of Elba in his name. Princess Borghese intended to follow him to Elba. On taking leave of his guards, he made a most affecting speech to them; which had a great effect on both officers and men, who shed tears.—He arrived at Elba on the 4th of May, (the day after Louis entered Paris;) and took possession of the island amidst the acclamations of the inhabitants. He landed at Porto Ferrajo, when he hoisted on the walls and tower of the city, a white flag bordered with red, and bearing three bees on a blue ground.

Many persons, both in England and France, are extremely offended that Napoleon (or *Nicholas*, for some would now persuade him out of his Christian name) should still continue to live. Some think that he should have put himself at the head of his troops, no matter how few, have rushed into battle against any odds, and so sacrificed their lives and his own with all convenient speed. Thus Gen. Augereau, in his address to his army, says: “Soldiers! You are relieved from your oaths, by the nation, in whom the sovereignty resides. You are also, if it were necessary, by the abdication even of a man who, after having immolated thousands of victims to his cruel ambition, *did not dare to die as a soldier.*” Others again think he should have fallen upon his own sword, or have directed somebody



somebody to kill him. If we may believe the Paris papers, this was the wife opinion of his favourite mamaluke Roustan. This personage, it seems, being of a very lofty mind, as is the custom with valets, and of a very delicate sense of honour, as is the characteristic of mamalukes, entered his master's chamber at Fontainebleau, after carefully sharpening a sword, and addressed him in the following terms:

*Mam.* Sir, after what has happened, of course you will not choose to live. I have brought you my sword. Will you use it yourself, or shall I pass it through your body? I am ready to obey your commands.

*Napol.* It does not appear to me that either of these alternatives is necessary.

*Mam.* (with astonishment.) Neither! What! can you endure life after such a reverse? Then pray dispatch me with the same weapon, or dismiss me from your service; for I will not live under such disgrace.—So saying, the mamaluke, without waiting either to be dispatched or dismissed, haughtily leaves the room.

We have been induced to say a word or two more upon this point by the publication of an Ode to Napoleon, attributed to lord Byron, and bearing indeed evident marks of his strong way of putting things. In this poem, among other stanzas alluding to the subject, are the following:

'Tis done—but yesterday a king,  
And arm'd with kings to strive—  
And now thou art a nameless thing;  
So subject—yet alive!  
Is this the man of thousand thrones,  
Who strew'd our earth with hostile bones?  
And can he thus survive?  
Since he, miscall'd the Morning Star,  
Nor man, nor fiend, hath fall'n so far.  
And earth has spilt her blood for him,  
Who thus can hoard his own!  
And monarchs bow'd the trembling limb,  
And thank'd him for a throne!  
Fair Freedom! We may hold thee dear,  
When thus thy mightiest foes their fear  
In humblest guise have shown!  
Oh! ne'er may tyrant leave behind  
A brighter name to lure mankind!  
Thine evil deeds are writ in gore  
Nor written thus in vain—  
Thy triumphs tell of fame no more,  
Or deepen every stain—  
If thou hadst died as honour dies,  
Some new Napoleon might arise,  
To shame the world again—  
But who would soar the solar height,  
To set in such a starless night?

The conclusion of this last stanza is poetically put, and so are several of the conclusions of others. But what is to be understood by dying "as honour dies?" Is it in battle, or on the scaffold, or by his own hand? For many an honourable man has died in battle, many a one on the scaffold, and many a one (mistakenly, as modern wisdom has thought) by his own hand. But honour has also made its exit very quietly on occasion; and by which of these deaths was Napoleon to perform what he promised, and prove that "adversity was not too much for him?" There is the point. As to those who pretend to think that Napoleon would have done better in any kind of death, so that he had died somehow, we have no hesitation in attributing it either to sheer ignorance of human nature and its trials, or to their usual mode of prejudging a question where it suits them. Had Napoleon died in battle, we have no doubt that these very men would have accused him of taking an opportunity to slip out of his difficulties; and in like manner, had he died on the scaffold, they would have exulted over him as a criminal, who could not escape;—had he died by his own hand, they would

have cried out, "See there the man who was not to be overcome by adversity!"

We do not argue that his merely continuing to live under the weight of those feelings with which all agree to load him, will prove him a great man. It remains to be discovered how he lives, and with what fort of temper and views. But his not putting himself to death in the first instance, makes him something better in our minds than a mere Catiline or Maximinus; and if he leads a reasonable life in his exile, and does what little he can to make those about him comfortable, in recompense of all the misery his soldiership has inflicted, we shall say, not that he was a great man when he was emperor, but that he gave some symptoms at last that he *might have been*.

Elba lies just off the coast of Tuscany, between Piombino and the northernmost point of Corsica; and has been celebrated from time immemorial for its mines of iron, which are still worked. The loadstone, with which it abounds is said to have an effect in varying the compass at sea to the distance of four leagues; and, though some travellers have denied or doubted this circumstance, others have stated that the needle has certainly been of no use at the distance of one league. The Greeks, on account of its forges, called the island Aithalia, or the footy; and it is praised for its metals by Virgil and Rutilius under the name of *Iwa*. It is supposed to be about eighty miles in circumference, has two spacious harbours, and contains a population of between twelve and thirteen thousand souls, who are characterized, in a report made to the consular government, as "mild and industrious." The climate is superior to that of the continent; and, though the soil is shallow and mountainous, and there is but one little river in the whole island, which does not run more than a mile from its source, yet an abundance of springs at once help its fertility and increase its beauty; and it has plenty of wood and flowering shrubs, and produces exquisite fruit-trees—vines, citrons, and oranges. There are also two lucrative fisheries on the coast. As a proof of the industrious character of the inhabitants, and of their readiness to avail themselves of any fresh advantages that may accrue to the island, it may be mentioned that Mr. Swinburne, who visited it in the course of a tour about forty years back, and who has given the best account of it we have seen, describes the little river above-mentioned as turning no less than seventeen mills, and as being kept in a very neat condition, with orange and other fruit-trees along the banks. Out of the productions of this island, Bonaparte may build himself a house of marble, may roof it with slate, and run an iron railing about his park; he may have garden-grounds of fruit and flowers, the orange, myrtle, and arbutus, and supply his table with fish, vegetables, wine, and a desert. Here too, on a tower upon a rock, he may have the prospect—on one side, of his birth-place, the island of Corsica—on the other, he may view the estates of his brother-in-law, the prince of Piombino; to the south-east he may carry his eye over a range of continent, till he may fancy that Rome itself is still obedient to his nod—and to the north-west he may waft his fond regrets towards Parma and Placentia, the domains of his wife and son, in the neighbourhood of the plains of Marengo!

Never perhaps did there exist an individual, who exercised so mighty and terrible an influence on the fate of civilized mankind, as the very extraordinary person of whom we are now to take our leave.—If there are subjects which it is difficult to render interesting, because they are unknown and little attended to, the difficulty here, from a cause directly opposite, is not less serious. This subject has been handled so constantly in every company and in every newspaper, so debased by the ignoble mouths through which it has passed, as to render it scarcely possible to say any thing which every one is not long ago tired of hearing. Yet, after all, the language hitherto held has been mingled with such a torrent of national and party zeal, that the wise man may perhaps find reason to adopt a strain



somewhat different from that in which the generality of persons are accustomed to indulge.

Bred to arms, and having founded all his greatness upon military fame, it is as a commander that this personage first merits to be considered. In this character it seems universally allowed, that he must rank at least as the equal of the greatest names in history. We have been informed, and partly believe, that in the mere tactical part of the service, he did not very peculiarly excel, and was even surpassed by some others of the French generals. But in all that regards the policy of war; in choosing the most vital points of attack; in directing his concentrated force against the separated bodies of the enemy; in following up every success with overwhelming rapidity; in these operations, he does appear to have almost created a new era in the military art. There was in his movements a boldness and depth of genius, which confounded all calculation, and eluded the penetration even of the most sagacious enemy. His first campaign in Italy is still perhaps his master-piece, and the one of which the success was achieved with the most inadequate means. It forms a complete school of military policy; and, were it narrated with intelligence, which it has never yet been, would afford instruction, beyond perhaps any other, in the higher parts of the art of war. It is remarkable, that though, in his military character, there was extreme boldness, and enterprise bordering on desperation, yet there was little heroism. It was the daring of genius, rather than of valour. Success, more than glory, was the aim. We speak not this in absolute condemnation: a prudent attention to personal safety, in him who directs the movements of a great army, may fairly be considered as commendable; and the achievements of chivalrous valour are often very little conducive to the greatness of states. We only observe that this circumstance tends to cool the admiration and personal interest, which enterprises of such stupendous magnitude are naturally calculated to excite.

In regard to the moral qualities of this favourite of fortune, we do not mean to join in that indiscriminate invective which this nation delights to indulge; yet it seems difficult to discover any theme whatever of praise. There seems no virtue, even of private life, which he habitually practised; and it were not surely rash to affirm, that there exists scarcely a crime which, to gratify his ruling passion, he would hesitate to commit. Having granted thus far, we do not know whether he is loaded with much wanton guilt, or delinquencies committed out of pure malignity. The Syrian atrocities, if not utterly discredited, seem at least greatly involved in doubt. But his domestic administration affords no room for panegyric. He erected his own despotic power upon the entire subversion of the rights of his people: he did not hesitate, in the pursuit of chimerical projects, to impose upon them hardships and privations of a description almost unprecedented. Yet his guilt has not been of the same dye with that of the Marats and Robespierres, the horror of mankind, who deformed the early ages of the French revolution. *His government has not been a government of blood.* Finding the nation indeed bent to the yoke, he was exempted from the motive, or necessity, which urged those sanguinary monsters to such deeds. There may be room for the suspicion, that, had similar circumstances prompted to the same dreadful precautions, he would not have refrained. Yet it were going too far, upon such a presumption, to account him guilty of crimes which he never committed. Upon the whole, he appears to exhibit very nearly the general character of a conqueror and usurper, to whom nothing, almost, that opposes his ambitious projects, has ever been sacred. There was not perhaps, from the general laws of human nature, reason to hope that any one of a different character would have risen, through such convulsions, to the station of first consul, consul for life, and afterwards emperor of France, king of Italy, &c. In these imposing stations it must nevertheless be allowed that he played a brilliant part; gained more great victories than are re-

corded in the previous annals of mankind; over-ran more countries than Alexander, Cæsar, or Charlemagne; made and unmade kings and princes like the manager of a theatre; and acquired a name, which among heroes will for ever hold a primary station in the pantheon of history. Yet he trampled on the liberties of his country, and destroyed liberty wherever he found it.

Such a man might have been acceptable to the radical enemies of freedom; but he could have no fraternity with the systematic and unchangeable friends of public liberty. The grandeur of his achievements gave colour for a time to his usurpation of power; but his cold manners, and his camp-like domination, lessened his popularity among his subjects; while successive wars, excited partly by relentless and jealous foes, and partly by his own unbending character and ambitious policy, served to oppress France with conscriptions and imposts, and to render his government at first irksome, and finally intolerable. France was however indebted to him for the promulgation of an admirable Code of Laws, which Louis is pleased to say is "*polluted by the name of Napoleon;*" (see p. 323, 4.) for a system of Religious Liberty; and for the introduction of that bulwark of justice, Trial by Jury. She was also gratified by his patronage of the arts and sciences, by his galleries of painting, sculpture, and engraving, by his magnificent buildings, his roads, his institutions, and his public works; though she was at the same time oppressed by a refined and inquisitorial system of espionage, and insulted by restrictions on the press, which, by leaving the people in ignorance of the grounds of his policy, made them indifferent to the public interest, and disavowed of necessity the governed from their governor.

We fear to extend our strictures on his administration, because it is a master-vice of mankind to insult a fallen foe; and an inveterate habit to show what might have been performed better, after errors have been measured by events. We cannot determine what might have been his conduct or his fate, if the war with England had not afforded pretexts for augmenting his armies, and taking strong measures against his domestic enemies, as connected with his foreign ones; if he had not, during the whole period of his government, had to resist the intrigues of the partisans of the exiled family, and to support with the usual jealousy an usurped power; and if his plans of domestic improvement had not been thwarted by the expense of foreign wars. We shall however always regret that he did not take for his model a man whose own eclipses that of any imperial despot of ancient or modern times; we mean the illustrious Washington. Had he used his power to protect and regulate, instead of destroying, liberty, he would have been greater than Washington, because his sphere of action was more important. Had he permitted the freedom of speech in his senate and legislature, and the liberty of publishing truth on all subjects of public interest, he would not have converted discontent into treason, or have had to learn the sentiments of his capital from the Russians. Had he permitted the independent opinions of a free senate and legislature to influence his councils, he would never have seen Europe in arms against him, because the amalgamation of opinions would have generated a system of moderation, and he would then have been too strong in the affections of his people to have been assailed with any chance of success. In brief, had his government been founded on any popular principle, had his people been allowed to share his glory, had he not made himself every thing, and treated forty millions of human beings as though they lived only to contribute to the splendour of their emperor and his family, he might have enjoyed his unexampled renown, at the head of the French empire, till removed by the decay of nature. But he was not cast in the mould of Washington; he was what a military education, unbridled passions, and indulgent fortune, had made him; and yet, with all these things against him, nothing could pull him down at last but the unexampled unanimity of so many different powers. How



many coalitions had he destroyed, because they did not coalesce!—Had the allies acted together in 1793-4, when they were the enemies of France, as they did in 1813-14, when they declared themselves her friends, where would France have been? As it was, however, Burke declared that it was vanished from the map—he could not see it! But lord Liverpool declares in the house of lords, (May 11, 1814.) that, when our Wellington first entered his career against Bonaparte, “we had seen almost the whole of Europe subverted, and reduced to a blank; and scarcely any country remaining upon which the eye could rest, *except France!* By whose potent and magical operation was it, then, that (upon our own confession) the word *France* was almost synonymous with that of *Europe?*—by his, most assuredly, over whom we may write, if we now suppose him politically dead, and entombed at Elba, “Here rests a man brought low by the treachery of his friends and the unanimity of his enemies.”

We read in the Gazette de France, that it is the intention of Bernadotte to renounce the *succession* to the Swedish crown in favour of the son of Gustavus IV. We have no doubt but the duke of Sudermania will relinquish, at the same time, the *possession* of the crown to the rightful owner; and that Gustavus will be a king again. With this monarch may Louis shake hands with the most unreversed pleasure, and without any vexatious recollections; for never was a more inflexible enemy to the usurper of the French crown than he; he lost his own in fruitless attempts—mad attempts they were called—to oppose him: (see p. 198.) He will now, it is hoped, meet with his reward.

A Convention, something in the nature of a preliminary treaty of peace, was signed at Paris on the 23d of April, by lord Castlereagh and Talleyrand prince of Benevento. The following is the substance of it: All hostilities to cease. The allied powers shall cause the French territory to be evacuated by the 1st of June, 1814, such as it was on the 1st of Jan. 1792; and the French to evacuate all *without* those limits by the same date. All prisoners to be immediately restored on both sides, without exchange or ransom.

A decree of Monsieur, dated the 21st of April, published in the Moniteur of the 11th of May, directs the reduction of the French navy, on the signature of preliminaries, to 13 ships of the line, 21 frigates, 27 cutters, 15 brigs, and some smaller vessels.

We are every day in expectation of seeing our metropolis graced with the presence of the emperors of Russia and Austria, and the king of Prussia, accompanied by the brave generals to whom the cause of Europe is so much indebted—Blucher, Schwartzberg, Platoff, &c.—And it is said to be determined that the congress, for the negotiation of a general peace, shall be held in London, and the treaty to be entitled the Treaty of London, in consideration of the part which Great Britain has acted, and the succour, as well as example, she has given to all the belligerent allies. The following is the outline: Great Britain retains the Cape of Good Hope, Malta, the Mauritius, and Tobago; but cedes all the other French and Dutch colonies to those powers respectively, except Guadaloupe, which is secured to Sweden. Russia retains the Grand-Duchy of Warsaw; as Austria does Venice and its dependencies, together with Mantua and Peschiera. The kingdom of Saxony is to be divided between Austria and Prussia. Murat is to retain Naples; and king Ferdinand Sicily, with an indemnity in Italy for his Neapolitan possessions. The Scheldt is to be open; and the ships at Antwerp to be divided between the French and the Dutch.

His royal highness the prince-regent has thought fit to make a most commendable exception to the rule which it is said the sovereign had prescribed to himself; and we take credit to ourselves for having in some sort foreseen that such an exception might occur. See the article HERALDRY, vol. ix. p. 415. 2d edit.—On the 3d of May, the marquis of Wellington was created Marquis Douro, and

Duke of Wellington in the county of Somerset; and, on the 10th, a message was delivered to each house of parliament, stating, that “the prince-regent, desirous of further manifesting his sense of those great and eminent services which have exalted the renown of the British arms, established the safety and independence of Portugal and Spain, and contributed largely to the present tranquillity of Europe, recommends it to his parliament to enable him to grant such an annuity to Field-marshal the Duke of Wellington, and the heirs of his body succeeding to the title of Duke of Wellington, as may tend to support the dignity conferred upon him, and at the same time be a lasting memorial of his royal highness’s feelings and of the gratitude and munificence of the nation.”

The message was taken into consideration the next day in the house of lords; and the address in answer to and concurring with it was carried *nem. diff.*—The duke of Norfolk said, that he felt more proud of having a person like the duke of Wellington standing in the same rank with himself, than if he claimed that rank only from hereditary descent. It added more dignity and grace to the peerage.

In the house of commons, on the 12th, it was agreed to vote to his grace, to be annexed to the dukedom, an annuity of 13,000l. per annum, charged on the consolidated fund; but with a provision authorising the lords of the treasury to advance a sum not exceeding 400,000l. to be invested in land to be annexed to the dukedom. Upon purchases to that amount being completed, the annuity is to be cancelled, or parts of it in proportion to the amount laid out in land. This 13,000l. a-year, in addition to 4000l. a-year and 100,000l. in money granted before, will make the whole parliamentary allowance bestowed upon the duke of Wellington about 22,000l. per annum.

On the same day, (May 3.) the prince-regent was also pleased, in the name and on the behalf of his majesty, to grant the dignity of a Baron of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland to the following military officers, companions in arms with the duke of Wellington, and the heirs male of their bodies lawfully begotten, viz. Lieutenant-general the Hon. Sir John Hope, K. B. by the name, style, and title, of Baron Niddry, of Niddry, in the county of Linlithgow. Lieutenant-general Sir Thomas Graham, K. B. by the title of Baron Lynedock, of Balgowan, in the county of Perth. Lieutenant-general Sir Stapleton Cotton, Bart. K. B. by the title of Baron Combermere, in the county palatine of Chester. Lieutenant-general Sir Rowland Hill, K. B. by the title of Baron Hill, of Almaraz, and of Hawkestone, in the county of Salop. And Lieutenant-general Sir William Carr Beresford, K. B. by the title of Baron Beresford of Albuerca, and of Dungarvon in the county of Waterford.—Three of the above noblemen, lords Lynedock, Hill, and Beresford, are to have pensions of 2000l. per ann. each; and lord Liverpool stated, that, with respect to the two other distinguished officers serving under the duke of Wellington, who had been so justly honoured by the prince-regent in being raised to the peerage, they were in circumstances to decline any provision being made for them by parliament. He had, therefore, with respect to them, only to hope that they might long enjoy the honours which had been so deservedly conferred upon them. For the armorial bearings of the lords Niddry, Lynedock, and Hill, see the article HERALDRY, vol. ix. Plate C.

That the services of the navy might not pass unrewarded, the Gazette of May the 14th announced, that the dignity of a Viscount of the United Kingdom had been granted to Admiral Lord Keith, by the name, style, and title, of Viscount Keith. And also that the dignity of a Baron of the United Kingdom had been conferred on Vice-Admiral Sir E. Pellew, by the name, style, and title, of Baron Exmouth, of Canontaign, in the County of Devon. Admiral Cornwallis has been created a Vice-Admiral in the room of Viscount Bridport, deceased; and Admiral Young, a Rear-Admiral.



We are happy to add, that it is intended, when the peace is entirely settled, farther to reward those who have so nobly laboured to secure it, by an addition of one-third to the half-pay of retiring officers in the army and navy. And we are informed, that the workmen in the dock-yards are not to be suddenly reduced in number: the diminution by deaths and superannuation, together with discharges for idleness and other bad behaviour, are to be relied on for bringing the yards to a peace-establishment.

To conclude.—The great events we have been narrating, have come to pass under the guidance of a ministry of no shining talents. Indeed so much the contrary, that we have seen the parliament prorogued for three whole months in the middle of a session, (p. 373.) and on its re-assembling appearing to avoid every important discussion, every thing beyond mere routine-business—on account of the absence of one man, a man who was looked upon by his colleagues, in 1809, as totally unfit for office! See p. 212.—Another remarkable circumstance in the present aspect of the political world, seems to be the extinction of all the great political luminaries of the last age, without the appearance of any equal lights to succeed them. Pitt is no more. That proud integrity, which extorted panegyrics even from his enemies; those views of foreign policy, which were generally sound, though sometimes misapplied through a too sanguine calculation; that knowledge of finance and political economy, which has not been paralleled by any modern statesman;—these can no longer sway the public councils; nor could they now be seconded by the strong sense, the force of character, and indefatigable application, of the first lord Melville. No longer, on the other hand, does the same torrent of eloquence flow from the opposition-benches, as when Fox, and Burke, and Sheridan, were in their prime; when the forcible argument of the one, the impetuous declamation of the other, and the brilliant wit of the third, were displayed in full array, on the theatre of the British parliament. Of all these, Sheridan alone remains, and remains the mere shadow of his former self.—The absence of this constellation of talent has certainly dimmed the lustre of the British senate, and rendered its character less imposing in the eyes of Europe. Yet has it not, perhaps, on the whole, produced an unfavourable effect upon the public mind. It has broken those chains of mental submission, by which the inhabitants of this country were formerly enthralled. The anathema laid on all who dissented, even in a trifling degree, from the opinions of Pitt or of Fox, is in a great measure removed. Men do not consider themselves as under a necessity so absolute, of becoming bound to either of the contending parties; and, when they do attach themselves, they still reserve some liberty of judgment upon individual questions.—The present ministers are not men of shining abilities; but they are plain practical men, diligently doing what they apply themselves to; and, we really believe, sincerely seeking, to their best judgment, the public welfare. They have availed themselves of prosperous circumstances with vigour and promptitude, without being betrayed by them into extravagant and romantic projects.

#### GENERAL SURVEY OF BUILDINGS, STREETS, AND ANTIQUITIES.

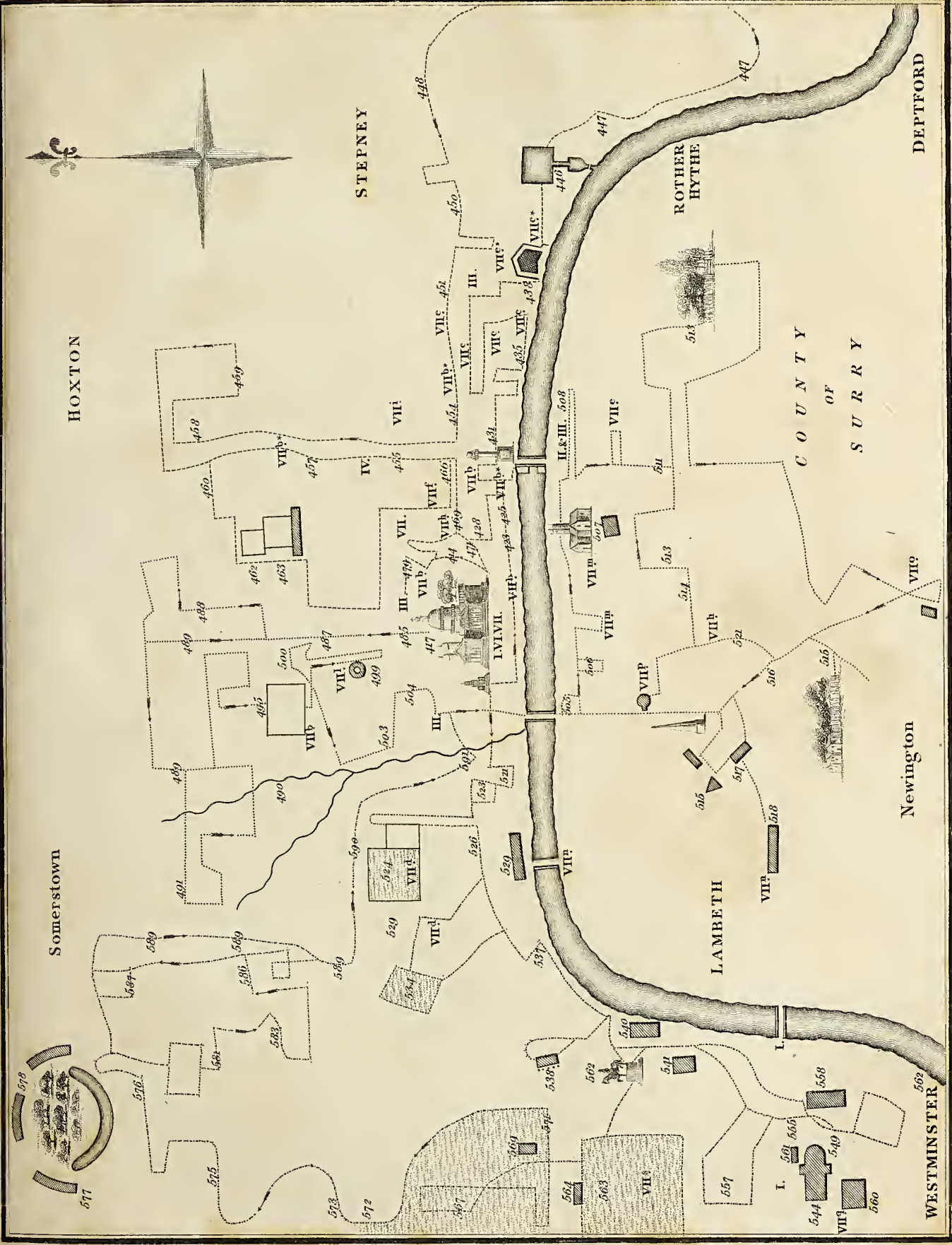
The wings of time move with a much swifter flight than the pen of the historian. Unable to keep pace with the rapid succession of events, the chronicler wonders at being left so far behind, and to find himself describing the past when he had thought to arrest and fix the present. Teeming with important circumstances, every day brings forth new matter; and the writer hardly knows where to stop. This is the case with all works of the nature of our publication; and we must therefore conform with the general usage and custom laid down by our predecessors in this department of useful literature. Having brought the annals of British history, mediately or immediately connected with the history of the metropolis, down to the

present happy moment of peace, we intend now to draw the attention of our readers to a SURVEY of this noble capital of the united empire. And here we find ourselves again surrounded with nearly the same, and as many, difficulties as we were in our situation of historiographers; for the same wasting power which piles rapidly days upon days, years upon years, exercises its influence with equal tyranny and velocity upon the works of man: so that, when the perambulator who passes before a monument, and notes it down, passes again the next day, he finds it no more: *Transivi, et ecce non erat*; "I went by, and it was gone." This is the reason why descriptions of ancient buildings, no longer in existence or mouldering out of shape, are become so interesting, so precious. They arrest the ravages of the great leveller of all, and give a sort of *immortality to mortal things*. Under what obligation are we not to the draughtsmen, painters, and engravers, of the 15th and 16th centuries, when the arts began to awake from their slumbers, for their attention and care in fixing on wood or copper the true likeness, the *vera effigies*, of men, edifices, and other cadent and deciduous subjects, which would have been lost to memory for ever! These considerations have actuated us to give in our written and engraved descriptions, objects which are even now existing, as well as those which time has devoured, and exist only in the collections of antiquaries, who, like the fleeting objects of their lucubrations, have long vanished from the society of men. Lifting with one hand the thick veil of darkness thrown by the lapse of years over many interesting parts of this ancient city, we must withstand with the other the rapacity of the great destroyer, and contrive to present to our readers, both that which once was, and that which now is, worthy of being known and remembered. The chef-d'œuvres of architecture, of sculpture, of painting, all the works of man, as they have a beginning, so must they have an end; and what to-day delights the eye with grandeur, beauty, elegance, may tomorrow disappear in volumes of flame, or by any other physical cause. It is therefore necessary to describe even those objects that are cotemporary with us, and may strike our sight every day; since, when they shall have been expunged from the book of realities, they will retain still a sort of imaginary existence in our columns and on the copper plates destined to illustrate their contents. There posterity will seek for them; there only they will find them, and bless our memory for the trouble we have taken.

St. PAUL'S.—The metropolitan church of St. Paul being nearly the central point of the whole of our survey, namely, London, Westminster, and the Borough, we have chosen it also as the centre of our perambulations in and about these three component parts of the capital of the united kingdom. Hence we shall start in search of objects worthy of notice, making our observations as we proceed; following, as most useful guides, those writers who have preceded us in the same career, taking their word when we have no better authority, but always scrupulous and fearful in admitting ungrounded opinions. To St. Paul's we shall return by different windings, proud of making discoveries, if, after the last and keenest of gleaners, Pennant, discoveries are to be made; and bold enough to think for ourselves, and to set our predecessors and leaders right whenever we find them deluded or mistaken. When the subjects of our description cannot be placed before our eyes, we will faithfully quote our authorities; but, when and where ever we can procure ocular certainty, we must be allowed to indulge our own sense and judgment.

Although it matters little whether on the spot, upon which this magnificent basilica now stands, there was ever a temple dedicated to Diana, or to any other heathen deity, or no temple at all; yet there is always a great deal of pleasure felt by a true antiquary in finding the truth behind the curtain which time has drawn between us and the monuments of past ages. At the diffusion of the evangelical light, and when the follies of paganism began to be exploded, the nearly-general custom of the Christians—





Thomas et al. Burg. St. Blomby.

*Plan of the Survey.*

Published by G. Jones, Ave-Maria-Lane, Nov. 9, 1844.







was to purify the spots polluted by idolatrous practices, and there, by a sort of lasting atonement, to erect a temple to the true God. The spot upon which St. Paul's stands; being nearly the highest point of the hill, it is probable that it had been originally adorned with the *fanum* of some of the numerous divinities with which polytheism had peopled the world. The hills of Italy, the mountains of Greece, the cliffs of the numerous islands which stud the bosom of the Ægean sea, were distinguished by white marble edifices consecrated to the gods; and Apollo and Diana had nearly every-where a facellum upon the top of any considerable eminence. This usage among the idolaters was of great antiquity; and the Old Testament contains frequent denunciations against the religious ceremonies performed on the *high places*. The former existence of a house called *Diana's Chambers* in the neighbourhood of St. Paul's, about where Paul's Chain and Godliman-street now stand, may have given rise to, if it was not the result of, the often-mentioned opinions that the Romans had erected, in the forest-wilds of the ground rising from the Thames, a temple to the divine huntress. Yet Stow, who was naturally apt to catch at any report of that kind, is perfectly silent upon it; but sir William Dugdale, in his most valuable History of St. Paul's, gives us the following statements, which the contrary but negative opinion of sir Christopher Wren and his contemporaries cannot controvert. "In the time of bishop Mellitus, Ethelbert king of Kent (who, by the preaching of Augustine, was the first of our Saxon kings that received the Christian faith) erected here a church, dedicating it to St. Paul, the apostle and doctor of the Gentiles. That in the place where he so built it, had been a temple of Diana the goddess, is probable enough from those instances which the learned Camden giveth; viz. the structure near at hand called Diana's Chambers, and the multitude of ox-heads digged up when the east part thereof was rebuilt; *sc. temp.* Ed. I. which were then thought to be relics of the Gentiles sacrifices. Whereunto I shall add what I find in an ancient writer, viz. After that the Christian religion, which in the days of king Lucius had been first planted in this nation, was, through that great persecution of Dioclesian the emperor, almost utterly rooted out, idols were set up in those churches wherein God had been served: *Immolat Diana Londonia, thurificat Apollini suburbana Thorneia, &c.* "London sacrifices to Diana, and Thorney (now called Westminster) offers incense to Apollo." Hist. MS. de fundat. abb. Westm. in Bibl. Cotton. It appears therefore that this second church was built by king Ethelbert, or rather by Sebert, a petty prince ruling in these parts, in the year 603 or 4. At the instance of St. Augustine, who had purified "the idolatrous temple of Canterbury, where Ethelbert and his nobles did offer sacrifices to the devil," Mellitus was appointed first bishop of London. The munificence of Ethelred appeared in his endowing this church with lands, among which is the manor of Tillingham in Essex. In 675, Erkenwald, the fourth bishop from Mellitus, and a man whose virtues seem not to have wanted the power of working miracles to entitle him to the veneration of his flock, bestowed great sums of money upon that edifice, and augmented its revenues with his own estate; (see p. 56.) He was canonized, and his body translated to a glorious shrine which was placed at the east end of the church behind the altar. Pennant, with his usual keenness of observation, says: "He was most deservedly canonized; for the very litter in which he was carried in his last illness continued many centuries to cure fevers by the touch; and the very chips, carried to the sick, restored them to health."

To so great a degree of esteem had this cathedral already arrived in 1075, that a national council of all the bishops, abbots, and other ecclesiastical persons, was held there by order of William the Conqueror. In 1087 this church was destroyed by fire, as well as a great part of the city. Mauricius was bishop at that time; and, being a man of enterprise and perseverance, he began the construction of

another cathedral, which, in the decree of Providence, was doomed also to suffer by the flames many times, and finally to perish in them in 1666. Stow represents it as a "worke that men of that time judged would never have been finished, it was to them so wonderful for length and breadth; and also the same was builded upon arches (or vaults) of stone for defence of fire; which was a manner of worke before that time unknown to the people of this nation; and then brought in by the French; and the stone was fetcht from Caen in Normandy." This is a curious assertion. We should suppose that the quarries of England known at that time were so distant, that the conveying of the stones by water from the nearly-opposite shore of the channel proved less difficult, and consequently less expensive, than to have them hewed from the bosom of this island; considering also that, at the time, Normandy was an appendage to England and the property of its monarch.

The choir, which by help of repairs stood to the very day when the whole pile was reduced to ashes, was uncommonly beautiful; the architecture of it uniting loftiness and elegance, solidity and grace. It was perfected in 1240; and soon after was most solemnly dedicated. The ceremony was performed by Edmund archbishop of Canterbury, and six bishops, ministering with him as his assistants; and honoured by the presence of king Henry III. and of Otto, the pope's legate. This solemnity, which must have been very striking, and attended with great pomp, was performed under the episcopacy of Roger surnamed Niger; and the expense was paid, as well as the whole cost of the building, by money and subsidies obtained for "indulgencies granted to all those as, being truly sorry for their sins and confessed, should afford their help towards this pious work." Thus the economical clergy borrowed out of the treasury in heaven, in order to erect upon earth places of worship in honour of the Most High. In 1312, the cross which was at the top of the steeple was made anew with a pomel well gilt, and filled up with "the relics of divers saints, by Gilbert de Segrave, then bishop of London, with much solemnity and procession; to the intent that God Almighty, by the glorious merits of the saints whose relics were therein contained, would vouchsafe to preserve this said steeple from all danger of tempest." But the wickedness of the people below soon outweighed the sanctity above; for, notwithstanding the powerful and cautious charm, the same steeple was destroyed by lightning on the 1st of Feb. 1444. The measurement taken before that time (1322) gives the following result: Length of the church, 690 feet; breadth, 130; height of the whole body of the church, 150, the roof from the floor in the nave, 102; choir, 88 feet; the space of ground upon which it stood, was estimated at three acres and a half, one rood and a half, and six perches. The height of the tower and spire, all together, from the ground was reckoned at 520 feet; and the ball, which from below did not appear much larger than a hazel-nut, would contain within it ten bushels of corn. The length of the cross was fifteen feet. This measurement, written in Latin on a tablet, hung on the north part of the choir. Such was this wonderful building, erected at a period which our pride stigmatizes with the concomitant idea of ignorance and barbarity.

Having considered this metropolitan church in general and outside, we must enter it, and introduce our readers to the principal objects which attracted the respect and admiration of all those who visited it. Had sir William Dugdale foreseen that in his life-time this famous basilica should have been entirely destroyed, his description of it would have been much more extensive; though we can gather from his very-interesting performance on the subject, aided by the fine *burin* of Hollar, many parts which the reader will peruse with great interest and pleasure.

The nave was supported by clustered pillars and round arches, the style preserved by the Normans, after the conquered Saxons. The galleries and windows of the transepts were also finished with rounded arches. To sir Wm. Dugdale also we owe our acquaintance with the tombs;



but we are not to expect in this church the number, or the elegance, of those of Westminster. "St. Peter, the porter of heaven," says Pennant, "had far the preference to the tutelary saint of this cathedral. Few crowned heads crowded here: except those of Saxon race, none were found within these walls."

Among several other curiosities which Dugdale mentions as having been seen is, a "fine picture of St. Paul, richly painted, and placed in a beautiful tabernacle of wood on the right hand of the high altar." It had been placed there under the reign of Richard II. in 1398; and we are told that the price of the workmanship was 12l. 16s. an enormous sum at that time; but we regret that Dugdale did not impart to us in what manner it was executed, whether in oil or in distemper, the learned being not yet satisfied with the idea that oil-painting was not existing at that time. The tabernacle mentioned above was nothing more, we suppose, than a well-carved and decorated box with two folding doors, as they are often seen in churches on the continent, and particularly in Flanders. These boxes were not open but upon certain occasions, and were intended to keep the pictures from dust, smoke, or any accident which might deface their beauty by impairing the brightness of their colours; and such was the respect paid to the work inside, that the ablest painters did not disdain to adorn the outside with some excellent specimens of their skill in the art. The high altar must have been in the same style, and uncommonly beautiful. "This," says Dugdale, after a manuscript in the possession of Ashmole, "as appeareth by the indented covenants between Ralph de Baldock bishop of London and one Richard Pickerell, a citizen, had a beautiful tablet made and fitted to set thereon; anno 1309, 3 Ed. II. variously adorned with many precious stones and enamel'd work; as also with divers images of metal; which tablet stood betwixt two columns, within a frame of wood to cover it, richly set out with curious pictures; the charge thereof amounted to 200 marks," about 120l. of our present money. The offerings made at this altar were of immense value. On the day of the conversion of the tutelary saint, the charities were prodigious, first to the souls, when an indulgence of forty days pardon was given, *verè penitentibus, contritis et confessis*; and, by order of Henry III. fifteen hundred tapers were placed in the church, and fifteen thousand poor people fed in the church-yard. But the most singular offering was that of a fat doe in winter, and a buck in summer, made at the high altar, on the day of the commemoration of the saint, by sir William de Bunde and his family, and then to be distributed among the canons resident. This was in lieu of twenty-two acres of land in Essex, which did belong to the canons of this church. Till queen Elizabeth's days, the doe or buck was received solemnly, at the steps of the high altar, by the dean and chapter, attired in their sacred vestments, and crowned with garlands of roses. "They sent the body of the buck to baking; and had the head, fixed on a pole, borne before the crosse in the procession, until they issued out of the west doore, where the keeper that brought it blowed the death of the buck; and then the horners, that were about the cite, presently answered him in like manner; for which paines they had each man, of the deane and chapter, four pence in money, and their dinner; and the keeper that brought it was allowed, during his abode there, for his service, meate, drinke, and lodging, and five shillings in money at his going away, together with a loafe of breade having the picture of St. Paul upon it." Warton's Hist. of Poetry, vol. ii. p. 390.

"In the body of the church," says Dugdale, "stood the glorious image of the Blessed Virgin, fixed to the pillar at the foot of sir John de Beauchamp's tomb," (viz. the second pillar on the south side from the steeple westwards.) In the year 1365, a grant was made to the dean and chapter, by John Barnett, bishop of Bath and Wells, of one water-mill, several acres of arable land, meadow, pasture, and of wood, amounting in all to ninety-eight, and 43s.

of yearly rent, laying in Rastoke, co. Essex, for the perpetual maintenance of a lamp burning every night before this image. It was stipulated besides in the grant, that every day after mattins those present should go out of the choir, and, placing themselves before the image, sing an "Anthem of Our Lady, *scil. Nesciens Mater.*" This religious custom was kept up to the time of the reformation. The donations offered to this image, being very numerous and valuable, were the perquisites of the dean and canons, as well as the money which the devotion and charity of the faithful used to drop into an iron box placed at the foot of the image. We are not told what materials that image was made of; but it appears that mass was performed on an altar below it.

In the eastern part of the church, called the New Work, was the Chapel of Our Lady, as we find it in nearly all ancient churches; and there was also an image of the Virgin, in honour of whom the good people were invited, by the promise of forty days indulgence, to repeat a few *Paters* and *Aves*, and to give books, vestments, tapers, and any other ornaments, to the church. A taper was constantly burning before the great cross which was in the body of the church: this was maintained by two acres of land situated in Sandon, co. Herts, given by Ralph de Clatford. Towards the great north door, a crucifix was erected, to which frequent donations were made.

But the principal object of devotion was the famous shrine of St. Erkenwald, the venerable bishop, whom we have mentioned at pages 56 and 397. He was stated to be the son of Offa king of the East Saxons; and had been converted to the faith in Christ by Mellitus, first bishop of London, in 642. Before he was promoted to the dignity of a bishop, he erected two very handsome monasteries, at his own expence, and out of his own patrimony: one in Surry, on the banks of the river Thames, at a place called then *Cerotesfeya*, now Chertsey, where he presided over his monks, giving them the best examples of abnegation and piety; and the other in Essex, at *Berchingum*, now Barking, for Edelburga his sister, whom he placed at the head of the nuns there. He was consecrated a bishop by Theodorus archbishop of Canterbury, in the year 675; converted, and baptized with his own hands, Sebba king of the East-Saxons, who, leaving the pomp and vanities of this world, soon consecrated his life to the practice of virtue, and was buried in this cathedral under a marble vault, which existed in the time of Dugdale, from whom we derive our best information; and shared with all the other monuments the fate of the church in 1666.

St. Erkenwald, or Erconwald, as the name is sometimes spelt, sat eleven years on the see, and appeared to have been most deservedly beloved and revered by his flock. It would be ridiculous to report here many of the numerous miracles he is said to have performed. The easy belief yielded to many incredible relations found most likely its origin in the blind respect which they bore, in spiritual matters, to a man whose morality, humanity, and private and public liberality, had won their utmost gratitude. Man is too prone, indeed, to invent and believe wonderful things of the object of his veneration and his love; and, from the rustic clown who hangs to the lips and believes in the dreams of the girl of his heart, up to the superstitious Christians who thought they were cured by the mere touch of St. Erkenwald's litter, we can trace the same principle nearly every-where. We read in a Latin extract of his life, written in a most florid style of elegance, the following passage: *Quadam verò die, verbi Dei pabula, commisso sibi gregi, ministratum dum duarum rotarum ferretur vehiculo infirmitate præpediente vel senio, contigit ut altera rotarum semitis difficultate axem relinqueret, et ibidem, sociâ relicta, remaneret. Cumque diu rota reliqua solum officii sui cursum continuaret; ignorabant enim qui aderant, subito currus ex altera parte vacuus sustentamine cernitur, cujus tamen cursus usque novo inò insolito, mirabiliter perficitur.* "Riding one day in a two-wheel carriage, as he was going to distribute the spiritual food of his instruction to the flock intrusted to his



his care, it chanced that one of the wheels came off on account of the roughness of the road, and was left behind; whilst the other performed its part after the loss of its companion as if it had been present; and indeed so well, that no one missed the wheel till the old and infirm prelate arrived at the end of his journey." Erkenwald died at Barking, not without having, previous to his leaving this world, convoked his disciples in his cell, and given them proper instruction; "but, when he expired," says the historian, "the whole of the apartment was filled suddenly with an odour of the most delightful fragrance, as if the house had been all at once immersed in an ocean of the sweetest perfumes." As soon as the news of his death was known, the monks of Chertsey halted at Barking, where they were met by the canons of St. Paul's; and a warm contention began between the nuns and the monks, and between them and the canons; both sides claiming possession of the relics of so great a saint; but, the people of London having added strength to their clergy, the body was taken up, and followed by the monks and the nuns in tears along the road. But soon a singular accident took place. A storm of rain and wind arose, and raged with such fury, that the procession could hardly move on; and a fresh obstacle appeared in the way, when they arrived at the banks of the *Hyla*, or river Lee; for, the deluged hill of the neighbourhood having poured down torrents of water, the stream had overflowed its bed, and no bridge or boat was at hand to facilitate their going over. Then the dispute between the nuns and monks, and the canons, began afresh. "See, see," said these, "what injury you wish to do us, in taking away this sacred corpse: God himself has declared against you, and sent this tempest to stop the perpetration of your crime. You came-like rapacious wolves to deprive us of our father's body;" and so forth. The canons, to these insults, answered with pertinaciousness, and indeed placed themselves in an attitude to defend the booty, had the other party attempted a rescue. In fact they were on the point of coming to blows; *tantane animis calescibus iræ*; when, in the midst of this scandalous tumult, a monk, less quarrelsome and more wise than the rest, ascended an eminence, and, having obtained silence, spoke nearly as follows: "You are actuated by a most laudable zeal; and no doubt your eagerness to possess the remains of your friend and father, of your monitor and founder, cannot but be acceptable to the Almighty; but, by insults and outrage, you defile the purity of your intention. If you, so unchristianly, abuse each other, how can you expect that God will let you know his predetermination upon this affair? God is all charity: be therefore peaceable and kind to one another; fall on your knees, and deprecate the just vengeance of the Lord: soon he will let you know his will." These words were listened to with attention and reverence. The clergy began the Litany and the singing of Psalms; the whole congregation prostrated themselves on the ground, shedding abundance of tears and offering prayers to God.—We might suppose, in these incredulous times, that this altercation, and the harangue, gave time to the waters to flow away, or re-enter their usual bed, and for boats and ferries to be procured—but, no—all at once, whilst the people were at prayers, the waters of the Lee respectfully divided themselves; and, the canons lifting up the bier with great reverence and returning unanimity, the congregation crossed the dry bed of the retired stream, and walked to Stratford. There they halted, and rested themselves under the foliage of the trees and amidst the flowers which rendered at that moment the spot so pleasant. The storm had ceased—the clouds, having discharged their burthens, were slowly retiring to the verge of the horizon, and the sun began to bestow again its light and warmth. But now another prodigy astonished the multitude—the wax-tapers, which were carried around the bier, and had been blown out by the wind of the storm, were miraculously lighted again without any mortal help. The astonishment having subsided, the funeral pomp proceeded to

London; and was met on the road by the people of the city, impatient to see and receive the venerable remains of their beloved bishop. *Admissi, risum teneatis?* "Do not laugh," says Horace; and indeed we need not laugh at blind credulity in dark ages, when we find hundreds of our cotemporaries in this very metropolis who firmly believe that, this year, a fresh incarnation of the Son of the Almighty will happen, that the Messiah will be born again of a woman, and that the virgin whose sacred womb is to be the tabernacle of the omnipotent is *Joanna Southcott*, spinster, and in the sixty-fifth year of her age. See p. 369. Tolerant to a degree in matters of religion, provided that religious matters do not disturb that harmony which ought to exist between short-lived mortals, all born of a woman, all destined to the grave, we have inserted the above to show at different periods the manners and belief of our ancestors. The true history of a nation, or of a people, is not merely the history of their kings, their warriors, and magistrates, but a faithful picture of their habits both corporal and mental, *mores hominum*, the attention to, and study of, which rendered the hero of the *Odyssæy* the wisest man of his age.

St. Erkenwald was at first buried in the body of the church; but in the year 1143, (13 Steph.) on the 18th of the kalends of December, corresponding to our 14th of November, "the bones of this famous bishop and confessor were translated to a shrine" erected for the purpose, and which stood on the east side of the wall above the high altar. "Of this glorious shrine," says Dugdale, "as also of the iron grate which inclosed it, extending to five foot ten inches in height, having locks, keys, closures, and openings, and was also tinned over, I have in its proper place exhibited a true representation, from the very original draught made for a direction to the smith that wrought it; which grate, weighing 343lb. at the rate of 4d. a-pound, amounted to 64l. 2s. and, that it might be kept in this beautiful condition, Thomas de Evere, dean of this cathedral, anno 1407, by his testament bequeathed roof for the building of houses in Knight-riders-street, to the end that the revenue of them should be employed upon the reparation thereof, and maintenance of lights burning about it on the two feast days of St. Erkenwald; as also for support of a chaplain celebrating for the fraternity of that blessed confessor."

As many and splendid miracles were believed to have been wrought at this shrine, the oblations were consequently rich and numerous. A canon of the church, in 1319, gave to it, by his testament, "all his gold rings and jewels of what sort soever;" and, in 1592, "Richard de Preston, a citizen and grocer of London, gave to this shrine his best sapphire-stone, there to remain for curing of infirmities in the eyes, appointing that proclamation should be made of its virtues." (Loc. cit.) John king of France, during his detention in England as a prisoner, visiting this cathedral, and having heard mass at the high altar, came to the shrine, and made an oblation of twelve nobles. Many other gifts were added to these in the course of time. In 1400, the esquire to the abbess of Barking made a present to it of a silver girdle; at which time it was much repaired, if not made anew. The shrine served as an altar-piece to a small tomb-like altar, surrounded with a rail as mentioned above, the spikes of which ended in elegant fleure-de-llys. The shrine was divided into five compartments, separated from each other by a pilaster adorned with a pinnacle richly wrought. The three middle openings were in the form of windows, each having two mullions; and the great pediment arose majestically with the splendid ornaments of seven pinnacles, with their finials and crockets. We are led to suppose, by the form of this monument, that some of the bones of the saint were seen through these windows, between the mullions; as we have remarked in several shrines of that description which the all-melting and burning zeal of the French revolution sent unmercifully to the crucible. It is remarkable that most of these shrines were in the shape of churches,



churches, with buttresses, pinnacles, spires, &c. and generally made of silver gilt, which the French call *vermeil*. We have strong reason to believe that some of them, preceding the æra of elegance in Gothic architecture, were rather prototypes than imitations of religious piles. St. Dunstan in England, and St. Eloy in France, were celebrated shrine-makers; and have respectively retained to this day the privilege of patronising in both countries the companies of *aurifabri*, "orfevres," or goldsmiths.

The shrine of Roger Niger, bishop of London in the thirteenth century, was also in high repute; a visit to it was frequently enjoined in the indulgences given for the rebuilding of this church.—Henry Lacie, the great earl of Lincoln, an eminent commander under Edward I. particularly in the Welsh wars, was buried in that part of the church of his own building, called the New Work. He died at his house in town, called Lincoln's Inn. He was armed in mail; his body covered with a short gown; his legs crossed, for he had either the merit of visiting the Holy Land, or (which would entitle him to a right to that attitude) made a vow to perform that expiatory pilgrimage.

Sir John Beauchamp, constable of Dover castle, warden of the cinque ports, knight of the garter, the son of sir Guy Beauchamp, earl of Warwick, had his tomb there also; upon which occasion Stow has the following observations: "This deceased nobleman (by ignorant people) has been erroneously mis-termed and said to be Humphrey the good duke of Gloucester, who lyeth honourably buried at St. Alban's in Hertfordshire, twenty miles from London. In idle and frivolous opinion of whom, some men (of late times) have made a solemn meeting at his tombe upon St. Andrewes day on the morning (before Christmasse), and concluded on a breakfast or dinner, as assuring themselves to be servants, and to hold diversity of offices, under the good duke Humphrey. Likewise on May-day, tankard-bearers, watermen, and some others of like quality besides, would use to come to the same tombe early in the morning, and (according as the other) have delivered serviceable presentations at the same monument, by strewing herbes and sprinkling faire water on it, as in the duty of servants and according to their degrees or charges in office; but, as Master Stowe [this is taken from the edition in 1633 long after Stow's death] has discreetly advised such as are so merrily disposed, or simply profess themselves to serve duke Humphrey in Pauls, if punishment of losing their dinner daily there bee not sufficient for them, they should be sent to St. Alban's, to answer there for their disobedience and long absence from their so-highly well-deserving lord and master, because in their merry disposition they please to call him so." This may lead to the explanation of the old proverb about duke Humphrey's dinner.

That accomplished knight, the ill-fated sir Simon de Burleigh, lay here in complete armour, under a most elegant gothic arch. He is said to have been the first person beheaded on Tower-hill. See the article ENGLAND, vol. vi. p. 603.—Here was deposited, in 1468, (severed from her husband the great John Talbot, who was interred at Whitchurch in Shropshire,) Margaret countess of Shrewsbury. A monument was designed by the friendship of one John Wenlok, at the expense of a hundred pounds; but, from some unknown cause, the inscription only was executed.

William earl of Pembroke, an active character in the reigns of Henry VIII. Mary, Edward VI. and Elizabeth, with his first countess Anne, (sister to Catharine Parr, queen to Henry VIII.) dying at Baynard Castle in 1551, was interred here with vast solemnity. The portraits of Anne and her lord, in painted glass, are still extant in the chapel at Wilton. The earl followed her in 1569. They lay beneath a magnificent canopy divided into two arches; at their head, kneeling, was their daughter Anne lady Talbot; at their feet, in the same attitude, their sons Henry earl of Pembroke, and sir Edward Herbert, of Pool, i. e. Powis Castle, ancestor of the earls of Powis.

That great and honest man, sir Nicholas Bacon, lay here

recumbent; and, notwithstanding he was a gownsmán, was singularly clad in complete armour; beneath him were his two wives, in gowns and short ruffs.—Sir Philip Sydney, the delight of the age, the most heroic and virtuous character of his time, had no more than a board with a most wretched inscription of eight verses, to record a fame which nothing can injure. His remains were brought here on January 16, 1586, with the utmost magnificence. There was a general mourning for him; and it was accounted indecent, for many months, for any gentleman to appear at court, or in the city, in gay apparel. The partiality of an individual may mistake the qualities of a friend; but the testimony of a whole nation puts his merits beyond dispute.—The memory of the great Walsingham also rests on his own deserts. He died so poor, that his friends were obliged to deposit his remains by stealth into their grave, lest they should be arrested, from a mistaken notion of right. See p. 360. "By accident was left, in an old book of legends which I purchased," says Pennant, "an ancient manuscript list of statesmen in the reign of Elizabeth, consigned by the writer to the pains of hell, for their zeal against the catholics. The 1st, *Leicester, all in fire*, died 1588; 2d, *Walsingham, the secretarie, also in fire and flames*; he died Ap. 6, 1590. No wonder, since he could contrive to get the pope's pocket picked, when his holiness was asleep, of the keys of a cabinet, by which he made himself master of an original letter of the first importance, which proved the saving of our island from the machinations of its enemies."

The monument of doctor Donne, the wit of his time, was of a curious design; the corpse was represented standing in a niche, and wrapped in a shroud gathered about his head; with his feet resting on an urn. Not long before his death, he dressed himself in that funebrial habit, placed his feet on an urn fixed on a board exactly of his own height, and, shutting his eyes, like a departed person, was drawn in that attitude by a skilful painter. This gloomy piece he kept in his room till the day of his death, on March 31, 1631; after which it served as a pattern for his tomb. See vol. vi. p. 21.

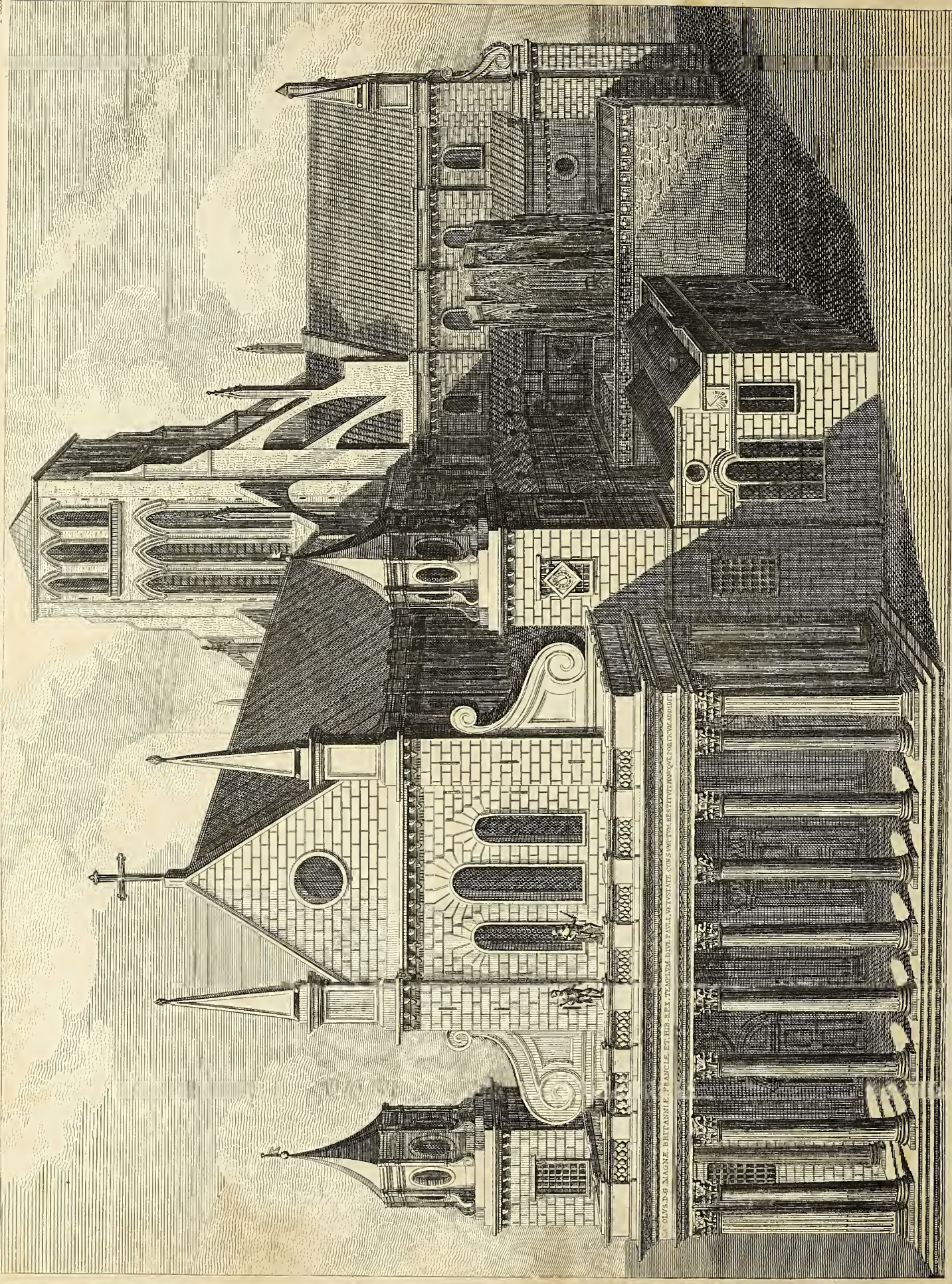
It may not be improper, here, to take notice of the celebration of divine service, the obsequies, anniversaries, and chantries, particularly belonging to this cathedral. As to the first, Richard Clifford, bishop of London, in 1414, with the consent of the dean and chapter, ordained, that from thenceforward it should be altered from the old form, and made conformable to the church of Salisbury, and other cathedrals within this kingdom. The performance of obsequies for great persons deceased was, however, retained as a peculiar privilege of this cathedral, from whence great profits arose. "Indeed, the state and order observed on these occasions," says Dugdale, "was little inferior to that used at the funerals of those great personages; the church and choir being hung with black, and escutcheons of their arms; their horses set up in wonderful magnificence, adorned with rich banner-rolls, &c. and environed with barriers; having chief mourners and assistants, accompanied by several bishops and abbots, in their proper habits; the ambassadors of foreign princes, many of our nobility, the knights of the garter, the lord-mayor, and the several companies of London, who all attended with great devotion at these ceremonies." This author adds a list of emperors, empresses, and kings whose obsequies were performed in this cathedral.

As to anniversaries, those of the conversion and commemoration of St. Paul, the consecration of the church, and the canonization of St. Erkenwald, were the principal. The anniversaries of the consecration and canonization, were celebrated at the public expense; but, there were other anniversaries, of a private nature, provided for by particular endowments, as that of sir John Pounteney, knt. who had been four times lord-mayor of London, and assigned annual salaries to all who bore office about the church, together with an allowance of 6s. 8d. to the lord-mayor, 5s. to the recorder, 6s. 8d. to the two sheriffs, 3s. 4d. to the common crier, 6s. 8d. to the lord-mayor's









OLIVIERO MAGNE, BRITANNIE, FRANCE ET ROY. ESPAGNE, ENTAILLEUR, RUE DES FILLES DU CALVAIRE, N. N. 10.

South-West View of Old St. Paul's.

London, Published and Sold by G. G. & Co.



mayor's serjeants, and 6s. 8d. to the master of the college of St. Laurence Pountney, provided they were present at his anniversary; but, if any were absent, that share was to be distributed to the poor. There were many other anniversaries of the same kind.

The chantries were founded by men of condition, for the maintenance of one or two priests, to celebrate divine service daily, for the release of their souls, the souls of their dearest friends and relations, and of all the faithful deceased, from purgatory; but these were, in a short time, increased to such a degree, and the endowments were so slender, that, so early as the reign of Richard II. bishop Braybroke caused forty-four of them to be united into one solemn service.

We shall not enter into the detail of all the chantries which were founded in this cathedral, nor of all the monuments which once adorned it; but we cannot pass without mention the beautiful monument of John of Gaunt, son of Edward the third duke of Lancaster and of Constantia his wife, which stood on the north side of the high altar, between two columns of the chancel. It seems to have been highly ornamented; his spear, his target, and crest, with a cap of maintenance, hung on the front of it, as may be seen in the engraving in Dugdale's History of St. Paul's.—The tomb of Thomas Kempe was also very fine, and adorned with angels, and shields of the arms of the see of London and his own.—That of dean Colet, the founder of the school, was remarkable for a bust of this learned clergyman, and for a skeleton in stone lying upon his tomb. It was often the wish of religious people to have this exposure of mortality as an appendage to their places of sepulture, in order to warn the living of the shortness of their days, and of the state to which death will reduce them, in spite of health, strength, riches, honours, and dignities; and several churches in England, as well as on the continent, exhibit this mournful and silent monitor; hence the ignorant formed the wrong yet common supposition, that the persons thus represented had been starved to death. The arms of the company of mercers was over the niche containing the bust of the dean; and the whole presented a noble appearance. The engraving from which we make our description was a present of the said worshipful company to the work of sir W. Dugdale, left the monument of so meritorious a divine should perish with the cathedral; which at that time (1656) was in a very ruinous state.

To mention all the monuments in stone and marble, and the flat tomb-stones adorned with beautiful brass effigies, of revered relatives and other personages, would be a task ill-suited to our purpose; we therefore return to the historical part of the pile.

We find upon record, that in 1561 (3 Eliz.) the steeple was struck again and brought down (as supposed) by lightning which set it on fire about three yards from the top; and that, about thirty years after, an old plumber on his death-bed confessed that this accident did not originate, as was generally believed, from the fire of heaven; but from his own neglect, he having left a pan full of coals, and other fuel, in the steeple, when he went to dinner. In the space of four hours, the steeple and upper roof of the church and aisles were totally destroyed. Owing to the liberality of the queen, who gave a thousand marks in gold, and also a warrant for a thousand loads of timber felled out of her own woods and forests; and to the generosity of the bishop of London, who gave 861. 6s. 8d. of the dean and chapter, and of the citizens of the metropolis, besides other voluntary contributions, the whole amounting to 67021. 13s. 4d. before the month of April, 1565, all the roofs of timber were perfectly finished and covered with lead; but the steeple, though several models of excellent design were proposed, was not rebuilt. Several donations were also made under the reign of James I. and Charles I. towards the repair of the church; and in 1632 an order was signed to Inigo Jones, esq. surveyor of his majesty's works, to cause

inclosures and scaffolding to be set in hand, with direction to begin the repair at the south-east end, and to bring it along by the south to the west end; and soon after William Laud, then bishop of London, laid the first stone. It was not long after that the portico was erected, from the design, and under the direction, of Inigo Jones, who, having particularly studied the Grecian and Palladian architecture, conceived the heterogeneous idea of prefacing a Gothic building with columns and pillars of the purest Corinthian order. We are told that the portico was intended to be an ambulatory for such as by walking in the church disturbed the service performed in the choir.

A column erected at the expense of Edward Barkham, mayor of London in 1622, near the tomb of William the Norman, bishop of London under the reigns of Edward the confessor and William the conqueror, presented the following lines:

Walkers, whosoe'er you be,  
If it prove you chance to see,  
Upon a solemn scarlet day,  
The city senate pass this way,  
Their grateful memory for to show  
Which they the reverend ashes owe,  
Of bishop Norman here intum'd  
By whom this city has assum'd  
Great privileges; those obtain'd  
By him when conqueror William reign'd:  
This being by Barkham's thankfull minde renew'd,  
Call it the monument of gratitude.

The *walkers*, to whom the lines are addressed, were a most scandalous set of politicians, news-mongers, and all sorts of idle people in general, the *Otiosa Londinia*, who used to resort to the church, as a public piazza, to walk in hot or wet weather; a custom which obtained during the reign of James I. and Charles I. and which led to, and was followed by, depredations and profanations under the protectorate. We find in the *Microcosmographie*, 1628, the following droll description of it: "It is the land's epitome; or you may call it the lesser ile of Great Brittain. It is more than this, the whole world's map, which you may here discern in it's perfect'st motion, justling and turning. It is a heap of stones and men, with a vast confusion of languages; and, were the steeple not sanctified, nothing liker Babel. The noise in it is like that of bees, a strange humming or buzze, mixt of walking, tongues, and feet. It is a kind of still roare, or loud whisper. It is the great exchange of all discourse, and no business whatsoever but is here stirring and afoot. It is the synod of all pates politicke, joynted and laid together in the most serious posture; and they are not halfe so buise at the parliament. It is the anticke of tailes to tailes, and backes to backes; and, for vizards, you need goe no further than faces. It is the market of young lecturers, whom you may cheape here at all rates and sizes. It is the generall mint of all famous lies, which are here, like the legends of popery, first coyn'd and stamp't in the church. All inventions are empty'd here, and not few pockets. The best signe of a temple in it is, that it is the theeves sanctuary, which robbe more safely in the croud then a wildernesse, whilst every searcher is a bush to hide them. It is the other expence of the day, after playes, tavernes, and a bawdy-house, and men have still some oathes left to sweare here. It is the eares' brothell, and satisfies their lust and ych. The visitants are all men, without exceptions; but the principall inhabitants and possessors are stale knights, and captaines out of service; men of long rapiers and breeches, which after all turne merchants here, and trafficke for newes. Some make it a preface to their dinner, and travell for a stomacke; but thriftier men make it their ordinarie, and boord here verie cheape. Of all such places it is least haunted with hobgoblins; for, if a ghost would walke, move he could not."

Again; in a curious little volume of the time of Charles I. entitled "London and the Countrey carbonadoed,"



doed," is the following description of *S. Pauls Church*. "Oh domus antiqua, a fit object for pity, for charity; further reported of than knowne: it is a compleat body, for it hath the three dimensions of longitude, latitude, and profundity, and-as an excellent over-plus famous for height. It was a maine poynt of wisdome to ground her upon *Faith*, for thee is the more likely to stand sure: the great crosse in the middle certainly hath bin, and is yet, ominous to this churches reparation. S. Paul called the church the pillar of truth; and surely, had they not bene found, they had fallen before this time. The head of this church hath been twice troubled with a burning fever, [alluding to the steeple having been twice burnt;] and so the city, to keep it from a third danger, let it stand without a head. I can but admire the charity of former times, to build such famous temples, when as these ages cannot find repaire to them; but then the world was all church, and now the church is all world: then charity went before, and exceeded preaching; now there is much preaching, nay more than ever, yet lesse charity: our forefathers advanced the church, and kept their land; these times loose their lands, and yet decay the churches. I honour antiquity so much the more, because it so much loved the church. There is more reason to suspect the precise puritaines devoyd of charity, than the simple ignorant fraught with good workes. I thinke truly in this one point, the ends of their actions were for good, and what they aimed at was God's glory and their owne happines. They builded temples; but our degenerating age can say, Come let us take them into our hands and possess them. Amongst many others, this cannot be sayd to be the rarest, though the greatest. Puritaines are blown out of the church with the loud voice of the organs; their zealous spirits cannot endure the musicke, nor the multitude of the surplices, because they are relikes (they say) of Rome's superstition. Here is that famous place for sermons, not by this sect frequented, because of the title *the Crosse*. The middle ile is much frequented at noone with a company of *Hungarians*, not walking so much for recreation as neede; (and, if any of these meete with a yonker that hath his pockets well lined with silver, they will relate to him the meaning of Tycho Brahe, or the North Star; and never leave flattering him in his own words, and sticke as close to him as a bur upon a travailer's cloake; and never leave till he and they have saluted the Greene Dragon, or the Swanne behind the shambles—where I leave them.) Well, there is some hope of restoring this church to its former glory; the great summes of money bequeathed, are some probabilities; and the charity of some good men already, in cloathing and repaying the inside, is a great encouragement; and there is a speech that the houses that are about it must be pulled down, for Pauls church is old enough to stand alone. Here are prayers often, but sinister suspicion doubts more formal than zealous; they should not be worldly, because al church-men; there are none dumbe, for they can speake loud enough. I leave it and them, wishing all might be amended."

It seems that, in those times, little or no religious respect was paid to the basilica; for butchers' boys, porters of all sorts, and any body who wished to shorten their way, used to cross the church most indecorously; and the custom went so far, that the clergy thought that the best remedy would be to turn it to the profit of the poor. The following quatrain was therefore engraved upon a small iron-box near the northern entrance:

All those that shall enter within the church dore  
With burthen or basket must give to the poore:  
And, if there be any aske what they must pay  
To this bar, 'tis a penny ere they passe away.

In fact, the evil had long grown so glaring and so scandalous, that an act of common-council, which had passed in the beginning of the reign of Philip and Mary, stated, that of late years "the inhabitants of London, and other people repairing to Paul's church, have (and yet doe)

commonly use and accustome themselves very unseemly and unreyerently (the more the pity) to make their common carriage of great vessels full of ale and beere, great baskets full of bread, fish, flesh, and fruit, and such other things, fardels of stufte and other grosse ware of things, thorow the cathedral church of St. Paul's; and some in leading moyles (mules), hores, and other beasts, thorow the same unreyerently, to the great dishonour and displeasure of Almighty God, and the great grieffe also and offence of all good people." In consequence of which it was ordained, "that no person, either free or forraigne, of what estate or condition soever, doe at any time from henceforth carry or convey, or cause to be carried or conveyed, thorow the said cathedrall, any manner of great vessel, or basket, with bread, ale, beere, fish, flesh, &c. upon paine of forfeiture or losing, for every such his or their first offence, 3s. 4d. for the second, 6s. 8d. for the third, 10s. and, for every offence after the third time, to forfeit eight shillings, and to suffer two days and two nights imprisonment without baile or mainprife." It appears, by the nature of this ordinance, as if some difficulty was expected in putting the law into execution, as the possible repetition of offences is so minutely specified. But indecencies did not end here; for near one of the church-gates was the following caution in Latin: *Hicce locus facer est; hic nulli mingere fas est.*

This house is holy: here unlawful 'tis  
For any one against the walls to \*\*\*\*!

To several of the munificent contributions offered to the church in order that it might stand the undermining hands of time for many years, we must add the particular attention of sir Paul Pindar, knt. sometime ambassador for king James at Constantinople, who expended nineteen thousand pounds in the repairs of St. Paul's. He built the beautiful screen which separated the nave and transept from the choir; and indeed it was justly admired as a piece of excellent workmanship. On each side of the entrance-door, which was wide, lofty, and groined inside in an elegant manner, were four divisions ending in pinnacles, with as many statues of the Saxon kings, with foles and canopies most masterly wrought. The whole had a very solemn appearance, and drew much of its majesty from a large *parvis* of twelve stone steps leading from the chequered pavement of the nave up to the door of the choir—as faithfully represented in Dugdale's History of St. Paul's.

Sir Paul Pindar had brought over with him from the Levant a diamond valued at 30,000l. The king, James I. wished to buy it on credit; this the sensible merchant, one of the wise men of the east, most politely declined; but used to *trust* his majesty with it on gala-days. Charles I. however, could not rest till he got possession of this precious trifle, and bought it. James had appointed sir Paul farmer of the customs; and the citizen frequently supplied the monarch's wants. He did the same under the troublesome reign of his successor. Besides what we have mentioned before as spent for the repairing and embellishing St. Paul's, his charities were great; but our astonishment at his expenditure will cease when we consider that, in 1639, he was esteemed worth 236,000l. exclusive of bad debts. He was ruined by his connections with his unfortunate king; and it is reported that he suffered imprisonment for debt. It is said, that Charles owed him, and the rest of the old commissioners of the customs, 300,000l. for the security of which, in 1649, they offered the parliament 100,000l. but the proposal was rejected. He died August 22, 1650, aged 84. He left his affairs in such a perplexed state, that his executor, William Toomes, unable to bear the disappointment, destroyed himself, and underwent the ignominy of the now almost-obsolete verdict of *Felo de se*.

The house where sir Paul lived is now standing in Bishopsgate-street, a little below the church, on the same side of the way. It is remarkable for its antiquated look, by the









J. D. M. Quin del.

J. Chapman sc.

*South-view of the Chapter house of old St. Paul's.*

London Published Sept 1<sup>o</sup> 3 1846 by G. Jones.



the bow of the windows and their usual form. It is now a public house, having for its sign a head of the original owner. Sir Paul was early distinguished by that frequent cause of promotion, and indispensable accomplishment for a perfect gentleman at that time, a knowledge of languages, part of which he had acquired before, and part he had added during, his travels. He seems to have been prompted to lavish so much of his fortune upon the metropolitan church, from the circumstance of his having received at his baptism the name under which the cathedral had been dedicated.

In 1639, the total of the contributions remaining in the chamber of London, for the repairs of this venerable pile, amounted to 17,138l. 13s. 4½d. and, in 1643, to 101,330l. 4s. 8d. But the troubles and dissensions which soon broke out were the cause that no more than about the third part of that sum was laid out for the intended purpose. The long parliament having abolished bishops, deans, and chapters, the cathedral remained in a ruinous state; and all the crosses within and about London and Westminster were pulled down by order of the same authority. Thus this beautiful pile lay for many years, in the most lamentable condition. In the time of Cromwell's protectorate, it was made a horse-quarter for soldiers; the stately portico with Corinthian pillars (see Plate VI.) was converted into shops for seamstresses, cobblers, toymen and women, and other trades; the space from the ground being divided by a floor, to erect which the columns were considerably mangled and defaced. But shortly after the restoration of king Charles II. 1662, the fabric was cleansed, and made fit again for divine service.

But the church, thus repaired and beautified, was not long to remain. On the 3d of September, 1666, the great fire of London laid the whole in ashes. It is curious enough, that the famous author of French prophecies, Michael Nostradamus, has the following stanza, in his work printed at Lyons in 1556:

Le sang du juste à Londres fera faulte,  
Brûlés par foudres, de vingt trois les six.  
La Dame antique cherra de place haute;  
De mesme secte plusieurs feront occis.

Which has given to many lovers of such riddles to understand, that "it was a judgment of God Almighty upon this great city, for its rebellious actings against the late king Charles the martyr, and tamely permitting his open and shameful murder before the gates of his own royal palace."—However, it will always be with us an unravellable matter of surprise, that, when the people of London saw the rapid progress which the fire was making from the east towards the west, notwithstanding the fierceness of the flames curling over edifices, and hurried along by the eastern blast, they never thought of pulling down, or had not courage enough to fell at once, a thick mass of houses between the raging element and that venerable pile; it seems as if, panic-struck, the Londoners fled away, and remained at a distance, the tranquil though distressed spectators of the awful event.

The first thing designed, after this deplorable conflagration, was to fit some part of the church thus ruined for a choir, where divine service might be performed, until the repair of the whole, or a new fabric, could be accomplished. The west end, that seemed to have suffered least from the fury of the devouring flames, was selected, as it was supposed that it might with the least expense be made useful for that purpose; but, after several experiments upon the strength of the remaining walls and pillars, the plan was found impracticable. It was therefore resolved that the relics of the old building should be cleared away, and a new church built in the same place.

The crypt under the church had not suffered so materially from the rage of the fire. It was in length 165 feet, upon a breadth of 77 feet, within the walls, which were of a great thickness, measuring about eight feet within, and five without, the pillars attached to them. It formed a

parallelogram, and was supported by three ranks of massy pillars united in a cluster of four large and four smaller shafts, with foci, bases, and plain capitals; the ogee-branches and groins setting off in a grand style. It was a parish-church dedicated to St. Faith the Virgin, and called *Ecclesia Sanctæ Fidis in cryptis*, or in the *crypts*, according to the vulgar expression. It contained four chantries, which had been most lavishly endowed; besides two *guilds*, or fraternities; one in honour of St. Anne; the other in honour of Jesus. Several tombs were seen in the crypt; and in the church of St. Faith was the following quaint inscription; but upon whose monument we are not able exactly to ascertain. Stow seems to indicate that they were engraven on the tomb of William Lambe:

As I was, so are ye;  
As I am, ye shall be.  
That I had, that I gave;  
That I gave, that I have.  
Thus I end all my cost;  
That I left, that I lost.

The Chapter-house, standing on the south side of the body of the church, guarded by a strong wall, was begun anno 1332; the place where it stood at the destruction having been formerly a garden for the use of the dean and chapter. It was a most elegant structure; which consideration has induced us to present our subscribers with a view of its south aspect, with part of the cloister surrounding it, and the passage from the south transept into it. This cloister and passage were surmounted with a second story. See Plate VII.

Referring to the engraving, and considering the appearance of the eight shafts rising above the roof in the same direction with the three pinnacles upon the respective buttresses, and cut short, like the stalks of some plants, it seems as though the building was not finished, and as if the original plan and design were that the whole of this miniature yet beautiful fabric should have been surmounted by a steeple surrounded most elegantly by eight high-finished pinnacles, shooting from the fluted stems remaining at the time of its destruction. Nowhere perhaps more plainly than in this beautiful specimen of workmanship does it appear, that the whole principle of Gothic, or Norman, or as some will properly call it original English, architecture, is founded upon a close imitation of that strong and luxuriant vegetation which exists perhaps no-where in a greater perfection than in this fertile island. A few words will make this assertion plain to the dullest understanding. The bold roofs and lofty arches of our ancient cathedrals are copied from the green arbours of conventual walks; where, as we have often observed them in several church-yards, in the Charter-house garden, and other places, the high branches of towering elms or lime-trees meet at top, and vault over our heads. Their bold limbs, stretching in parabolic curves, gave an idea of ribs and groins. On the outside, and upon buttresses and pediments, the finely-wrought and elegant pinnacles represent the sprouts shooting from the *axilla* of leguminous herbage; the clusters and fascies of small columns, and their ogees, are found in the channelled and fluted stalks: the twisted and well-wrapped blossoms of some of the worts swell in the crockets; and the quaterfoils and cinquefoils, two favourite shapes in Gothic architecture, have their origin in the flowers that spangle the kitchen-garden. The spear-like endings of railings and cornices were borrowed from the leaf of spinnach, and the ivy and vine yielded their pliant and fantastic foliage to bind the head of slender columns united in clusters, or girdle the waist of Gothic capitals.

Every body knows that the monks were, in this country as well as on the continent, the architects of their own churches; and that most of the beautiful piles which are still the admiration of the world, were conceived and planned by their sacerdotal skill, and rose from under their cenobitic hands. The meditating religious, pensively walking



walking in the silent solitude of the garden which he cultivated, and to which he looked down as his support, could not help admiring the beautiful works of nature, luxuriating under his eyes in the conformation of vegetables, and applied them to the decoration of an art which had become the object of his serious attention and interesting study; whilst the stately trees, sheltering the garden from the northern blast and scorching south, had already furnished him with the plan of the whole construction. Indeed, if we consider attentively the shape, conformation, attitude, and habits, of several subjects of the vegetable kingdom; the apium or parsley, the different sorts of beet, the curling pease, the entrapping leaves of the poppy, the indented lettuces, and others; we cannot deny that the nearer the ornaments of Gothic architecture approach the fantastical drift of the growth of these plants, the sharpness of their edges, and the meandrous eccentricities of their combinations, the nearer the art approaches the purity of its original perfection.

At the east end of the church-yard, was the clochier, or bell-tower, containing four very great bells, called "Jesus Bells," as they belonged to Jesus-chapel, situated under the church, as mentioned above. On the top of the wooden spire erected above the belfrey was the image of St. Paul, all standing, till sir Miles Partridge, knight, temp. Hen. VIII. having won them from the king at one cast of the dice, for one hundred pounds, pulled them down; which sir Miles, afterwards (temp. Ed. VI.) suffered death on Tower-hill for matters relating to the duke of Somerset.

St. Paul's was encompassed with a wall, about the year 1109, which extended from the north-east corner of Ave-Maria-lane, eastward along Paternoster-row, to the north end of the Old Change, in Cheapside; whence it ran southward to Carter-lane, and, passing on the north-side of it to Creed-lane, turned up to Ludgate-street. To this wall there were six gates, the principal of which was situated near the end of Creed-lane in Ludgate-street. The second was at St. Paul's-alley, in Paternoster-row; the third at Canon-alley; the fourth, called the Little Gate, was situated at the entrance into Cheapside; the fifth, called St. Austin's, led to Watling-street; and the sixth fronted the fourth gate of the church, near Paul's Chain.

Godrick, abbot of Peterborough, had set the example of erecting crosses in church-yards, to put passengers in mind of praying for the souls of all the faithful interred there; and this custom, if not anterior to his time, 870, has been constantly followed in all Roman-catholic countries to this day.—In St. Paul's church-yard, a pulpit-cross was erected long before the reign of Richard II. by whose order it was repaired. From thence sermons were preached to the people; and under it the citizens of London used to converse, and hold the assembly called the folkmote. The last sermon preached at this place was before James I. who came in great state on horseback from Whitehall, on Midlent Sunday, 1620; he was received at Temple Bar by the lord-mayor and aldermen, who presented him with a purse of gold. At St. Paul's he was received by the clergy in their richest vestments. Divine service was performed, attended with organs, cornets, and sackbuts; after which his majesty went to a prepared place, and heard a sermon at the Cross, preached by John King, bishop of London. The object of the sermon was the reparation of the cathedral. The king and the principal persons retired from the Cross to the bishop's palace, to consult on the matter; and, after a magnificent banquet, the court returned to Whitehall.

From all parts of the church-yard and adjacent places the beautiful dial was seen. It was adorned with the figure "of an angel pointing to the hour, both night and day." From this expression we are led to suppose that the whole of the circumference upon which the hours were painted was in circular motion, in lieu of the hand as we have it now; for it is not easy to understand how the angel could be put in motion, and go round from one hour to the other. This sort of contrivance is now common, and

particularly in French time-pieces, where the hour-plate is in motion, and brings the hour to the index of a figure pointing at it.

Dugdale tells us, that there was "a chapel standing on the north side of the church-yard, in that very place where a stationer's house and shop, viz. the sign of the Rose," was situated in his time; and under it a vault wherein the bones taken out of ancient graves were decently piled together.—The most ancient grant upon record, in favour of this chapel of the dead, was in the beginning of the reign of Edward I. by the lady Dionysia de Montchenise, "who in her pure widowhood gave one quarter of good wheat to be paid yearly out of the manour of Aneſtie in Surry, for the support thereof, as also of the priests there celebrating divine service." If there be no mistake in the manuscript out of which this has been extracted by Dugdale, surely the priests of that æra must have lived much more scantily than they have done since, or the price of wheat must have been much higher in comparison with all other necessaries of life; but, if in reality the pittance granted was small, the example was great, and was soon followed by several rich inhabitants of the metropolis. In 1276, Henry de Edelmeton, a citizen of London, bequeathed six marks yearly to a chaplain, and twenty shillings annually for the maintenance of a lamp; the *perennis flamma* of which used to increase rather than dispel the gloom of the funeral chapel. This, and all it contained, could not escape the rapacity of the duke of Somerset, who dilapidated so many ancient buildings to get materials for his palace, since called *Somerset House*, in the Strand.—The bones, being deprived of their peaceful retreat in the vault underneath the chapel, were conveyed into Finsbury fields. They amounted to more than a thousand cart-loads, and were again deposited in the earth. From this great quantity of bones, and the soil thrown over them, rose a hill high and large enough to serve as a basis to three windmills, which had since been built there, and were in constant motion, over the bones of the dead, to supply food for the living. The destruction of the chapel happened in 1549.

Near the north door of the cathedral was another chapel, founded by Walter Sheryngton, clerk, chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster under Henry VI. He was one of the canons resident at the church; and, by an inventory of his wealth, it appears that he had in ready money at his death no less than the sum of 323l. 18s. 4d. which was kept in an iron chest in the vestry of the cathedral. He had also two standing cups of gold, with covers; the one weighing 33 ounces and one serylyng, the other nearly the same, of troy weight. He knew, however, how to make a good use of his money; for, on the west quadrature of the cloister surrounding Pardon-church-haugh, he began, and his successors perfected, a very curious library, containing many excellent books, all, of course, manuscripts, and several upon vellum most curiously illuminated; the catalogue of which existed in 1688, and was seen in the Hattonian library by Dugdale.

The *Pardon-church-haugh*, or *yard*, contiguous to the bishop's palace, and eastward of it, on the north side of St. Paul's, was a cemetery of great antiquity; for there stood a chapel founded by Gilbert Becket, portreeve of London in king Stephen's time, and father to the famous archbishop of Canterbury of that name, where he lay buried. This chapel was rebuilt in the reign of Henry V. by Thomas Moore, dean of St. Paul's, who also encompassed it with a cloister, on the walls of which was painted the Dance of Death; a common subject on the walls of cloisters, or religious places. This piece represented a long train of different orders of men, dancing into eternity, each having Death for his partner. A painting of the same kind, in the cloister of the Holy Innocents at Paris, gave birth to a poem, consisting of the speeches of the different personages, and the answers of Death, which was originally written in the German language by Machaber, whence the painting itself acquired the appellation



tion of the Machabray, or Machabre. From a French version of this poem, our old poet, Lydgate, made an English translation, of which each speech was given to its corresponding figure in the picture. Dugdale has preserved the stanzas belonging to each couple of partners in this church-yard dance; and we think our readers, who may not have his *Monasticon* at hand, will not be displeas'd with a few quotations from them.

"The Daunce of Machabree, wherein is lively expressed and shewed the state of manne, and how he is called at certayne tymes by Death, and when he thinketh least thereon.—Made by Don John Lydgate, monke of St. Edmunds Bury.

The Prologue.

O ye folkes hard-hearted as a stone,  
Which to the world have all your advertence,  
Like as it should ever lasten in one;  
Where is your wit, where is your providence?  
To see a forme the fodayne violence  
Of cruel Death, that be so wise and sage,  
Which slayeth, alas! by stroke or pestilence,  
Both young and old, of low and high peerage:

Death spareth not, low ne high degree,  
Popes, kings, ne worthy emperours:  
When they shine most in felicity,  
He can abate the softness of her flowers,  
Her bright sun clippen with his shours,  
Make them plunge from her fees lowe.  
Mauger the might of all these conquerours,  
Fortune has them from her whole ythrow."

&c. &c. &c.

Death speaks first to the Pope, who answers; then to the Emperor, then to the King, the Patriarch, and nearly to all possible descriptions of men, down to the lowest rank. The lines to the Minstrel are as follows:

"O thou minstrel, that can so note and pipe  
Unto folke for to dowe pleasaunce,  
By the right hand I shall anon thee gripe,  
With these other to gone upon my daunce.  
There is no scape, nother avoydance  
On no side to contune my sentence;  
For in my musicke, my craft, and accordance,  
Each maister is shewen his sentence.

The Minstrel maketh answer:

This new daunce is to me so straunge,  
Wonder divers and passingly contrary,  
The dreadful footing doth so often change,  
And the measures so oft sith vary,  
Which unto me is now nothing necessary,  
If it were so that I might asert.  
But many a man, if I shall nought tary,  
Oft daunseth, but nothing of hert."

We shall not extend our quotations farther, these being sufficient to give an idea of the style of our ancient poet Don John Lydgate. The other stanzas are exactly in the same mode, and many of them contain very severe sarcasms pointed at the folly of man who busies himself about all that is uncertain, thoughtless of that which is certain—Death, with whom he must sooner or later dance away from this temporary stage into eternity. It is a very common thing for the cloisters of convents upon the continent to be decorated with paintings calculated to remind the beholders of their latter end, placed at the four corners of the building. They generally represent the *quatre fins de l'homme*—Death, Judgment, Hell, and Paradise; four grand subjects which afforded the artists of the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth, centuries, ample scope to display their talents and indulge their fancy. We understand that a print, and the French distichs, from the cloister of the Innocents at Paris, is in one of the libraries at Oxford, and well worth the attention of the antiquary. It appears that from that, or rather from the one in the cloister we are now speaking of, the famous Holbein painted

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his large performance on the subject at Basle in Switzerland, his native town.

Farther to the west, and adjoining to the south wall of the church, not far from the Chapter-house, was the parish-church of St. Gregory. Over it was one of the towers which ornamented the western front. It was called the Lollards Tower, and was the bishop's prison for the heterodox, in which was committed many a midnight murder. That of Richard Hunn, in 1514, was one most foul; he was hanged there by the contrivance of the chancellor of the diocese, one Horsey; was scandalously accused of suicide, and his corpse ignominiously buried. The murder came out; the coroner's inquest sat on the ashes, and brought in a verdict of Wilful murder against Horsey and his accomplices. The bishop, Fitzjames, defended them. The king interfered, and ordered the murderers to make restitution to the children of the deceased, to the amount of fifteen hundred pounds. Yet the perpetrators of this villany escaped with a pardon, notwithstanding the king, in his order, speaks to them as having committed, what himself styles "the cruel murder." Fox's *Martyrs*, vol. ii.

The last person confined here was Peter Burchet, of the Temple, who, in 1573, desperately wounded the celebrated seaman sir Richard Hawkins, in the open street, whom he had mistaken for sir Christopher Hatton. He was committed to this prison, and afterwards removed to the Tower; where he murdered one of his keepers. He was at length tried, convicted, had his right hand struck off, and was then hanged. He was found to be a violent enthusiast, who thought it lawful to kill such as opposed the truth of the gospel.—The church of St. Gregory shared the fate of the noble pile to which it was annexed. The ground on which it stood was then laid into St. Paul's church-yard; and the parish has since been united to that of Mary Magdalen, Old Fish-street.

The re-edification of the church of St. Paul was hailed with gratitude and enthusiasm by the inhabitants of the metropolis and of the surrounding country, to which the noble dome offers from all points a most pleasing aspect, and, as it is jocosely said, "a land-mark" for all those who approach the metropolis.—Having given already an ample description of this majestic structure under the article ARCHITECTURE, vol. ii. p. 120-122. we shall merely add here what has not been, or could not be, inserted in that article.

As we seldom think of the fleeting progress of time, there are very few (comparatively) of the inhabitants of London who have seen the interior of St. Paul's cathedral with that attention which it deserves. They postpone satisfying their curiosity from day to day, and descend into the grave without having seen what they had every day at hand. Not so with foreigners and the inhabitants of the country: the appearance of the basilica at a distance, powerfully excites their desire of visiting it; and they feel at their arrival an irresistible impulse to enter its majestic portal. It is certainly a pity that the access to the interior should be bought for a few pence: much has been said, and perhaps too severely said, on that account; but objections of the strongest cast arise, and militate against opening the doors, promiscuously to every one without distinction. One of these objections is, that the monuments inside might soon suffer the same shameful and sacrilegious mutilations as the statues in the area before the church. The charges, however, are moderate; and the following is a sketch of the different curiosities which are exhibited in the interior of this noble fabric.

On entering the south door, there is a pair of stairs within a small door on the right hand, leading to the cupola; and the stranger by paying two-pence may gratify his curiosity with a prospect from the iron gallery at the foot of the lantern, which in a clear day affords a fine view of the river, of the whole metropolis, and all the adjacent country, interspersed with pleasant villages. The ascent to this gallery is by five hundred and thirty-four steps;



two hundred and sixty of which are so easy that a child may ascend them without difficulty; but those above are unpleasant, and in some places very dark; the little light that is afforded, is, however, sufficient to show amazing proofs of the wonderful contrivances of the architect. But, as the first gallery, surrounded by a stone ballustrade, and therefore called the stone gallery, affords a very fine prospect, many are satisfied, and unwilling to undergo the fatigue of mounting higher. In the ascent to the iron gallery, may be seen the cone of brick-work that supports the lantern with its ball and cross; the outer dome being turned on the outside, and the inner on the inside, of the cone. The timber-work, which at once supports the outer dome and the cone, is also worthy of inspection.

The visitor, on his descent, is invited to see the whispering-gallery, which will likewise cost two-pence; he here beholds to advantage the beautiful pavement of the church, and has the most interesting view of the fine paintings in the cupola, which are now going to decay. Here sounds are magnified to an astonishing degree; the least whisper is heard round the whole circumference; the voice of a person speaking softly against the wall on the other side seems as if he stood close to your ear, though the semicircular distance is no less than 140 feet; and the shutting of the door resounds through the place like thunder, or as if the whole fabric were falling. To this gallery there is an easy ascent for persons of distinction, by a most beautiful flight of stairs. The principle upon which this gallery is built appears at first very complicated; but, when we consider that sound, like light, produces always an angle of reflexion equal to that of incidence, we shall more easily comprehend the mysterious effect which has caused our astonishment. See also the article *ACOUSTICS*, vol. i. p. 89.

The stranger is next invited to see the library, the books of which are neither numerous nor valuable; but the floor, which is formed of 2376 small pieces of oak, is artfully inlaid, without either nails or pegs, and is not only neat in the workmanship, but beautiful in appearance; and the wainscoting and book-cases are not inelegant. The principal things pointed out to the visitor, are several beautifully-carved stone-pillars, some Latin manuscripts written by the monks eight hundred years ago, and an illuminated manuscript, containing rules for the government of a convent, written in old English about five hundred years ago; these, and some other manuscripts, are in very fine preservation. Over the fire-place is a portrait of Dr. Compton, the prelate that filled the see during the whole time of building the cathedral, who fitted up the library at his own expence, and gave it to the church.

The next curiosity is the fine model sir Christopher first caused to be made for building the new cathedral. It was not taken from St. Peter's, at Rome, as is pretended; but was sir Christopher's own invention, and the model on which he set the highest value; and it is greatly to be lamented that this design was not executed; the superiority of which becomes evident, on a comparison of the model with the building. It is of one story only, and, in every respect, much more simple than the cathedral; while, at the same time, it possesses all that elegance which results from the happiest union of simplicity and variety. Here is also the model of an altar-piece, which sir Christopher intended for this cathedral, had his plan been followed.

You are next shown the great bell in the south tower, which weighs 11,470 lbs. On this bell the hammer of the great clock strikes the hour; and on a smaller bell are struck the quarters. The great bell is never tolled, except on the death of one of the royal family, the bishop of London, or the dean of St. Paul's; and, when tolled, it is the clapper, and not the bell, which is moved. The clock-work is also very deserving of attention, both for its magnitude and the accuracy of the workmanship. The length of the pendulum is fourteen feet, and the weight at the extremity one cwt.—From this part a survey of the surrounding streets offers a very interesting spectacle.—The geometrical stair-case, as it is called, was a curiosity at

that day; and to some people, unacquainted with the principles of statics upon which it is constructed, it appears dangerous; the steps being formed of large stones, which seem to hang together without support. The visitor may not be aware, that the weight of the part of each stone concealed in the wall, and aided by an unseen corbel, is nearly double of that of the part projecting from it. This sort of construction is at present not uncommon.

The ascent to the ball is attended with some difficulty, and is encountered by few; yet, both the ball, and the passage to it, well deserve the labour. The internal diameter of the ball is six feet two inches; and it will contain eight persons.

The cathedral church of St. Paul is deservedly esteemed the second in Europe, not for magnitude only, but for beauty and grandeur. St. Peter's, at Rome, is undoubtedly the first; but, at the same time, it is generally acknowledged, by all travellers of taste, that the outside, and particularly the front, of St. Paul's, is superior to that of St. Peter's. The two towers at the west end, though faulty in some respects, are yet elegant, and the portico finely marks the principal entrance. The loggia, crowned with a pediment, with its alto relievo and statues, make, in the whole, a fine shape; whereas St. Peter's is a straight line, without any break. The dome is extremely magnificent; and, by rising higher than that at Rome, is seen to more advantage, on a near approach. The inside, though noble, falls short of St. Peter's. The discontinuing the architrave of the great entablature over the arches, in the middle of the aisle, is a fault which architects can never forgive. Notwithstanding, without a critical examination, it appears very striking, especially on entering the north or south door. The side-aisles, though small, are very elegant. If, upon the whole, St. Paul's does not equal St. Peter's, there is much to be said in defence both of it and the architect, who was not permitted to decorate it as he intended, through a want of taste in the managers, who seemed to have forgotten that it was intended for a national ornament. St. Peter's has all the advantages of painting and sculpture by the greatest masters, and is enriched with a variety of the finest marbles; no cost having been spared to make it exceed every thing of its kind. The great geometrical knowledge of the architect can never be sufficiently admired; but this can be come at only by a thorough inspection of the several parts.

It has been often remarked, and not without emotions of gratitude, that the architect of the metropolitan church should have, and yet has not, a monument in the bosom of this great proof of the transcendency of his mind, and of his unequalled skill in the art. This laudable wish would, however, defeat and set to nought the sublime idea which terminates the epitaph of this great man simply and modestly affixed to a pillar in a corner of the crypt. But Mr. Pennant very judiciously observes, "It is to be lamented that this beautiful thought should be flung away in the most darksome nook of the whole fabric;" where indeed it loses all the beauty of its possible application. "May we venture to suggest to the venerable chapter the propriety with which the inscription might be placed beneath the centre of the magnificent dome, on some elegant cenotaph, directing the eye to the intended object." We rejoice to find this liberal suggestion at length attended to by the present worthy dean and chapter, and the welcome hint, partly taken up in a manner which, as far as it has brought the excellent epitaph out of the shades into light, certainly does credit to the promoters and executors of the design. The inscription runs thus:

Subtus conditur,  
Hujus Ecclesiæ et Urbis Conditor,  
CHRISTOPHERUS WREN,  
Qui vixit annos ultra nonaginta,  
Non sibi, sed bono publico.  
Lector, si Monumentum requiris,  
CIRCUMSPICE.

Obiit 25. Feb. ann. MDCCXXIII. Æt. XCI.

Which



Which may be translated in the following words: "Beneath is buried the Builder of this Church and of the City, CHRISTOPHER WREN, who lived above ninety years, not for himself, but for the public good. Reader, if thou seekest for his monument, LOOK AROUND."

The sublimity of the thought which terminates the epitaph is too obvious to need expatiating upon; we are only surpris'd that the high-minded author should have amused himself with the trifling conceit and alliteration between the words "Conditur" and "Conditor;" a *jeu de mots* unworthy not only of the rest of the inscription, but still more so of its author, if it be, as Pennant asserts, the original conception of sir Christopher Wren's own son. The epitaph has been, within these few years, placed at the entrance into the choir, under the organ-loft. The letters are raised in brass gilt, on a large slab of white marble; and the whole is, of course, conspicuous; but perhaps more so from the novelty of placing such an inscription there, than from any other cause. Indeed, we must beg leave to say that it does not agree with the hint Mr. Pennant had given twenty years before on the subject. In the first place, the word "circumspice," which reminds us of the famous spondaic line of Virgil, (*Æn.* book xi.) where the preterit *circumspexit* expresses so well the slow and wondering look which Sinon casts around upon the Trojans who encircle him;—certainly this word supposes the reader to stand in the middle, or near the centre, of the edifice, and looking about; whereas the entrance into the choir is one of the most confined spots in the whole plan of the building, and chiefly one from which it is impossible to look around. Secondly, we do not recollect ever to have seen a funeral inscription over the door of a choir in any Gothic or Grecian edifice. Pennant intimates that a cenotaph might be placed under the dome; we should object most strenuously to this, unless he means nothing more than a flat stone level with the floor, as we are fully convinced that a raised monument would take much from the beautiful uniformity of the area. But we have an unexceptionable instance of an inscription round the inside of the lower part of a dome. No traveller of learning and of taste, who visits the famous basilica of St. Peter at Rome, ever fails to observe with how much grandeur, magnificence, and propriety, the well-applied quotation of the words of Christ, alluding to the formation of the spiritual and material church, runs round the lowest interior belt of the vast cupola. It is as follows: TU ES PETRUS, ET SUPER HANC PETRAM EDIFICABO ECCLESIAM MEAM. Which text cannot be translated otherwise than by the following words, in which the original Asiatic allusion entirely vanishes: "Thou art Peter, (the word in Hebrew means a *stone*;) and upon this rock (of stone) will I build my church." Now, if the sublime epitaph of sir Christopher Wren had been inscribed in this manner within the interior compass of the dome, between the whispering-gallery and the lowest plinth, in large brass letters, or under the cupola, on the ground, in a circular line around the open brass plate in the form of a rose, the reader then would have been not only invited, but literally forced, to "look around," and thereby to survey, as if unconscious, the more-than-mausolean grandeur of the monument which this great architect raised to his own and most deserving memory.

Perhaps a monument in honour of sir James Thornhill would not be unwelcome in this edifice. His paintings in chiaroscuro, within the cupola, were not without merit; but, we are sorry to say, are now considerably falling off from what they may have been a century ago. Some parts are even scaling off; and, if not properly restored, and soon, will vanish entirely from the distant eye of the beholder. We need not repeat here the well-known anecdote of his starting from the painting to the verge of the scaffold, to see the effect of a bold touch, and of his being in the immediate danger of falling from a tremendous height, when a friend, with a lucky presence of mind, threw a pencil or brush against the spot the painter was

looking at, and thus saved the artist's life by bringing him forward to a safer place.

It is reported that the contract he had made with the trustees, or rather with the dean and chapter, to paint the dome, was found, in the advancement of the work, to be inadequate to his expenses. He therefore applied for an increase of the promised reward; but found his employers deaf to his entreaties. However, he went on cheerfully, finished his performance, and then applied again. He received the same negative answer.—What could he do? An immense scaffold, a forest of timber, had been erected for the perfecting of the work; and upon such a system of geometry, combined with the plain carpenter's work, that it would have been a hard and unprofitable task for those who were strangers to it, to take it down piece by piece, to avoid the danger of being buried under the whole erection. Sir James left it standing. Application was made to him to have it removed: he now became deaf in his turn. They applied again; at last he required, for taking it down, such a price as might cover his expenses, and bring a proper reward for his art; observing, that in his bill he had charged for erecting a scaffold to paint the dome, but not for taking it down again. The parties were made conscious that the artist had been ill-treated; and the affair was amicably settled.—We cannot leave this subject without expressing most earnestly our wish, which is common with that of all those who look up to the paintings of the cupola, that they may either be repaired, or the subjects entirely repainted, preserving, out of respect for the original designer, the outlines of his compositions. But then we would advise to give up the idea of chiaroscuro. The dome is rather indifferently lighted: therefore, the more glowing the colours might be, and the more glaring the ornaments might blaze in burnished gold, the greater would be the effect.—Let our young and aspiring artists try specimens of that sort of painting; let them study the ceiling of the banqueting-house at Whitehall, and bring down upon their pallet the celestial flame which Rubens has lighted there; and they will soon find in the heads of the church a liberal patronage for their art. We are not in want of good artists; but they lack the opportunity of being properly employed.

Several years ago it was in contemplation to fill up the large squares which appear so naked between the pillars, and some other places originally intended for the reception of the works of the pencil; but, owing to an oversight apparently of little consequence in itself, the plan was frustrated.—The history of the transaction, with which we have been favoured by a person who was intimate with the parties at that time, and which is far from being generally known, is as follows.—Dr. Newton, bishop of Bristol and dean of St. Paul's, celebrated for his deservedly-esteemed Explanation of the Prophecies, had one day at dinner with him, Mr. (afterwards sir Joshua) Reynolds, and Mr. West, who was now entering his pictorial career with great éclat, (for he had already painted the death of general Wolfe, and several other subjects through which his reputation was rising and increasing.) In the conversation between them, the subject happened to be the church of St. Paul's; and they all regretted that the original plan of decoration, laid down by sir Christopher Wren, and brought before the public in a print then lately published, had been so long neglected, or that the execution of it had been suspended by certain puritanical principles which had been afloat among some of the heads of the clergy. The dean, most liberal in his manner of thinking, suggested, that the places left by the architect to be filled up with paintings, might now, without much opposition, receive their intended decorations. Mr. Reynolds directly offered to paint a Nativity, for one of the recesses; and Mr. West as promptly volunteered another subject for the opposite side: the design was, if we are not mistaken, the Dispensation of the Law to Moses—thus embracing at once the two principal epochs of the Old and New Testament. The dean, highly pleased at these

generous



generous offers from the two artists, took upon himself to obtain the consent of the trustees and guardians of the metropolitan church. He waited upon his majesty first, and received a most gracious assent. The archbishop of Canterbury had no objection to the plan; the lord-mayor was happy to find that the church would become properly adorned inside; and the chapter's consent was of course easily secured by that of the dean himself—but, unfortunately, the bishop of London, who had been privately informed of the business, was consulted last—and from this solecism in etiquette, the whole plan was entirely marred and fell to the ground—for the venerable prelate, pretexting some qualms of conscience, and the fear of introducing *popery*, as he called it, into the church of England, pronounced at once his potent and irrevocable *veto*: thus, by a slight error in formality, this beautiful pile remained deprived of the works of the chromatic art.—Meanwhile, Dr. Wilson, rector of St. Margaret, Westminster, had been putting up the famous and really-beautiful stained-glass window, which is still the greatest ornament of that church, and which he had bought in Flanders. Being acquainted with Mr. West, he deplored with him the failure of Dr. Newton's exertions about the pictorial decorations of St. Paul; and proposed to the artist the idea of placing a picture over the altar of St. Stephen, Walbrook, of which he was rector at the same time. The painter caught warmly at the proposition, and volunteered a painting to adorn this beautiful edifice: and thus to the disappointment at St. Paul's we owe the decoration at St. Stephen's, of which we shall speak in the proper place.

Since the publication of our article ARCHITECTURE, several monuments have been erected in the metropolitan church, in honour of some of our countrymen who fell in defending their country's rights, and who have contributed, by their exploits, to encircle, with unfading laurels, the brows of Britannia, and to produce (we hope a lasting) peace.—Much had sir Christopher Wren to contend against the prejudices existing at the time he built this noble pile, even to obtain that the twelve Apostles and four Evangelists might have their statues on the surrounding attic, as fit ornaments for the cathedral; and it was supposed at one time that the existing opinions would have prevailed against his plan, had he not strenuously protested against any farther deviation from it; and, indeed, had he been overpowered by the iconoclastic party, the church would have stood deprived of those appropriate appendages, the absence of which would have stamped it for ever as incomplete and unfinished. We happily live in milder days, and tolerance seems even to outdo, in one sense, what intolerance had performed in another. But, leaving these transitory observations, let us take a survey of the three statues and nine monuments which add considerable dignity to the naked walls of the interior of the metropolitan basilica.

The first statue, placed in remembrance of Mr. Howard, was introduced by proper feelings of humanity and gratitude towards this benevolent character, whose philanthropy prompted him to descend into the darkness of dungeons, to dare the dankness and unwholesomeness of places of confinement, in order to restore light and air, those two free gifts of heaven, to the wretches who had lost their liberty. For the life of this martyr to humanity, see vol. x. p. 433.—His statue, the work of the late Mr. Bacon, is, like all the rest, in white marble, and does great honour to the artist. Howard is represented standing, holding a key in his right hand, and one of his feet treading upon the irons which are usually seen on the hands and feet of prisoners. The basso relievo, on the front of the pedestal, is expressively allusive to his deeds of mercy; and the whole presents a majestic appearance. But if foreigners, if indeed our countrymen, should ask why he is dressed like a Roman general, will the hackneyed answer, that our modern costume is too scanty, too meagre, too frivolous, to give a proper scope to the sculptor's art, satisfy the enquirers? since in some of the other mo-

numents they will find glorious examples glaringly proving to the contrary.

The next, and in the opposite corner, is the statue of Dr. Johnson, a man who deserved well of his country as a profound philologist, and whose writings breathe uninterruptedly the mild spirit of morality, religion, and kindness to others. Here again it will be difficult to vindicate the whim of the sculptor, who has represented him like Euclid laboriously resolving one of his famous propositions, or, like Archytas, scratching his head, in sad disappointment, at the non-solution of some intricate problem. The sculptor was the same Mr. Bacon.—It should be recorded, to the credit of the dean and chapter of the cathedral, that, on application being made to them for permission to erect the first of these statues, they consented without requiring any fee for its admission; making it, however, a condition, that no monument should be erected, unless the design was first approved by a committee appointed by the Royal Academy; in order to prevent the introduction of any which might be discordant with the building, or incompatible with general propriety.

The third statue is that of sir William Jones, so deservedly celebrated for his deep researches into the laws and literature of the Hindoos. (See vol. xii. p. 250.) But his costume is as whimsical as that of the two preceding. He is invested with a curiously-ornamented sort of belt (and why a belt?) on the wrong side. The medallion on the pedestal is mysteriously connected with the Hindoo theology; and, as well as the statue above, executed in a manner to enhance the merit due to the chisel of Bacon.

The other corner is still vacant, and waits for the statue of some of our worthies.

In the left recess of the lobby leading to the entrance into the choir, rises most majestically the monument voted and erected to the marquis Cornwallis. It has been conceived by a great mind, and not less masterly executed. The noble marquis stands on a high pedestal, in a grave and commanding attitude, and his characteristic benevolence still lives in his features. He is habited in the robe and with the collar of a knight of the garter, thrown over a military uniform. Here we find elegance united with classicality; the dress of our own and of former times, supported by great taste in the folding and disposing of the drapery. Here no anacronism hurts the delicate eye of the beholder; and the whole shows that the adoption of the Grecian or Roman dress is less owing to the uncountness or frivolity of the modern costume than to the deficiency of taste and invention in the artist. The French sculptors in the middle of the last century, following blindly—*O imitatores, stultum pecus!*—certain absurd precedents, had exhibited the naked anatomy of the Nestor of their literature, Voltaire; a wonderful piece of art, but more fit for an academy of drawing, to teach the state of wrinkled skin, decayed muscles, and prominent bones, than to adorn an apartment in the Louvre—and indeed the whole was foolish with a vengeance, for it was carved out of a block of black marble.—The statue of Buffon, the historian of nature, was also naked, and often offended the sight of the company ascending the stairs of the museum at the Botanical garden. We believe that both these good pieces of sculpture have been removed to the Grande Gallerie, to keep company with other French worthies. But the taste of the people was soon disgusted; the rage for the *nud* began to wane; and we remember to have seen La Fontaine the fabulist, Moliere the dramatist, Lamoignon the lawyer, &c. &c. in the Cour du Louvre leading to the Exhibition of Pictures, and executed, by order, in the modern garb, with much more elegance than any of the nudities exposed before.—But to return, and we do return with pleasure, to the work of Mr. Rossi, the beautiful and well-conceived monument of lord Cornwallis. Before the pedestal, bearing a well-written inscription, stands, looking up with true feelings of regret at the loss of a protector and friend, an allegorical figure, with all the simplicity of natural grandeur, representing the Hindoo



Shoo nation. On the right sits Britannia in the awful majesty of grief; and, on the left, a nearly-colossal figure of a Gentoo chief holds in his hands some of his household gods, and sits musing under the man, who, when living, protected his religion and rights. The *tout ensemble* bears a striking appearance, and is one of the best and most classical of the works of sculpture lately admitted into the cathedral. Above is a small alto-relievo memorial of captain Richard Cooke, who fell in the battle of Trafalgar; and by its proportionable size, adding to the grandeur of the work beneath, fills up the whole of that side in a most ornamental and elegant manner.—The opposite recess or *quadro* contains the monument of captain George Duff, who fell in the same memorable action.

We now take the reader by the hand, and lead him to the western recess under the windows of the southern transept, where we place him before the glorious fall of the victorious Abercrombie, who won his glory and lost his life in the plains of Egypt, after having conquered and taken away the sacred standard of the invincible legion of Bonaparte. The likeness, we know, is excellent; the soldier, holding the chieftain as he faints, is correctly drawn; the dead French warrior still grasping the lost standard under the fore feet of the prancing horse, adds fulness and pathos to the group; but the colossal sphinx on each side has too great an appearance of stiffness and unlocality. Had the monument been erected in a square, or on one of the piers of our new bridges, they would certainly have been better situated than in the house of God, in a christian church, where equestrian statues are seldom, and should still seldom be, seen. However, it is a fine group; and does great credit to the artist, Mr. Westmacott.

Were we not afraid of being prolix, (but who should fear to expatiate too long upon the monuments of men who died for their country, the only means we have of perpetuating their past existence to the eyes and gratitude of posterity?) we might say a great deal more upon these works of art; yet the nature of our publication whispers to us that we must not indulge ourselves too long. We therefore proceed to the monument in honour of lord Howe. The first of June will long be a glorious epocha in the naval history of England: and this fortunate event is well recorded in the monument before our eyes. Upon a pedestal, and before the hull of a ship, sits Britannia in her Pallas-like dress, with, as usual, her helmet on her head, and a spear in her hand: before her, on the fogle, stands the noble figure of lord Howe, in a modern dress, and not less elegantly costumed on that account. We cannot exactly bring our mind to the likeness, as he does not look so advanced in age as he was at the moment of his death, being then seventy-four years old; or even at the moment of his splendid and decisive victory, at the battle of Ushant, which the figure of Fame, attended with that of Victory, records upon the pedestal behind him. These two female figures are elegant in shape, pleasing in attitude, and add a considerable degree of interest to the whole group; which does honour to the inventive faculties and manual skill of Mr. Flaxman, the sculptor of this monument, which stands opposite to that of sir Ralph Abercrombie, and makes a noble and counterbalancing companion to it.

The next to which we would lead the reader, is that of captain Bugefs. It is simple, consisting of two figures only; the hero, and Victory, who is in the act of presenting him with a sword. The pedestal is fully and classically adorned with bas-reliefs alluding to naval achievements; and the inscription is penned with elegance and truth. This monument is the work of Mr. Banks, and does him credit: but we think, with much submission, that the Antinous-like figure of the captain is too naked for an English protestant church.—This slight incongruity sinks before a greater one in the opposite monument, erected in honour of captain Faulknor, who is represented dying in the arms of Neptune, whilst Victory places a wreath of laurel on his

head. The same delicacy which opposed the external exhibition of the statues of the twelve apostles and four evangelists, as we remarked above, would have been shocked at the idea of admitting internally one of the first of the heathen gods, making the most prominent figure in the group. We are not without our objections to the figure of Victory, which we find nearly every-where; but yet, although she had also her temples among the pagans, she was not classed among the real, or supposed really-existing, inmates of Olympus; we therefore accept her as a being merely allegorical, like Prudence, Temperance, Justice, Strength, and other virtues, who have long received their tickets of admission into sacred painting and sculpture; and, with them, have passed unrepulsed into our churches. However, the anatomical part is such as we should have expected from the knowledge of Mr. Rossi; and we are truly pleased at the fine contrasts in lines and attitudes, which give so majestic an appearance, and throw so great a pathos upon the whole. The undaunted bravery of the naval chief is well expressed in the unsophisticated inscription upon the pedestal.—These two were erected in the year 1804.

The figure of Sensibility, which makes a prominent feature in the monument voted to the bravery of major-gen. Dundas, seems as if hewed out of alabaster; and indeed the delicacy of her visage, and the sweet expression of her mild countenance, so harmoniously contrasted by that of Victory on one side and the beautiful infant on her right, deserve our unrestricted praise. The whole composition is feelingly conceived; yet, the memorial of the hero being expressed merely by a bust insulated upon its pedestal, does not exactly tally with a certain desire for a greater uniformity in the group. The principal object to be represented should never become in any degree subordinate. The chief has here done justice to the design; and if the mind, in the eagerness of its enraptured thoughts, has failed in a single particular, the hand has created beauties enough to compensate the fault. It is the work of Bacon.

Thus far, in our critical survey of these monuments, we have had to perform the pleasing task of praising, except in a very few instances, where, if we have animadverted upon defects, it was merely in order to warn others against similar incorrectness. But, standing before the monument of captain Westcot, we are really and painfully obliged to avert our eyes, lest the severity of our remarks should appear ill-natured or invidious.—Two figures compose the group—the hero, and (the inseparable) Victory. The hero falls in the arms of the winged female; and the female, as if overcome, is in the act of falling also; a composition which is the more unfortunate, by standing in comparison with those which we have just noticed. We cannot reconcile our sight to this unnecessary *decadence*; and we sincerely wish that the apparently-falling group should *really* fall, and another be placed instead of it.—We therefore turn round, and stand for a few minutes before the well-conceived cœnotaph erected to the memory of captains Riou and Mofs. The sarcophagus (before which two angels, or genii, as the visitor is at liberty to call them, hold two medallions of the departed warriors) is in an elevated situation, and classically shaped. The whole is of a rich and truly sepulchral taste; and would not have disgraced the monuments on the Via Appia, or the main road to Agrigentum. This is placed under the east window of the northern transept, and does honour to Mr. Rossi, the author of it.—The opposite recess is vacant; but, when it is filled up by a monument, and when a fourth statue is placed opposite to that of sir William Jones, the whole of this part of the noble transept will be complete, with the exception of a few quadri at top, which seem to long for some basso-relievos to rid them of their nakedness. Several other places in the nave and round the choir are open for monuments; and, when the sword shall be beat into a plough-share, according to the elegant expression of the prophet, when Peace shall revisit the earth, we hope to see those places



consecrated to the tranquil manes of our worthies in the milder efforts of literature and of the fine arts.

We ought not to quit the inside of the cathedral, without mentioning the manner in which the stalls are disposed in the choir, for the dignitaries and prebendaries.—On the south side of the choir, the first stall at the west end is that of the Dean. This dignified title is now in the possession of the bishop of Lincoln, whose house or deanery is in Dean's court, on the south side of St. Paul's churchyard. The entrance to the court is under an archway, the front of which is ornamented in an elegant style with entablatures and festoons, and a noble balcony supported by well-adorned corbels. The dean is waited upon, and conducted, by a vergers from his house to the church at a quarter before ten, and a quarter after three.—Opposite the stall of the dean on the north side is that of the Archdeacon of London.—The second stall on the south side is that of the Archdeacon of Essex; and opposite is that of the Præcentor.—The next on each side are without superscription.—The third belongs to the Treasurer, that on the other side to the Chancellor of the church.—The names of the following stalls on each side are very singular, and were obtained upon particular occasions, which it would be too long to enumerate. The fifth is called *Finsbury*, opposite to *Tottenhall*; the seventh *Holbourn*, opposing *S. Pancratius*; the fourteenth *Oxgate*, opposed to *Consumpta per mare*.—The nineteenth stall on the south side is the seat of the Bishop; and, opposite, that of the Lord-mayor.—The twenty-third stall belongs to the Archdeacon of Colchester; and opposite is that of the Archdeacon of Middlesex.—The number of stalls is thirty-one on each side; and most of them have a superscription, that is, the first words of a Psalm in Latin; as, *Benedictus Dominus Deus—Beatus vir qui non abiit*—which the prebendary “is in duty bound to repeat daily in private, to the glory of God, and for more fully answering the intent of the founders and benefactors hereunto.” *New View of London, 1708.*—The bishop's throne is adorned with two columns, finely carved, of the Corinthian order, and various other embellishments: his seat is surmounted by a niche; and above, among doves and palm-branches, two cherubs support a mitre. The lord-mayor's stall has also its ornaments: they consist of flowers and bunches of leaves; and in the centre two boys sustain the city-mace.—The happy intertexture of lime-tree with waincot, give to the whole of the work a rich and elegant appearance.

Having now surveyed the inside of St. Paul's, and referred the reader to our general description of the building in the article ARCHITECTURE, we make our exit at the west door, and descend a majestic flight of steps into a large area, well-paved, and surrounded by a railing of iron more solid than elegant; because, being by contract repainted at certain periods, it is done so lavishly with three thick coats of colour, that the natural size of the spindles goes on increasing at such a rate that they bid fair to touch each other in the course of half a century. From this place the eye is naturally directed towards Ludgate-street and hill; but unfortunately the view is distorted by a twist which all the ingenuity of sir Christopher Wren could never avoid. He was bound to place the fabric according to the cardinal points of the compass, and to lay the altar-part of the church towards the east, in conformity with all, or nearly all, Christian edifices. Indeed an attempt had been made to open a street directly in a line to the west front through the buildings directly opposite; and Crescent-place, in Bridge-street, was begun as a sort of invitation to the perfecting of that plan; for it is exactly in the direction; and, were it not for the great quantity of useful ground which must be sacrificed in that case to the alteration, and the difficulty, nay the impossibility, of carrying the intended street much farther in a straight line without meeting the river, it certainly would be a most desirable improvement, since it would display the unrivalled beauty of the majestic portal of the British metropolitan church,

The part which is on the north and south side of the edifice eastwards from the north and south porticos is used as a cemetery for the parishes of St. Gregory and St. Faith; and an old tree on the north-east corner, that has long stood the severity of the stormy winds, which generally rage around the lofty heights of the noble pile, waves still as an ornament to the place, and brings to the thinking mind the melancholy recollection of the numbers of mortals who now sleep in cold clay under its annually-verdant boughs. Single and alone, it stands as an undecieving mark for the neighbours to come sooner or later to rest from their toils under its shade; and, by its nodding in the air as they pass by, seems to beckon their bodies to the place of repose, while its head, towering in the skies, points out where their better part will speed its flight after death.—Fond of immortality, and cherishing the idea of surviving himself, man has always been ready to surround his sepulchre with perennial plants and evergreen trees, as if, when the body has crumbled into dust, the soul might steal itself away from the unutterable joys of heaven, to visit the lonely place where its remains, its *inanes exuvie*, lie neglected or unknown, and feel an increase of happiness at finding them situated in what, during its sublunary life, was called an agreeable and pleasing spot. Thus, and consequently to this opinion, let it be ever so erroneous or at least doubtful, the box and yew trees, with the cypress, have obtained the honour of shading, with their never-fading foliage, the mansions of the dead—and thus many of our fellow-creatures did, and now-a-days still do, select, while alive, a *pretty place* to lay their cold and unfeeling bones.

But let us cease this mournful strain, and consider attentively, *if worth our while*, the monument which has been erected there to queen Anne, under whose reign St. Paul's was perfected; and which to the passengers appears to stand most awkwardly, as it does not seem, at first sight, to be in a central direction with the portico of the church.—We shall not stain our pages with the insertion of a trivial epigram alluding to the situation of the statue; but shall rather most seriously notice the apparent want of respect and attention in those to whom the care of such a monument properly belongs, in permitting that the foolish frolic of a drunken sailor (as it is reported) should have doomed the poor image to be *neglected* for ever. A nose, or even the whole of the head, nay, all that is there, might be easily made better, and more creditable to the guardians and trustees of the church, with half the money bestowed upon civic dinners or fetes.—This monument of national gratitude to the queen has little more than national gratitude to recommend it; for, although it has been praised by many writers, it cannot bear the near inspection of an eye well exercised in the survey of works of art.—We read in several authors, who have idly copied each other, that this piece of statuary is executed in white marble. We write with the object nearly under our eyes; we have examined it minutely, and we find that the whole is of stone, without any pretension to appear like marble. The statue of the queen is awkward, bending ungracefully forward; and the body appears as if cased most uncomfortably in a stone sheath. The pedestal has no bas-reliefs nor ornaments; and is of an indecipherable form, unless we may be understood in calling it a sort of parallelogram with swelling sides. Britannia, holding a spear in her right hand, is sitting directly below the right foot of the statue; and her left supports a shield with the arms of England, impaling Scotland, and quartering France and Ireland. On the other side sits France in a robe embroidered with fleurs-de-lis, holding a mural crown in her left hand; the other, which is now no more, was, if we judge from the situation of the arm, in the attitude of holding a flag or staff, the greater part of which has disappeared. Ireland, who retains the wrecks of her broken harp; and America, with a mutilated lizard at her feet, one of which treads upon a sculptured head, (the meaning of which we have not been able to unravel;) are placed at



at the eastern front of the pedestal. These four figures have shared the misfortune of the statue above; for, except France, (whose nose has been only bruised and grazed by the stony storm that seems to pelt incessantly at those poor damsels, and the remains of which are seen on the steps, mingled with broken arms, hands, and fingers,) they are all noseless. Some authors have declared these figures to be the work of Mr. Hill, who made the colossal statues of the apostles; while Pennant asserts that this monument "rose from the chisel of Francis Bird; as did the Conversion of St. Paul in the pediment, and the bas-reliefs under the portico." As the workmanship or design is not calculated to reflect much honour on the artist, we shall leave the question *sub judice*, undecided; not, however, without intreating the trustees and guardians of this majestic basilica to order that this monument may be repaired, and an end put at last to its unseemly and scandalous appearance.

On the north side of the church-yard is a handsome edifice belonging to the cathedral, and called the Chapter-house. In this building the convocation of the province of Canterbury formerly sat to consult about ecclesiastical affairs, and to form canons for the government of the church. But, although the upper and lower house are still called together by the king's writ at every session of parliament, yet they are always prorogued as soon as they have chosen prolocutors, and before they can have time to proceed to any kind of business. It is not generally known, that, on the day after the opening of a new parliament, the clergy of St. Paul's, the vicar-general, and proctors, being convoked in the choir, the service is then read entirely in Latin, and a Latin oration pronounced from the pulpit. This custom must have been very strictly enjoined by some deeds, and probably under pain of forfeiting great estates; so that the bishop, dean, and chapter, have not yet been able to rid themselves of this glaring remain of the popish liturgy.

On the west side of this house is Paul's alley, leading to Paternoster-row, and well known on account of the Chapter coffee-house, which has long been, and is still, a place of resort for literary men, and principally clergymen. All newspapers of note, and weekly as well as monthly publications, are kept there in great order, and brought in files as soon as they are called for; so that this house is visited as much perhaps on account of the food which it brings to the mind as for that which it offers to the body. The late excellent Dr. Buchan, author of *Domestic Medicine*, was a constant visitor here for the last twenty years of his life. So regular was he in his attendance, that by some he was called a *resident*, by others a *fixture*. To the short and imperfect account of this worthy character in vol. iii. p. 481. (and which, moreover, has appeared only in the later editions of that volume,) we shall add a few particulars.—Dr. Buchan, at an early period of life, had a turn for medical studies, and, even while a boy at the grammar-school, was accustomed to act in the capacities of surgeon and physician to the whole village. He repaired, however, to the university of Edinburgh, with a view to the study of divinity. But his theological pursuits were soon interrupted by a predilection for the mathematics, which proved more congenial to his mind. In this branch of science he soon acquired such proficiency as to be frequently employed as a private tutor to some of his fellow-students who were less precocious than himself. He was thus at once enabled and induced to continue at the university during a period of nine years. This long residence naturally led to an intimacy with many of the students of medicine, who constitute the majority of those who frequent that celebrated seat of learning. He at the same time obtained considerable proficiency in botany, which delightful department of science continued to furnish a source of amusement for many years of his life. Dr. Buchan at length dedicated himself wholly to medicine; and enjoyed a familiar intercourse with all the celebrated professors of physic, particu-

larly the late Dr. Gregory, whose liberal opinions concerning medical knowledge probably had considerable influence on his own future views and conduct. In consequence of the invitation of a fellow-student, who had settled in Yorkshire, the doctor joined him for some time in the practice of his art. A new incident tended not a little to extend his fame and improvement. On a vacancy for a physician to the Foundling Hospital, then established and supported by parliament, at Ackworth, he declared himself a candidate, and was elected, after a public competition or trial of skill with ten professional men. While here, he laid the foundation of that knowledge of the diseases of children, which afterwards formed the subject of his inaugural dissertation, when he returned to Edinburgh to take a degree as doctor of physic. The title was, *De Infantum vita conservanda*; it was much approved by the professors at that time, and now constitutes the substance of the first, and, as he used himself to think, the best, chapter of that popular work, *Domestic Medicine*. On his return to the capital of Scotland, for the purpose alluded to above, he courted the eldest daughter of Mr. Peter; on his union with whom he received a competent portion, and, in addition, formed some very respectable connections, the lady in question being related, by means of her mother, to the family of Dundas, of which the present lord Dundas is the representative. He soon afterwards returned to resume the duties of his station at Ackworth, where his eldest son, now in London, practising as a physician, was born. The doctor remained there until the institution itself was annihilated. Parliament withdrew the sixty thousand pounds annually voted for its support, in consequence of which the whole fabric tumbled to pieces. On this, our young physician returned to Edinburgh, where he practised for several years with success, and occupied his hours of leisure in composing the "*Domestic Medicine*; or, a Treatise on the Cure and Prevention of Diseases by Regimen and Simple Medicines." This was first published in 1770, and dedicated to sir John Pringle, then president of the Royal Society, with whom he was in some measure connected by his wife's family.—The very general diffusion, as well as great celebrity, of this work, having rendered the doctor's name exceedingly popular, he determined to try his fortune on the wider theatre of London. His success was at first very flattering; and, could he have withstood the allurements of company, which his convivial talents always enlivened, and considered the healing art merely as a lucrative profession, he might undoubtedly have amassed a large fortune. But he too frequently preferred the society of an agreeable friend at the Chapter to the calls of business, the importunities of patients, and the pursuit of wealth. He however exerted himself at times; and a little before the memorable revolution in France he repaired to Dunkirk, where he restored a rich merchant to health, after his case had been relinquished as hopeless by all the French physicians. His *magnum opus*, the *Domestic Medicine*, has experienced a sale far exceeding that of any other medical work ever published in this island. It has gone through no less than twenty-one editions, many of which consisted of six and seven thousand copies each; and still enjoys as extensive a circulation as ever. In addition to this, it has been frequently republished in America, and has been repeatedly imitated, copied, and pirated, in various ways, as well as under different forms, both in Ireland and in this country. It is translated into every language of Europe, and even into the Russian. The reputation of the author appears to have been still greater on the continent than in his native country. From the late empress of Russia, the munificent rewarder of every species of merit, he received a large medallion, of pure gold, with a complimentary letter, written at her imperial majesty's express command by the chancellor d'Osterman. He also received many other complimentary letters, some of them accompanied with liberal presents, both from individuals and societies in several of the West-India Islands, expres-



five of their sense of the many and great advantages derived from his work. The leading trait of the doctor's character was benevolence and good-will to men of every description, if we except the apothecaries. That class of people he considered as degrading the science of medicine, by converting it into a sordid calling, and too often preventing any good that could be expected from it, by loading the stomach of the patient with drugs, without having previously formed any just idea of the nature of the disease. This benevolent temper, which could never resist the call, or even the appearance, of distress, greatly injured the doctor's pecuniary circumstances; although it is now ascertained, that, even in his latter years, he was in the annual receipt of considerably more money than any person imagined. Dr. Buchan possessed a pleasing exterior, a fine countenance, great suavity of manners, and an astonishing fund of amusing anecdotes, which he told in such a manner as to delight his associates. Both the figure and face of the author of the Domestic Medicine must be allowed to have been not only peculiarly interesting, but to have also displayed all the characteristics of masculine beauty. In form he exceeded the common standard; his features were animated with a vivid glow of health; he possessed the eagle's eye, and even the eagle's beak, if a fine aquiline nose may be so denominated; while his person, tall, athletic, and well-proportioned, exhibited an union of strength and symmetry. When age had "silvered o'er his head," it acquired a new dignity, still mingled, however, with grace, and resembled those highly-wrought performances which we sometimes find copied from nature, and transferred to canvas, by the pencils of the old masters. He also enjoyed that grand desideratum, an excellent constitution; and never experienced any serious illness until within a year of his death, when his health began at first to decline, but gradually, and without precipitation. It has been already mentioned, that the doctor, at an early period of his life, exhibited a marked predilection for mathematics. To this it may be added, that he also had a great taste, while at Edinburgh, for astronomy; and employed many hours of his life in attaining a precise knowledge of the laws which regulate the planetary system. With these he joined a pursuit, which, although it may grace, yet but seldom accompanies, graver studies. This was a taste for poetry, cultivated assiduously, and with success, at his leisure moments, until the latest period of his life. Even to his last hour, he lighted up incense at the shrine of the muses; for Dr. Buchan, like Cornaro, the able Venetian—an author who also wrote on health—employed his pen, and was in full possession of all his faculties, when almost an octogenarian. The disorder which proved fatal, at length assumed an alarming appearance, and indicated symptoms of water in the chest. He never once complained, or showed any apprehensions of death, of whose approach he was, however, perfectly sensible, and even frequently spoke of the event without emotion. He was abroad on the very day previous to his death, which occurred on the 25th of February, 1805, at nine o'clock in the evening, in an attempt to reach his bed from the sofa, where he had just been reclining, and talking in his usual placid manner. Even the last scene of his life was peculiarly felicitous, having expired without any previous confinement, in the full possession of all his faculties, without any considerable degree of pain, and almost without a groan. Thus died Dr. Buchan, in the 76th year of his age.—The life of this physician will constitute an epoch in the history of medicine. Since the first appearance of the Domestic Medicine, pharmacy has in a great measure been rescued from the jargon of a barbarous technology, and the regular-bred and meritorious practitioner distinguished from the vile retailer of spurious compounds. The science itself has also been laid open, simplified, and diffused; so that the most useful of all arts, by constituting a branch of general education, will become at once better known and more respected.—The offspring of Dr. Buchan consisted of three children, two of whom survive him.—His

remains were interred, on Wednesday the 6th of March, 1805, in the cloisters of Westminster Abbey, next to those of the celebrated Dr. Jebb.

On the east side of St. Paul's-church-yard, stands St. Paul's School, founded by Dr. John Colet, the dean, whose monument was in the ancient church. See p. 401 of this article; and, for particulars of the doctor's life, see vol. iv. p. 770, 1.—This school was founded in the year 1509; and the rules for the government of it must have been the study of a considerable portion of time. Fortunately, Erasmus had afforded us a minute description, which Dr. Knight has translated from the Latin for his excellent history of the foundation; and from which we shall select the needful particulars. "Upon the death of his father, when by right of inheritance he was possessed of a good sum of money, lest the keeping of it should corrupt his mind, and turn it too much toward the world, he laid out a great part of it in building a new school in the church-yard of St Paul's, dedicated to the child Jesus; a magnificent fabric, to which he added two dwelling-houses for the two several masters, and to them he allotted ample salaries, that they might teach a certain number of boys free, and for the sake of charity. He divided the school into four apartments; the first, viz. the porch and entrance, is for catechumens, or the children to be instructed in the principles of religion, where no child is to be admitted but what can read and write. The second apartment is for the lower boys, to be taught by the second master or usher. The third for the upper forms, under the head master; which two parts of the school are divided by a curtain, to be drawn at pleasure. Over the master's chair is an image of the child Jesus, of admirable work, in the gesture of teaching, whom all the boys, going and coming, salute with a short hymn. And there is a representation of God the Father, saying *Hear ye him*; these words being written at my suggestion. The fourth or last apartment is a little chapel for divine service. The school has no corners or hiding-places, nothing like a cell or closet. The boys have their distinct forms or benches one above another. Every form holds sixteen; and he that is head or captain of each form has a little kind of desk, by way of pre-eminence. They are not to admit all boys of course, but to choose them in according to their parts and capacities."

The wife and sagacious founder left the perpetual care and oversight of the estate, and the government of the school—not to the clergy, not to the bishops, not to the chapter, nor to any great minister at court; but amongst the married laymen of the company of mercers, men of probity and reputation. And, when he was asked the reason of so committing this trust, he answered to this effect: "That there was no absolute certainty in human affairs; but, for his part, he found less corruption in such a body of citizens than in any other order or degree of mankind."

The dean's statutes for the government of the school are prefaced by an ardent wish that children should be taught regularity of conduct, and a knowledge of literature. That he might perform his part, he resolved to found the school of St. Paul, for one hundred and fifty-three children to be taught "free in the same."

The office of high master requiring great abilities in its possessor, he very justly defines what are the qualifications necessary: "A man hoole in body, honest and vertuous," learned in pure Latin and Greek, a man either single or married; a priest "with no benefice with cure," or any impediment which might prevent or divert his attention from the duties of his situation. His lodgings were to consist of the whole story over the hall and chambers, and a "littel middle chamber in the howse-roofe," now yclept a garret, and a gallery, with "all the fellere bynethè the hall, the kytchin, and buterye." He received his furniture, and his wages were a mark per week, with a gown annually of four nobles value. When ill of an incurable disease, or far advanced in age, he was to be dismissed with a pension of 10l. but, if he resigned voluntarily, twelve months'



months' notice was required. If the master had a life of convalescence in illness, his salary was continued, and the sur-master officiated for him, for which he had a reasonable compensation from the high master. The dean bestowed his house at Stepney on the office. The attainments of the sur-master are required by the dean to be equal to those of the high master, and he vests his appointment in that officer. The surveyors attended at the school when the master presented his assistant to them, and they charged him to execute his duty faithfully on pain of dismissal. He lodged in the Old Change, and his salary was 6s. 8d. per week, with a gown like the high master's. He was to dine with him if convenient. And, when decay and age rendered the sur-master unfit for the office, the worthy dean recommended him to the charity of the company of the mercers. His notice of resignation was six months only. If both masters were ill of any contagious disorder, the founder orders the school to be shut, and the salaries of each continued; neither of them is permitted by the statutes to enjoy "lecture or professorships." A poor child was to keep the school clean, and sweep it on Saturdays, "and also the leads;" and the mercers to repair it. The chaplain was to be an honest virtuous priest, appointed by the mercers. "He shall also learne, or yf he be learned helpe to teache in the school." The dean requires that the chaplain should have no preferment or other occupation; that he teach the children their catechism, and instruct them in the articles of the faith, and commandments, in English. He was to hold his office only during good behaviour, and to have but one vacation in the year, and that not without permission from the surveyors; to be clear of all diseases when chosen; but to enjoy his salary of 8l. during illness. His gown was valued at 1l. 6s. 8d. and he lodged either with the master or in "the Old Chayn." This priest said mass every day in the chapel, and prayed "for the children to prosper in good life and in good literature, to the honour of God and our Lord Christ Jesu." And, at "his masse, when the bell in the scole shall knyll to sacringe, then all the children in their seats shall, with lift-upp handes, pray in the time of sacringe. After the sacringe, when the bell knylleth agayne, they shall sitt downe agayne to their boke learninge."

The dean permits the children admitted to be of any nation; and mentions that they must previously read, write, and be capable of repeating their catechisms. The high master is permitted to receive 153 (alluding to the number of fish taken by St. Peter, John xxi. 11.) with the trifling sum of four-pence admission-money, which he orders to be given to the poor scholar who swept the school. Each child finds his own candles of wax; for those of tallow are expressly forbidden.

He directs that one scholar shall preside on every form, and that the teaching commence at seven in the morning, continue till eleven; re-commence at one, and terminate for the day at five, "with prayers in the morninge, none, and at eveninge." He allows neither eating or drinking in the school, cock-fighting, "rydinge about of victorie," and no holydays, or "remedyes," (play-days,) under a penalty of 40s. from the high master, unless commanded by the king, the archbishop, or bishop, at the school *in person*. The scholars were to attend at St. Paul's on Childermas-day to hear the boy-bishop's sermon; when at high mass every member of the institution was to offer one penny to the said boy-bishop. The boy-bishop was one of the choristers of a cathedral, chosen by the rest to officiate from St. Nicholas-day to the evening of Innocents'-day, in the habit of a bishop; and, if he died in the interval, was buried in that habit. During their processions, the boys were to repeat seven psalms, and the Litany, in a devout manner, "and not singe out." If a person, having a son at this school, was so indiscreet as to permit him to attend any other, expulsion, without a possibility of re-admission, ensued.

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The dean was rather at a loss what he should appoint to be taught; but he determined that the Greek and Latin languages should be pure, and neither of them read from those authors whose works were not classical, eloquent, and polished. He perceived the abuses which had rendered the latter almost unintelligible, and expresses his indignation against the innovators very bitterly. Christian authors are recommended in preference to the heathen; and for the Latin rudiments his own *Accidens*, then *Institutum Christiani Hominis*, which that "learned Erasmus made at my requeste," with the *Copia* of Erasmus; Laſtantius, Prudentius, and Proba; and Sedulius, Juvenius, and Baptista Mantuanus. He gives the direction of the institution to the mercers, and charges them to appoint eleven persons annually, free of the company, as "surveyors of the scole." These men are to receive the rents of the endowments, and transact all affairs relating to them and the school. The dean then bestows 20s. per annum on the renter, and a gown of 13s. 4d. value; and commands the surveyors to pay the different salaries in the school quarterly. When the annual accounts were audited, he allowed "a littell dinner ordeyned by the surveyors, not exceedinge the pryce of fower nobles," three days before or after Candlemas. The "master-warden" of the mercers to have a noble if present, and the other wardens 5s. each. The surveyors 2l. per annum, and the same sum if they rode to visit the lands. The leases of the lands were not to exceed five years. Finally, dean Colet solemnly charges the company of mercers to guard and promote the interests of the foundation for ever, to the utmost of their ability, as they fear the just vengeance of God for neglecting them; and to make such other regulations for the governance of the school as time and circumstances may render necessary, with the advice and assistance of "good lettered and learned men."

Dr. Roberts, says Malcolm, has been so good as to inform me, that the captain of the school leaves it at Easter with an exhibition, which is not confined to any particular college, amounting to 40l. per annum for four years, and 50l. for three succeeding years. This is tenable with any collegiate preferment except a fellowship. There are twenty-seven exhibitions belonging to this valuable seminary. The lands and tenements given by the munificent founder for support of the school were of the annual amount of 118l. 4s. 7d. The manors were in Buckinghamshire, those of Benrich and Vach in Barton. According to Dr. Knight, the dean estimated the annual expenses of the school at 79l. 8s. 4d. and the annual overplus at 38l. 16s. 3d.

The ancient school was burnt down in 1666. It was rebuilt in 1670 by the mercers' company, under the particular direction of Robert Ware, warden of the school. It is a very handsome, though singular, edifice. The middle building, in which is the school, is of stone; it is much lower than the ends, and has only one series of windows, which are large, and raised to a considerable height from the ground. The centre is adorned with rustic, and on the top is a handsome pediment, in which are the founder's arms placed in a shield; upon the apex stands a figure, representing Learning. Under this pediment are two square windows, and on each side are two circular windows, crowned with busts, and the spaces between them are handsomely ornamented in relief. Upon a level with the foot of the pediment runs, on either side, a handsome balustrade, on each of which is placed a large bust, with a radiant crown between two flaming vases. In the front of the building are written these words: SCHOLA CATECHIZATIONIS PUERORUM IN CHRISTI OPP: MAXIMI FIDE ET BONIS LITERIS. The buildings at each end are of brick, ornamented with stone. They are lofty and narrow, consisting of three stories, each story of three windows; the central windows are arched, and those on each side rectangular. A fourth central window is continued above the cornice, supported with scrolls; and over that a balustrade.



Upon the whole, St. Paul's School is certainly a good building, and would be an excellent contrast to the cathedral, if the street between them had been a hundred feet wide instead of thirty or forty. The north wing, consisting of large and elegant apartments, are occupied by Dr. Roberts, who has been head-master near fifty years; the south, equally commodious, are those of Mr. Wood, the fur-master or principal usher. Mr. Edwards, whose office supercedes that of the ancient chaplain, resides in the Old Change, east of the school-room, which contains at the south end an elevated chair carved with some taste, with dean Colet's arms, and the mercers' company's crest inclosed in a wreath of flowers. An old bust of the worthy dean has been recently copied by the late Mr. Bacon in statuary-marble, and the attitude improved, which is placed above the high-master's seat. This admirable artist has given the features all that animation and expression which belonged to his chisel beyond any of his contemporaries. Dr. Roberts has inscribed over his throne, *Intendat animum studiis et rebus honestis*. On the left side of the chair is a white marble bust of the late high master, Mr. Thicknesse, quite in the style of an ancient Roman, which was placed there by a voluntary contribution of his grateful scholars. The motto at the entrance-door is, *Doce, discere, aut discede*; "Teach, learn, or depart." A mild imitation of what we read in the school-room at Winchester: *Aut discere aut discede; manet fors altera, cædi*; "Learn or depart; or else your lot is to be flogged."

It is most probably in allusion to this important trust which Colet had placed in the worshipful company of mercers, that the front of their hall in Cheapside is so elegantly ornamented with the statue of Charity and several other figures, emblematical of education, with children holding wreaths of flowers, &c. &c.

We are now to speak of that most ancient school which was founded, probably not less than seven hundred years ago, for the young singers, or choir-boys, belonging to St. Paul's. It is an almost-universal error to suppose that these boys receive their education in St. Paul's school, or, more properly speaking, in dean Colet's school; and this natural supposition, arising from the dean's foundation being so near the eastern end of the metropolitan church, has hitherto tended, in a great degree, to prevent any enquiry into this interesting subject.—We are able to assure our readers, that the singing-boys, or choristers, are so far from enjoying the privilege of an education in the present grammar-school, or even of having any right to it, that, by the regulations of Colet's school, they cannot be admitted, we are told, even as a favour; and for this reason, that liberal provision has been made for the classical education of the cathedral-boys. Upon this hangs such a cloud of doubts since the reign of Elizabeth, that whoever will not make a laborious and special search into ancient grants and deeds, nor choose to wade through the thick dust of mouldering MSS. in the muniment-house of the church, (if indeed admission can be obtained,) must be content with a very inadequate knowledge of the matter. Our intention is to trace out the distinct features of each of those schools, and to show that, although Colet seems to have leant towards the prospect of connecting both, by enjoining to the boys of his foundation (as we have noticed above) to make an annual offering to the *Episcopus puerorum*, or boy's-bishop, at St. Paul's, who, by a well-known old and odd practice, used for a limited time to act as a monitor to the choristers; yet both schools are distinct from each other. The alleged fact was, we suppose, a mere condescension, in order that Colet's boys and those of the cathedral might meet in their amusements on the appointed day of frolic and rejoicing.—If the reader will refer to the *fête des fous* in France, and to other strange nonsense anciently practised in this as well as other countries, he will find that our suggestion is most probably right. (See Strutt's Sports and Pastimes, p. 253.)—We shall now state what historians impart to us about the

school founded specially for the choir-boys belonging to the cathedral of St. Paul.

It must be previously observed, that, anterior to the reformation under Henry VIII. no chapel or chantry was instituted to have masses and obits performed in it, without the annexing of one or two boys, in order to make the responses at the altar, and sing the versicles after the anthems. This constant and laudable custom has been, in catholic countries, the origin of several foundations which are still existing. The boys were placed under a master, whose duty was to teach them singing and grammar-learning, and to take great care that their conduct should be irreproachable. Indeed, in those (now commonly called superstitious) times, it would have shocked the feelings of devout persons, to find ministering at the altar, boys of bad morals, and who might occasionally be called out to sing unbecoming songs at playhouses and concerts. They were placed next to the priest at the performance of the awful mysteries of the Eucharist, and were occasionally allowed to handle the holy vessels used in the sacrament of the Lord's supper. Considering this in the point of view in which it was seen at that time, we must think it very natural that endowments should have been provided for the salary, care, and instruction, of those boys, who were generally selected out of poor families, but who were thus expected ultimately to become worthy of being admitted into holy orders. These were the very seeds that stocked the seminaries; and from these humble beginnings arose, in time, the whole glory of the universal Christian church.

If we concentrate our ideas on this point, we shall find, that the once-celebrated grammar-school attached to St. Paul's cathedral, was designed "especially" for the education of "the boys belonging to that church;" and that it has been co-eval with, if not previous to, the final establishment of the choir. A priest could not say mass without somebody to give the responses and to minister near him; and boys were generally selected for that purpose.—In fact, and independently of all arguments of congruity and probability, the antiquity of the school erected for the boys of St. Paul's has been acknowledged by the earliest writers.—Fitzstephen, who calls himself *Stephanides*, in his Latin description of London, partly given in some of the editions of Stow's Survey, mentions three schools of this description; that of St. Paul's, of Trinity-church, and of St. Martin. A master, of course, was appointed to superintend the education of the boys; and the first, whose name appears on record, held the important trust in the reign of Henry I. about the year 1120, (nearly four hundred years before the foundation of dean Colet's school.) At this time the school seems to have been supported by the bishop and the dean, from the general funds of the church, without any special endowment. Richard de Belmeis, then bishop of London, who, though very active and liberal himself, seems to have done nothing (*nihil facere visus*) when compared with his predecessor and successor, conscious of the necessity of the establishment, granted to Hugh the school-master, and to his successors in that employment, a residence adjoining the cathedral; and at the same time the custody of the library was given in perpetuity to the masters of the school; an additional proof of the sedulous care which was taken to place good, trusty, and learned, men at the head of the choir-boys. The succeeding master was Henry, also a canon of the cathedral, to whom the same generous patron made over the tithes of Ealing and Madeley, and added an estate at Fulham to the mastership of the school. We find also that in the reign of Richard I. Richard Nigel, bishop of London, gave unto this school all the tithes arising in his demesnes at Fulham and Orsett; and in the two following reigns the mastership was enriched with new donations. Such was the respectability of the Magister Scholarum, that about this period the title was merged in that of Chancellor; under this new appellation,



lation, both the duties and emoluments of the office were enlarged; and the tithes of the parish of Ealing were confirmed to it by Ralph de Baldock in 1308.

We find in Dugdale's History of the cathedral, that the habitation for the school-master was at the corner of the bell-tower, or clocher, as stated in Richard de Belmeis's grant concerning that school, the original of which is in the muniment-room. Dugdale adds to this, "which doubtless is the place where the school-master of Paul's school (he means Colet's) dwelleth at this day," (1658.) This circumstance has also contributed to confuse our historians in their account of what is commonly called St. Paul's school. There is little doubt but the site of the original school, and of the clocher to which it was an appendage, is now occupied by St. Paul's school, that is, dean Colet's foundation—since which, the choristers do not seem to have been so properly attended to, as to their education, both moral and religious, as might be wished.

We have mentioned that the school for these choir-boys was endowed as early as the reign of Henry I. and its revenues were considerably augmented in the reigns of Richard I. Henry III. and Edw. II. These endowments cannot have become less valuable, but much more so. This school-property remained untouched through all the persecutions of the church. It was spared by Henry VIII. nor did the reformation make any material alteration in the situation of the choristers; and in Cromwell's time, when all other cathedral-property was seized by the usurping powers, a particular exception was made (Ordinance of the Parliament, Oct. 9, 1646.) in favour of all revenues assigned to the purposes of education; and the office of almoner was also spared by the ordinances of the same parliament which abolished every other dignity and office in cathedral-churches.—It is to be added, that the liberal provision made for them was not bounded by their utility in the choir, as separate estates were bequeathed for their maintenance after they had lost their treble voices.

The school, thus amply endowed, is frequently mentioned with honour in our ancient annals; and seems to have been particularly celebrated during the 16th century. In the reign of Elizabeth, it appears that this and probably most other schools of similar foundation were kept within the church; and in the middle of the next century every cathedral still supported its grammar-school, according to ancient usage. Since the reign of Charles II. it is difficult to continue the history of this school. If the heads of the cathedral would allow access to the records in the muniment-room, we might determine on what occasion the scholars were separated from the master, and what are at present the recoverable rights of the school under the guardianship of the chancellor. If they refuse, it can only be done, we suppose, by application to the lord-chancellor, to order those records to be produced; and this is at present a subject of legal enquiry. From a pamphlet respecting this ancient school, not published for sale, we hope to be excused for extracting some of the preceding and following particulars.

The case seems to be this.—To the repeated augmentations granted to the Magister Scholarum, we may ascribe the declension of the school. That the ancient and original revenues of the foundation were amply sufficient for its maintenance may be inferred from the high rank of those who have held the situation of master. But, when this office was still more richly endowed, the incumbent became a personage too important to fulfil the duties of it himself: these were afterwards performed by a deputy, and at length not performed at all—and the responsible situation of Magister Scholarum became a sinecure under the name of Chancellor.

According, however, to numerous ancient statutes, strengthened by very long usage, the choristers of St. Paul's seem to be entitled to their board and education both musical and classical. To their morals also a scrupulous

attention is repeatedly enjoined; and their protection is committed to no fewer than eight persons, holding offices in the cathedral charged with that duty. Indeed the boys belonging to this church have had extraordinary and minute attention paid to their interests and to their morals. The precentor and succentor are responsible for their musical attainments: The music-master is charged to watch over the moral conduct of his pupils. There are two *cardinals* (an office known in no other protestant church) to superintend their conduct and that of their masters; to attend to their behaviour during divine service; to instruct them in their religious duties; and to report their progress to the chapter. The almoner is bound by the statutes to have a resident clergyman in the almonry to instruct the choristers in literature, or to send them to St. Paul's School (not Colet's) to be instructed by the cathedral-school-master; and so scrupulously is he required to guard the innocence of these youths, thus dedicated to the service of the church, that the statute enjoins him to place them under a careful conductor in their walks, and even in going to school. *Liber Statutorum*, MS. Harl. 4080. *Malcolm's Lond. Rediv.* vol. iii.—The superintendence of their classical education is consigned to the chancellor of the cathedral. It is his duty to keep the school-house in repair, and to appoint a virtuous and learned man as their grammar-master.—"The chancellor of this church, in old records called Magister Scholarum, is scribe or secretary of the church and chapter. In St. Paul's school, *not that long after founded by dean Colet*, but that school which in old time did belong to this cathedral church, he is to appoint a fit master, whom he is to present to the dean and chapter; and is to keep in repair the school-house at his own charge." *Newcourt's Repertorium*, 1708.—"The master of the grammar-school is to be an honest man, and well learned. He is to teach the boys, especially those of the church, grammar and good manners; and he is to be to them, not only a master of grammar, but of virtue also." *Ibid.*—This charge is now totally neglected by the chancellor; by whom no master is appointed, no school-house provided. Yet the chancellorship retains the house and lands in Fulham, the rectories of Boreham and Ealing, several tenements in St. Paul's church-yard, and two pensions from Fulham and Orsett. *Bacon's Liber Regis*; and for farther particulars, see N<sup>o</sup> 302 and 1019 of the Lansdowne MSS. and, in the additional MSS. at the British Museum, vol. 5068, 5081, 5097, and 5099.—In the reign of Henry VIII. the chancellor paid in to the chamberlain or treasurer of the cathedral one-third of his annual receipts—it may be presumed for the expenses of the school.

Till the year 1800, the singing-boys were boarded, and partly educated, from the funds of this richly-endowed cathedral. From 1800 to 1813, they received a small annual salary in lieu of board and education. At the beginning of the year 1813, Mr. Sale resigned the offices of music-master and almoner, and Mr. Hawes succeeded; since which time the four senior boys are boarded, at the expense of the chapter, in the house of that gentleman. What farther may be done remains to be seen, as no decree has been (June 9, 1814.) pronounced by the higher powers. The idea of a boarding-establishment, grammar-master, writing-master, &c. may naturally startle the parties on account of the expenses, which must be paid from funds long appropriated to other purposes. But we take the liberty to suggest, that a house belonging to the estates of the cathedral, and by all means near the cathedral itself, might be appointed for the music-master and almoner, with such an addition to his salary as might enable him to board the remainder of the boys. In that case, there would be less objection to their attending concerts, as the music-master would commonly be with them in the way of his profession, and as it would tend greatly to their improvement. And, though we have mentioned that these boys are indirectly excluded from dean Colet's school, yet there is little doubt but an



amicable arrangement might be made for their admission and classical education there.

The right of the abbey-choristers to their education at Westminster-school was nearly extinct; but has lately been recovered for them by the exertions of their music-master, supported by one of the members of the choir. We do not mean to notice this as a case in point. Dean Colet's school is a private foundation; and the dean had a right to make what exceptions and exclusions he thought proper; or to leave such discretionary power, *clearly and fully expressed*, to the mercers' company. We have only indulged a hope, that a friendly arrangement might be made.—And we now take leave of the subject by observing, that the present enquiry may probably lead to a more general investigation into the rights of the choir-boys in every cathedral in the kingdom; and particularly in that of Winchester, in which city there is (as at Westminster) a royal grammar-school, in which the young choristers have a right to their education, commons, &c. in lieu of which, they are allowed a very few shillings per week for their maintenance, as was the case at St. Paul's; besides their education at a common day-school. That these boys are under the *authority* of the head-master of Winchester-college is evident from this—that, if in his walks he finds any of them doing any mischief, or behaving improperly, he will inquire their names, and send an order to their school-master to flog them; and, in certain cases, the late Dr. Warton has been known to require the culprit himself to bring him a note from the said school-master, testifying that execution had been performed!

We now return to our survey of St. Paul's church-yard.—The ground of this church-yard, though at first sight it appears level when you consider it from the top of Ludgate-street, is very far from being so; for the last step of the south portico is about ten or twelve feet higher than the same on the north side; which difference is owing to the slope of the hill upon which the church is built. *Panier-alley*, a passage from Paternoster-row to Newgate-street, is said to be the highest point of the hill; and, having consulted one of our antiquaries on the subject, he most readily sent us, with a sketch, the following interesting remarks, which we shall lay before our readers in his own words.

“After the fire of London, as it is called by way of eminence, had laid waste the greatest part of the city, it was natural for every one to measure the spot where the destroyed property formerly stood, in order to rebuild the houses and churches according to the deeds and leases; but more especially when the re-edification of the metropolitan church came under serious consideration. It was the intention, and a very wise and proper one, of Sir Christopher Wren, to place the beautiful edifice he had conceived and designed on the highest ground on the hill between the valleys of Fleet-ditch and Walbrook, but still as near as possible to the spot where the Gothic fabric which the fire had devoured formerly stood. In consequence of this, several measurements were made from the level of the Thames at low water; and the result was, that in a little passage from Pater-noster-row to Newgate-street, they found the highest point of the arc described by the hill. It is probable also, that, from this circumstance, some persons, wishing to preserve the information they had accidentally obtained, caused a stone to be cut, and the statement to be engraved upon it; and, in order to attract the attention of passengers in this narrow lane, they annexed to it a sort of bas-relief, representing a boy upon a basket, which had probably been placed somewhere as a sign in allusion to the name of the alley. This hypothesis acquires strength from the consideration of the following points. 1. The alley was called *Panier-alley* in the time of Stow, (that is, about 1598,) who mentions it in his Survey, and says that it had received this denomination from a “signe.” Had the present little monument existed then, he would no doubt have mentioned it. 2. The inscribed stone and the boy and panier above ap-

pear nearly coeval. 3. The panier and the boy have no allusion to the height of a spot of ground. Hence it follows, that the bas-relief and the stone under it had no connection with each other before the year 1688; and that the bas-relief was not made antecedently, but consequently, to the adopted name of the alley. Now, if we consider the figure of the boy and the basket, as they are, (not as they have been represented in the engraving annexed to Pennant's London, where only one hand of the boy appears, the other being concealed by the left leg,) we shall find, that the whole has nothing to do with a sepulchral device, as this celebrated author most unwarrantedly supposes; for, upon a near and strict inspection, we perceive that the boy holds some grapes or other fruit in his fingers. This particularly induces us to conclude, that the panier he sits upon is a fruit-basket; an idea which the man who afterwards sculptured the inscription-stone to support it seems to have entertained, since he has ornamented the sides with fruit and leaves. Before Blackfriars-bridge was built, the Surry gardeners used most probably to bring the produce of their labours, as they do to this day, in small barges to the stairs between the wharfs opposite to St. Paul's—Paul's-wharf, Puddle-wharf, &c. and then, in their way to Newgate-market, to pass through, and rest themselves in, that short passage—the avenue by Ave-maria-lane being crowded by those who landed at the bottom of Ludgate-hill, in Fleet-ditch. Probably also, there was in this passage a public house, at the door of which they laid down their fruit-paniers, leaving their boys to watch them while they were drinking within. This number of baskets with boys sitting upon them gave a name to the alley, occasion to the sign mentioned by Stow, and rise to the bas-relief now in existence. This is the most probable origin we can suggest; and we must adhere to it till we are furnished by some keener antiquaries with a better explanation. However, some might suppose that the next house had been for many years, as it is now, occupied by a baker; and this idea was brought to our mind at the moment we took the sketch (which appears on Plate VII *b.*) for a baker's basket full of bread was standing by the side of this little interesting piece of antiquity, which has been so often besmeared with coarse paint, that the merit of the workmanship is hardly perceivable. We now conclude, that this sculpture was likely to represent, in allusion to the boys' sitting on their fruit-baskets, at the door of the wine-vaults, a little Bacchus squeezing grapes in his hands. We should not have been so prolix on this subject, had we not thought it material with regard to the highest spot of the city-ground. The sketch for the plate was made on the 24th of January, 1814. The steps represented in Pennant's London have disappeared; and, if the ground has been raised and buried them, we must naturally conclude that the spot is still higher than when the inscription was made. It has been conjectured also, that the boy was picking a thorn from his foot! A mere inspection of the figure, or of our engraving which is correct, will contradict this.”

The general appearance of the church-yard is elegant, rich, and grand; and the access to it is noble and easy from Watling-street and Cheapside on the east, but rather steep from the south and west by Paul's Chain and Ludgate-hill. Besides these openings, there are several others: Dean's-court from Great Carter-lane, and two narrow passages from Little Carter-lane; and London-house-yard, Canon-alley, and Paul's-alley, from Pater-noster-row. These last admit no carriages: they are like veins, the others like arteries, serving for the communication of the rest of the body with the heart of the city. Except such as take Newgate-street in their way, all those who from the great extent of habitations on the west are attracted to the focus of business, the Bank, the Royal Exchange, the Corn-market, the East-India House, and all the Docks, must cross the church-yard in their way to their respective offices or places where the grand mover, interest, calls them

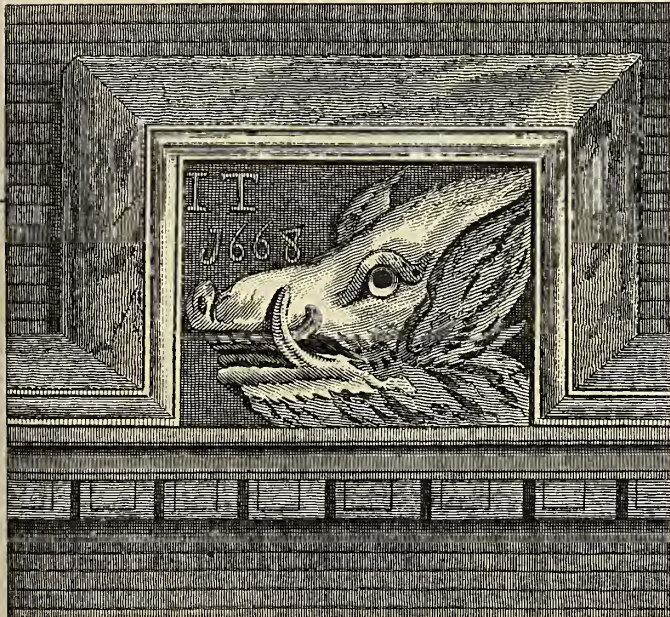




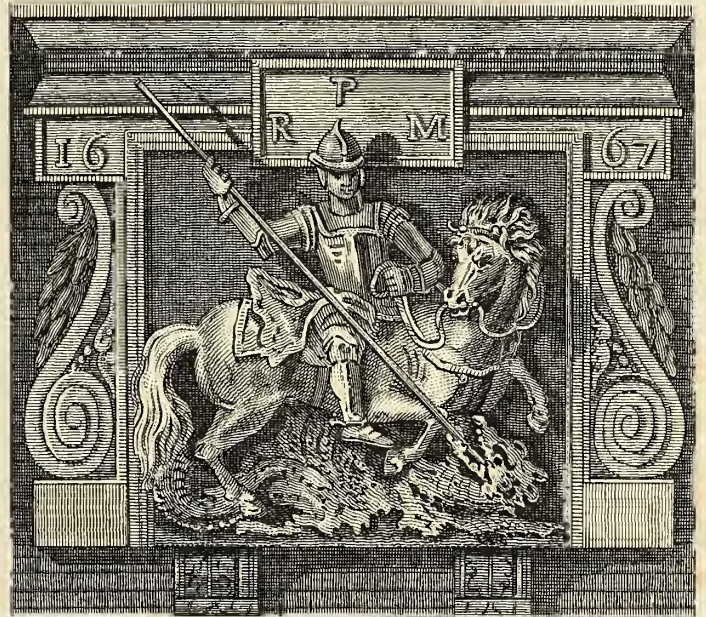
*Panier-Alley.*



*Pic-Corner.*



*East-Cheap.*



*Bennetts-Hill.*

*Antiquities of the 17<sup>th</sup> Century.*







them irresistibly from all parts of Westminster, and even ten miles further back in various directions. This great oscillation, like that of the tide, takes place twice a-day, morning and evening; and it is curious to see the same faces at nine and at four, at eight and at seven, hurrying along, and pacing every day at the same time, the northern and southern pavement of the church-yard. The stationary shopman on Ludgate-hill or Fleet-street, while dangling at his shop-door in expectation of a customer, not unlike the immovable rocks in the sea, witnesses the passing currents and heaving surges of the multitude; and perhaps sighs for a walk, whilst some of the passengers are longing for a share of his sedentary life.—There are also two other sets of beings oscillating in the same manner through the church-yard; the beggars and the cyrians. Actuated by the same motive as the others we have mentioned, namely, interest, they however keep a slower pace, conscious that they shall get more by loitering along than by hastening away.

Besides these moving scenes, on both sides of the yard, we have also some fixed ones. The old blind Israelite selling spectacles and shoe-strings, the young one offering his red and blue slippers, and the street-warblers generally well attended at dusk, when pickpockets and sharpers look out of their hiding-places to seek for prey. As for the first whom we have mentioned, the blind old man, who has sat every day ever since the year 1764, that is for the space of half a century, near the steps of the Chapter-house, with his snug Welsh wig, his well-set box of trinkets on his knee, and attended by his faithful wife, we missed him for some time during the late frost; and, as he was one of the fixtures of that part of the church-yard, it occasioned the writer of this, anticipating his final departure, to make him the subject of a parody, in a London church-yard, of Gray's admired Elegy in a Country church-yard.

Haply some wonted passenger will say:

“ Oft have we seen him sitting on his stool;  
Brushing, with hasty hand, the dust away  
From shoe-strings black and many a ivory tool.

There near the shade of yonder nodding tree,  
That shoots its old fantastic boughs so high;  
His well-cramm'd box he would set on his knee,  
And gently call on those that hobbled nigh;

Hard by yon steps, which high-bred church-men tread,  
Muttering his wayward fancies to his guide;  
Now scratching bare his Welsh wig to a thread;  
Or groping for his old stick at his side.

One morn we miss'd him at the 'custom'd spot,  
Along the yard and near his fav'rite railing;  
Another came—and there we found him not  
Nor at the steps, nor walking up the paling.

The next we ask'd where was the blind man gone  
Who sold neat trinkets and fair ribbons by?  
Ah! no one knew where was poor blind man—none,  
But who would give his answer with a sigh.

We ought here to notice the improvement lately made at the north-east of the church-yard, where the patent medicine shop has gently retired, on being rebuilt, a few feet, and now rises with much elegance to face Cheapside at the south entrance of Paternoster-row, as a very smart toyshop does at the north entrance.

At the south-west corner of St. Paul's church-yard, and to the left of Dean's Court, is St. Paul's College, curiously situated between a wine-merchant's of most extensive business, and an ale-house well-known by the name of Tobit's Dog; one of the houses of that description which keeps open late in the night, and where hackney coachmen who ply opposite, and the Paphian damsels who pace up and down the adjoining hill, generally repair for, as they call it, a *finish*, consisting of the rear-glass, to conclude the tipping of the evening.—The college, which one would expect to be some large building, is nothing but a small

court, containing two or three houses, appropriated to the minor canons of the cathedral, who, in the 18th of Richard II. obtained letters patent, constituting them a body politic, by the name of the College of the Twelve Petty Canons of St. Paul's Church.

Facing this college, on the spot of ground now called London-house-yard, formerly stood the bishop of London's palace, a very large and magnificent house, which was destroyed by the fire of London. In this palace king Edward V. was lodged, when brought to London to take possession of the crown.

London-house-yard has a narrow entrance into Paternoster-row, nearly opposite Newgate-market, and a passage which runs behind the houses extending to the public house called the Goose and Gridiron. See p. 111. A stand for the stages to Fulham, Hammersmith, Turnham-green, &c. is opposite: and the music-shop at the corner reminds us of a celebrated satirical effusion of Peter Pindar concerning Mr. Thomson, who so long inhabited the house. The range of houses on the north makes an elegant show; among and them we remark several trunk makers, besides the one at the east corner, never forgotten at sea in the jolly sailor's toast. To these we may add two or three respectable booksellers, and Carrington Bowles's famous print-shop, never in want of outside customers.—The south side, the only thoroughfare for carriages, exhibits also a rich appearance, by two or three glass and china shops, and several upholsterers; and never appears to more advantage than on lord-mayor's day, when the pageantry, though much inferior to the pageants of old, which we have had occasion to mention in the course of this article, fills up the whole of the space in its way to Guildhall.

Ere we begin our perambulations from the centre of the city to the farthest verge of this extensive metropolis, we shall indulge in a lounge about the streets surrounding St. Paul's; and take the first opening on the south side, called Paul's Chain, which leads down to the Thames. The first subject upon which we rest is the Chambers of Diana, which, as Stowe describes it, was a vaulted structure. “Upon Paul's Warfe Hill,” says he, “within a great gate, and belonging to that gate next to Doctors' Commons, are many faire tenements, which, in their leaves from the dean and chapter, goe by the name and title of *Camera Diane*, so denominated from a spacious building that in the time of Henry II. stood where they now are standing. In this *Camera* (Chamber) or arch'd and vaulted structure (full of intricate wayes and windings), this Henry II. (as some time he did at Woodstoke) did keepe, or was supposed to have kept, that jewel of his heart, fair Rosamond; she whom there he called *Rosamundi*, and here by the name of *Diana*; and from thence had this house that title. To this day are remains and some evident testifications of tedious turnings and windings; and also of a passage under ground from this house to Castle Baynard, which was no doubt the king's way from thence to his *Camera Diane*, or the chamber of his brightest *Diana*.”—We do not apprehend that any visible remains of this passage do exist now; it was most probably filled up at the re-construction of the houses upon St. Benet's Hill after the great fire.

Just by this was, and remains still, as far as the name goes, Paul's Baker's Court, anciently Paul's Bake-house, where the bread for the church of St. Paul's was baked. It is now a small but neat quadrangle, the principal building of which is used for the registry of the admiralty.—Opposite was Paul's Brew-house, which soon gave way to the Powle's Head Tavern. A memento of this we find in the name of the tavern at the entrance of Dean's Court; the Paul's Head, and now the Queen's Head, tavern and coffee-house; a place frequented by gentlemen of great respectability, from the church, from the commons, and all the neighbourhood of St. Paul's.

Coming down the hill, which, though not long, has obtained three names—*Paul's Chain*, from a chain placed there



there in order to keep off the populace when any show or pageantry took place in the church-yard—*Godliman-street*, a satisfactory etymology of which we were not able to find out—and *St. Bennet's Hill*, so named from the church at the bottom;—we find on the right the place called generally Doctors' Commons; and, indeed, nearly the whole of this mass of houses, from *St. Andrew's Hill* to *Old Fish-street*, and from *Carter-lane* down to *Thames-street*, goes by that name.

Doctors' Commons is a college for such as study and practise the civil-law; and here causes in civil and ecclesiastical cases are tried under the bishop of London and the archbishop of Canterbury. The addition of *commons* is taken from the manner in which the civilians live here, communing together, as practised in other colleges. The front of this college, which is an old brick building, is in *Great Knight-riders-street*; and it consists of two square courts, chiefly inhabited by doctors of the civil-law. Here are tried all causes by the court of admiralty and the court of delegates. Here are offices where wills are registered and deposited, and licenses for marriages, &c. are granted, and a court of faculties and dispensations. The causes, whereof the civil and ecclesiastical law take cognizance, are these: blasphemy, apostasy, heresy, schism, ordinations, institutions of clerks to benefices, celebration of divine service, matrimony, divorces, bastardy, tythes, oblations, mortuaries, reparation of churches, probates of wills, administrations, simony, incest, fornication, adultery, pensions, procurations, commutation of penance, right of pews, and other such-like, reducible to these heads.

There are many courts belonging to the civil and ecclesiastical law; the most particular of which are these:

1. The Court of Arches; as to the etymology and business of which, see *ARCHES*, vol. ii. p. 59. Yet some etymologists will have it, that the denomination has nothing to do with the arches on which *Bow-church* was built; but that it originated from an abbreviation of *Archiepiscopi Curia*, *Arche's Curia*. This may be very ingenious, and we really think it is; but the other etymon has been so closely fastened on the mind of the doctors, that we ought not to press our readers in favour of this.

2. The Prerogative Court; as to which, see the article *COURTS*, vol. v. p. 300.

3. The Court of Faculties. See *FACULTY*, vol. vii. p. 154.

4. The Court of Admiralty; as to the jurisdiction and practice of which, see vol. i. p. 119. This court was in former times kept in *Southwark*. It is now held in the hall of Doctors' Commons, where the other civil courts are kept; except in the trial of pirates, and crimes committed at sea; on which causes the Admiralty-court sits at the sessions-house in the *Old Bailey*.

5. The Court of Delegates. See *COURTS*, vol. v. p. 301.

The practisers in these courts are of two sorts; viz. advocates and proctors.—The advocates are such as have taken the degree of doctor of the civil law, and are retained as counsellors, or pleaders. These must, first, upon their petition to the archbishop, obtain his fiat; and then they are admitted, by the judge, to practise. The manner of their admission is solemn. Two senior advocates, in their scarlet robes, with their mace carried before them, conduct the doctor up the court with three reverences, and present him with a short Latin speech, together with the archbishop's rescript; and then, having taken the oaths, the judge admits him, and assigns him a place or a seat in the court, which he is always to keep when he pleads. Both the judge and advocates, if of *Oxford*, wear, in court, scarlet robes, and hoods lined with taffaty; but, if of *Cambridge*, white mincever, and round black velvet caps.—The proctors, or procurators, exhibit their proxies for their clients; and make themselves parties for them, and draw and give pleas or libels and allegations in their behalf; produce witnesses, prepare causes

for sentence, and attend the advocates with the proceedings. These are also admitted by the archbishop's fiat, and introduced by two senior proctors. They wear black robes and hoods lined with fur.—The terms for the pleading and ending of causes in the civil courts are but little different from the term-times of the common law. The order, as to the time of sitting of the several courts, is as follows: The court of arches, having the pre-eminence, sits first in the morning; the court of admiralty sits in the afternoon, on the same day; and the prerogative-court sits also in the afternoon.

In this college is a library, well stocked with books of all sorts, especially in civil law and history; for which they are greatly indebted to *James Gibbon*, esq. who gave a great number of the books, and to the benefactions given by every bishop at his consecration, to purchase books for this library. This learned body was originally situated in *Paternoster-row*; but, that situation being found very inconvenient, *Dr. Henry Harvey*, dean of the arches, purchased and provided a large house in *Knightriders-street*, which, at that time, was an old stone building, belonging to, and let out by, the canons of *St. Paul's*. The present college was built upon the ruins of that house, which was burnt down in the great conflagration of this city, in 1666; on which occasion, the business of the institution was transferred to, and carried on at, *Exeter-change*, in the *Strand*, till the new college was finished in a more convenient and elegant manner.—The doctors in their gowns lined with fur, holding forth at these pleadings in the *Strand*, little thought that their benches would be eventually filled up by more furry and more noisy beings, the congregation under *Mr. Pidcock's* once, and now under *Mr. Polito's*, administration.

Into these different courts there is an opening in *Great Knightriders-street*, with an iron railed gate; and another on *Bennet's Hill*, with several steps. Besides the courts, there are also several handsome houses generally occupied by the doctors: but the Prerogative-office, separated from them, is in *Great Knightriders-street*, at the bottom of a long passage.—The rooms where the original wills are deposited, after a fair copy of them is made, are strongly built in stone, and intended to resist any accident by fire.

On the opposite side, going down the hill, stands the *Heralds' Office*, or *College of Arms*. The old building, where this office was kept, was destroyed by the fire in 1666; and, by the act for rebuilding the city, the present edifice was to have been begun within three years afterwards. The estimate of the expense for building it amounted to five thousand pounds; but the corporation, not being able to discharge that sum, petitioned his majesty for a commission to receive the subscriptions of the nobility and gentry. This petition was referred to the commissioners for executing the office of earl-marshal; and, upon their report, was granted on the 6th of December, 1672. But the commission, directing the money collected to be paid to such persons, and laid out in such a manner, as the earl-marshal should appoint, so disgusted the officers, that it caused a coolness in them to promote the subscription; in consequence of which, though they had reason to hope for large contributions, little more than five hundred pounds were raised. What sums were farther necessary, were made up out of the general fees and profits of the office, or by the contribution of particular members. The north-west corner of this building was erected at the sole charge of *Mr. William Dugdale*; and *Mr. Henry St. George*, *Clarenceux*, gave the profits of some visitations made by deputies appointed by him for that purpose, amounting to five hundred and thirty pounds. The houses on the east side and south-east corner were erected upon a building lease, agreeable to the original plan; by which means the whole was made one uniform quadrangular building, as it now appears. It is a very handsome and well-designed edifice. The college being finished in the month of November, 1683, the rooms were divided amongst the officers according to their degrees, by mutual agreement, which



was afterwards confirmed by the earl-marshal; and these apartments have been ever since annexed to the respective offices. The insides of the apartments were finished at different times by the officers to whom they belonged.—The inside front of this building is ornamented with rustic, on which are placed four Ionic pilasters that support an angular pediment. The sides, which are conformable to this, have arched pediments, which are also supported by Ionic pilasters. Within is a large room for keeping the Court of Honour; as also a library, with houses and apartments for the king's heralds and pursuivants.

This corporation consists of thirteen members, viz. three kings of arms; six heralds of arms; and four pursuivants of arms. They are nominated by the earl-marshal of England, as ministers subordinate to him in the execution of their offices, and hold their places by patent. Their meetings are termed *chapters*, which they hold once a month, or oftener if necessary, wherein all matters are determined by a majority of voices of the kings and heralds, each king having two voices. These officers, besides the apartments annexed to their respective offices, have also a public hall, in which the earl-marshal occasionally held courts of chivalry. See COURT OF CHIVALRY, vol. v. p. 298.—Their library contains a large and valuable collection of original records of the pedigrees and arms of families, funeral certificates of the nobility and gentry, public ceremonials, and other branches of heraldry and antiquities. See farther HERALDS' COLLEGE and HERALDRY, vol. ix. and KNIGHTHOOD, vol. xi.

Opposite to the Herald's College is a small court containing several houses, over the entrance of which is a bold alto-relievo representing St. George slaying the Dragon. It appears by the date, that this little monument of gratitude towards some of the kings of arms and heralds, who probably had contributed to the building of these houses, was erected soon after the fire of London. We have given a representation of this on Plate VII *b*. Time has grazed it with his scythe; but has not so defaced it as to divest it entirely of its characteristic spirit. Being on the narrowest spot of the hill, it has been very little noticed, and is consequently very little known; so that our bringing it into notice serves nearly the same purpose as if we had raised it from under ground. We were not able, after close enquiries, to find out the names the initials of which are placed at the top: they might have been those of the publican and his wife who kept a public-house near the place, under the name of the George, and which was probably superseded by the sign of the Ship, now there.

At the bottom of the hill, and the south-west corner, on the north side of Thames-street, stands the parish-church of St. Bennet, Paul's Wharf; so called from its dedication to St. Benedict, and its vicinity to the wharf. It is of very ancient foundation, and appears in the register of Diceto, dean of St. Paul's, under the year 1181. The old church being destroyed by the fire in 1666, the present one was erected in its stead, from a design of sir Christopher Wren. It is a very neat brick structure, ornamented with stone; and the body is well proportioned. The tower, which is also of brick, with rustic-work in stone, at the corners, is surmounted by a dome, from whence rise a turret and a small spire. It is a rectory, the patronage of which appears to have been always in the dean and chapter of St. Paul's.—The old church, as described by Stow, contained several neat monuments, and particularly those of Dr. Shadwell; physician; sir Gilbert Dethicke, garter principal king of arms; David Smyth, embroiderer to queen Elizabeth. Another embroiderer to the same queen was buried there, John Parr, who died 1607, aged 72. Perhaps in memory of his benefactions to the church has the public house in Little Knight-riding-street been kept to this day under the name of Parr's Head; though the name is more apt to remind one of the famous old Parr.—In the present church, we have observed the tomb, among others, of John Charles Brooke, York

herald, F.S.A. who was unfortunately crushed to death at the little theatre in the Haymarket on the 3d of February, 1794. See p. 125, 6. The Latin epitaph, written by one of his brother heralds, is elegant and classical.

After the fire, the parish of St. Peter, Paul's Wharf, the church of which was not rebuilt, was annexed to this parish. This is also a rectory, in the gift of the dean and chapter of St. Paul's, and of equal antiquity with St. Bennet's, being found in the same register; but was anciently denominated St. Peter's Parva, from the smallness of its dimensions. Part of this parish is in Castle-Baynard ward, and part in that of Queenhithe.

Lower down, and close upon the bank of the Thames, was once the castle called by the name of its founder, Baynard, a soldier of fortune, it is said, who came over with William the Conqueror. He received many marks of favour, and obtained from him the barony of Little Dunmow; which, being forfeited to the crown, in the year 1111, by the felonious practices of William Baynard, was given by Henry I. to Gilbert earl of Clare, and his heirs, together with the honours of Baynard's Castle. From him it descended in the female line to Robert Fitzwalter, who was castellan and banner-bearer of London, in the year 1213; about which time there arose a great contention between king John and his barons, on account of Matilda, called The Fair, a daughter of the said Robert Fitzwalter, whom the king unlawfully loved, but could not obtain; for which, and other causes of the like sort, a war ensued throughout the realm. The barons, being received into London, did great damage to the king; but in the end the king was successful, and not only banished Fitzwalter, among others, out of the kingdom, but likewise caused Baynard's Castle, and two other houses belonging to him, to be demolished. King John being in France in the year 1214, with a great army, a truce was made between the two kings for five years. There being a river or arm of the sea between the two armies, a knight among the English called out to those on the other side to challenge any one among them to come and take a just or two with him: whereupon, without any delay, Robert Fitzwalter, who was on the French side, ferried over, and got on horseback, without any one to help him, and showed himself ready to face this challenger; and at the first course struck him so violently with his great spear, that both man and horse fell to the ground; and, when his spear was broken, he went back again to the king of France. King John, seeing this, cried out, "By God's tooth (his usual oath), he were a king indeed who had such a knight." The friends of Robert, hearing these words, kneeled down, and said, "O king, he is your knight; it is Robert Fitzwalter." Whereupon he was sent for the next day, and restored to the king's favour; after which a peace was concluded, and Fitzwalter was restored to his estates, and had permission to repair his castle of Baynard.

This Robert died, and was buried at Dunmow, in the year 1234; and was succeeded by his son Walter. After his decease, the barony of Baynard was in the wardship of king Henry, during the minority of another Robert Fitzwalter, who, in the year 1303, laid claim to his rights before John Blount or Blouden, the then mayor, in the following terms. "The said Robert and his heirs ought to be, and are, chief bannerers of London, in fee, for the castellary which he and his ancestors had, by Castle Baynard in the said city. In time of war, the said Robert and his heirs ought to serve the city in manner as followeth: that is, The said Robert ought to come, he being the twentieth man of arms, on horseback, covered with cloth or armour, unto the great west door of St. Paul's, with his banner displayed before him of his arms. And, when he is so come to the said door, mounted and apparelled as before is said, the mayor, with his aldermen and sheriffs, armed in their arms, shall come out of the said church of St. Paul unto the said door, with a banner in his hand, all on foot; which banner shall be Gules,

the



the image of St. Paul, gold; the face, hands, feet, and sword, of silver. And, as soon as the said Robert shall see the mayor, aldermen, and sheriffs, come on foot out of the church, armed with such a banner; he shall alight from his horse and salute the mayor, and say to him, *Sir mayor, I am come to do my service which I owe to the city.*

And the mayor and aldermen shall answer, *We give to you, as to our banneret of fee in this city, the banner of this city, to bear and govern the honour of this city to your power.*

And the said Robert and his heirs shall receive the banner in his hands; and go on foot out of the gate, with the banner in his hands; and the mayor, aldermen, and sheriffs, shall follow to the door, and shall bring an horse to the said Robert, worth twenty pounds, which horse shall be saddled with a saddle of the arms of the said Robert, and shall be covered with findals of the said arms. Also they shall present to him twenty pounds sterling, and deliver it to the chamberlain of the said Robert, for his expenses that day. Then the said Robert shall mount upon the horse which the mayor presented to him, with the banner in his hand; and, as soon as he is up, he shall say to the mayor, that he must cause a marshal to be chosen for the host, one of the city; which being done, the said Robert shall command the mayor and burgeses of the city to warn the commons to assemble, and all go under the banner of St. Paul; and the said Robert shall bear it himself to Aldgate, and there the said Robert and mayor shall deliver the said banner of St. Paul to whom they think proper. And, if they are to go out of the city, then the said Robert ought to choose two out of every ward, the most sage persons, to look to the keeping of the city after they are gone out. And this counsel shall be taken in the priory of the Trinity, near Aldgate. And before every town or castle which the host of London shall besiege, if the siege continue a whole year, the said Robert shall have, for every siege, of the commonalty of London, one hundred shillings, and no more. These be the rights that the said Robert hath in time of war.

“Rights belonging to Robert Fitzwalter, and to his heirs, in the city of London, in the time of peace, are these: that is to say, The said Robert Fitzwalter had a foke or ward, in the city, where was a wall of the canonry of St. Paul, which led down by a brewhouse of St. Paul to the Thames, and so to the side of the mill, which was in the water, coming down from Fleet-bridge, and went by London-wall, betwixt the Friars-preachers and Ludgate, and so returned by the house of the said friars to the wall of the canonry of St. Paul; that is, all the parish of St. Andrew, which was in the gift of his ancestors, by the said feigniority; and so the said Robert had, appendant unto the said foke, all the things underwritten: That he ought to have a fokeman, and to place what fokeman he will, so he be of the fokemanry, or the same ward; and if any of the fokemanry be impleaded, in the Guildhall, of any thing that toucheth not the body of the mayor that for the time is, or that toucheth the body of no sheriff, it is lawful for the fokeman of the fokemanry of the said Robert Fitzwalter to demand a court of the said Robert; and the mayor, and his citizens of London, ought to grant him to have a court; and in his court he ought to bring his judgments, as it is assented and agreed upon in the Guildhall that shall be given him. If any, therefore, be taken in his fokemanry, he ought to have his stocks and imprisonment in his foken; and he shall be brought from thence to the Guildhall, before the mayor, and there they shall provide him his judgment that ought to be given of him; but his judgment shall not be published till he come into the court of the said Robert, and in his liberty. And the judgment shall be such, that, if he have deserved death by treason, he be tied to a post in the Thames, at a good wharf, where boats are fastened, two ebbings and two flowings of the water. And, if he be condemned for a common thief, he ought to be led to the elms, and there suffer his judgment, as other thieves. And so the said Robert, and his heirs,

hath honour, that he holdeth a great franchise within the city, that the mayor of the city, and citizens, are bound to do him right; that is to say, that, when the mayor will hold a great council, he ought to call the said Robert, and his heirs, to be with him in council of the city; and the said Robert ought to be sworn to be of council with the city, against all people, saving the king and his heirs. And, when the said Robert cometh to the hustings of the Guildhall of the city, the mayor, or his lieutenant, ought to rise against him, and set him down near unto him; and, so long as he is in the Guildhall, all the judgments ought to be given by his mouth, according to the record of the recorders of the said Guildhall; and so many waives as come so long as he is there, he ought give them to the bailiffs of the town, or to whom he will, by the council of the mayor of the city.”

The old castle was destroyed by fire in 1428; after which it was rebuilt by Humphrey duke of Gloucester. At his decease, Henry VI. gave it to Richard duke of York, who resided here, with his armed followers, to the number of four hundred, during the important convention of the great men of the nation, in 1453, the forerunner of the civil wars between the houses of York and Lancaster. This was also the residence of Richard III. when he took upon him the title of king. It was afterwards beautified, and made more commodious, by Henry VII. who frequently lodged here; and the privy-council met here, on the 19th of July, 1553, for the purpose of proclaiming queen Mary; at which time it was the property and residence of William Herbert, earl of Pembroke. There are several prints existing at this time, of this famous place; but they give so inadequate an idea of the castle, and represent it so much like a prison, that we did not think a copy of them, as we could not find any thing original, would be acceptable to our readers. The site is now occupied by wharfs; and no remains of the old fabric, we understand, are to be found. In fact the whole ground has been turned up so many times, and so little notice has been taken of the old castle by our modern analysts, that it is not to be wondered at if this ancient, and, as it was styled, magnificent building, the scene of so many eventful transactions, is now erased from the memory of man, and exists only in the name which it gave to the ward.—The castle of Montfitchet, and another castle, built by Edward II. which, from being afterwards appropriated for the reception and residence of the pope's legates, was called Legates Inn; and also Beaumont's Inn, afterwards Huntingdon-house, a very noble palace, built in Thames-street, opposite St. Peter's Hill, in the 30th of Edward IV. the city mansion of the family of Scroop, on the west side of Paul's Wharf; Berkeley's inn, or palace, in Addle-street; and the stately palace belonging to the priors of Okeburn, in Wiltshire, which stood in Castle-lane, with many others of less note, in this neighbourhood; have all shared the same fate.

The ascent from Thames-street to Doctors' Commons is cut into such a number of narrow streets close and parallel to each other, and indeed farther on, nearly to Fish-street Hill and London Bridge, that on the map they look like the teeth of a comb. On the east of Bennet's Hill we have St. Peter's Hill, so called from a church once existing there, but destroyed with others in 1666; and the parish of which was, as we mentioned above, united to St. Bennet's. This hill is steep, and yet of an easier ascent than St. Bennet's; but, having no direct opening or outlet in St. Paul's-church-yard, is less annoyed by the passage of carts from Thames-street. It is nearly opposite to *Sermon-lane*, probably so called as a near way to the *Pulpit-crofs*; near which, and parallel to it, is *Do-little-alley*; which seems to have been so called in allusion to its narrowness, admitting of no trade or of very few passengers. However, the oddity of the name, and some improper allusions having been made on account of it, caused the inhabitants of the ward to change it into *Knight-rider's-couit*.



The alms-houses on Peter's Hill, and contiguous to the Heralds' College, were founded by David Smith, embroiderer, for six poor widows; each to have twenty shillings per annum. Before the fire of London, there stood on the east side of these houses an ancient building belonging to the abbot of St. Mary at York, there to abide when he repaired to London. The corner houses at the top of the hill were called Peter's Key, most probably from some public house with the sign of the Key of St. Peter, as we find in several places under the denomination of Cross Keys.

From Paul's Wharf westward, Thames-street extends to Puddle Wharf, so called from its situation, being a small creek or dock where barges usually repair in order to be laden with dung, dirt, and other materials of no great value. At low water it is indeed a puddle, exhaling the most disagreeable smell, which the inhabitants in the neighbourhood pretend to be very wholesome. It is at the bottom of St. Andrew's Hill, and receives all the mud of the Commons, running down there in torrents whenever a smart shower cleanses the streets above. Last winter, immense loads of ice and congealed snow were conveyed there, and formed a heap as high as the top of the neighbouring houses, and which will not soon be melted.—About this place was anciently the leystow of which Stow or his editor speaks in the following words:—"At a common-council, August 7, the third and fourth of Philip and Mary, it was agreed, at the request of the earl of Pembroke, that the cities leystow adjoining to his lordship's house, and being noysome to the same, should be removed, upon condition that he should give the city, towards the making of a new leystow in another place, 2000 foot of hard stone to make the vault and warfe thereof, or else forty markes in ready money to buy the same stone withall." This leystow, or laystall, was a place not unlike the present Puddle-dock, where dirt and mud and all descriptions of filth and nastiness united, before their mixing with the water of the river—Cloacinæ Londinenses—the common sewer.

St. Andrew's Hill is very steep. On ascending it, we find on the right several steps leading to Wardrobe Terrace, as it has been lately called, a sort of court surrounding the church, and leading to Knightrider-street; and on the north, Wardrobe Place, a square neatly encompassed with private houses and planted with trees. The entrance is in Great Carter-lane.—Annexed to the church is a small cemetery planted tastefully with shrubs. It is a rectory of very ancient foundation, originally denominated St. Andrew juxta Baynard Castle, from its vicinity to that palace; but, the office of the king's wardrobe being removed to a house in Carter-lane, built by sir John de Beauchamp, son to Guy de Beauchamp, earl of Warwick, (see p. 400.) and afterwards sold to king Edward III. the site of which is now occupied by Wardrobe-court, the distinctive appellation of this church was changed to that of St. Andrew Wardrobe.

It is very probable that this church was founded about the same time as Baynard Castle, and perhaps by the same nobleman: for the advowson was anciently in the noble family of Fitzwalter, from whom it passed through many hands, until the year 1663, when it came to the crown, in which it still remains. But the parish of St. Anne, Blackfriars, being annexed to it after the fire; the right of presentation is alternately in the crown and the parishioners of St. Anne. The present structure was erected on the ruins of the old one, in the year 1670: It is a handsome building of brick, ornamented with stone, and supported by twelve pillars of the Tuscan order, in allusion to the twelve apostles, to one of whom it is dedicated. The body is enlightened by two rows of windows; but the tower has neither turret, pinnacle, nor spire. The roof is adorned with fretwork of flowers, fruits, &c. The pews are very neat, and the walls well-wainscoted, with two handsome galleries, a carved pulpit, a venerated found-

ing-board, and a very complete altar-piece. It is seventy-five feet in length, fifty-nine in breadth, and thirty-eight in height, to the roof; and the altitude of the tower is eighty-six feet.

This church is generally well attended, as the preachers endeavour to imitate the late celebrated Mr. Romaine, who, having had the skill of amalgamating the methodical with the orthodox dogmas, and thereby constituting a middle *nuance* between both, drew to his pulpit an immense audience.—To this excellent man, a monument as plain and modest as himself, as neat and elegant as his eloquence, yet, though in marble, less durable than the impression he made upon his followers, and which will be handed down to posterity, has been erected by the contributions of his disciples and admirers, at the *dextrum cornu altaris*, the right horn or corner of the altar. It consists in a pyramidal slab of white, upon a basis and back of black, marble, with a bas-relief very beautifully executed, representing Religious Zeal preaching before the altar of the spotless Lamb, and under the protection of Christ who is seen above. This is accompanied with a simple and appropriate inscription. The whole is surmounted by a small bust of this celebrated divine, the likeness of which is strikingly true.

If from this church we walk eastward through Great and Little Knightrider-streets, which took their appellation from the passing of knights going from Tower Royal to the tournaments and jousts in Smithfield, we shall enter Old Fish-street, so called from a fish-market anciently held there, as it is now at Billingsgate; and on the right we meet with the church of St. Gregory and St. Mary Magdalen mentioned above. This was a vicarage, in the tenure of the canons of St. Paul's, in the year 1181; but, for some ages past, it has been a rectory, in the gift of the dean and chapter of St. Paul's. The old edifice was destroyed by the fire of London; and the present structure was erected in the year 1685. It is small, but well-proportioned, built with stone, and lighted by a single series of arched windows, each ornamented with a cherub and scrolls, supporting a cornice which runs round the building; these windows are so high from the ground, that the doors open completely under them. The tower is divided into two stages, in the upper of which is a large window on each side. From the top of the tower the work diminishes, in the manner of high steps, on each side; and on the top of these is a turret, with a very short spire, on which is placed a vase, with flames.

Opposite to the site of St. Gregory's church (see p. 405.) is Lambeth or Lambart hill, running down to Thames-street, and parallel with *Labour-in-vain-hill*; the name of this narrow lane may be owing to the steepness of it, as if it were in vain to endeavour to climb up. Some pretend that it arose from the sign at a barber's shop, which exhibited the curious device of a monkey lathering a negro's face with soap. Both conceits are so nearly connected with each other, that they may have jointly contributed to the denomination of the hill; but it has been lately called *Old Fish-street-hill*.—At the corner stands the parish-church of St. Nicholas Coleabbey, which was dedicated to St. Nicholas, bishop of Myra in Africa, a common patron to mariners, as it is related that he miraculously saved the crew of a ship sinking in a storm; in allusion to which, he is generally painted with two or three children playing in a tub full of water. But the reason of the additional epithet is not known; some conjecturing it to be a corruption of Golden-abbey, and others, that it is derived from Cold-abbey, or Coldbey, from its cold or bleak situation. It is known that there was a church in the same place before the year 1377, when, according to Stow, the steeple and south aisle, which were not so old as the rest of the church, were rebuilt; but, the last structure being consumed in the great conflagration in 1666, the present church was built in its place, and the parish of St. Nicholas Olave united to it.



This edifice consists of a plain body, built of stone, well lighted by a single range of windows. It is sixty-three feet long, and forty-three feet broad; thirty-six feet high to the roof, and one hundred and thirty-five to the top of the spire. The tower is plain, but strengthened with rustic at the corners; and the spire, which is the frustum of a pyramid, and covered with lead, has a gallery, and many openings. This was the first church built and completed after the fire. The advowson of this rectory was anciently in the dean and chapter of St. Martin's le Grand; but, upon the grant of that collegiate church to the abbot and canons of Westminster, the patronage devolved to that convent, in whom it continued till the dissolution of their monastery; when, coming to the crown, it remained therein till queen Elizabeth, in the year 1560, granted the patronage thereof to Thomas Reeve and George Evelyn, and their heirs, in soccage; who conveying it to others, it came at last to the family of the Hackers, one whereof was colonel Francis Hacker, commander of the guard that conducted king Charles I. to and from his trial, and, at last, to the scaffold; for which, after the restoration, he was executed as a traitor; when the advowson reverted to the crown, in whom it still continues.

On the side of Lambeth-hill was a handsome building called Blacksmiths' Hall; but this has lately been pulled down, and the business of the company is transacted at Cutlers' Hall.

Pursuing our deambulations from the main point through Old Fish-street, we soon meet Bread-street and Bread-street Hill. It appears, that in the reign of Edward I. an order was issued, by which the bakers were obliged to come to certain open markets to sell their bread, and not expose it in shops as they do now; and this place was one of them. The intention of this regulation was, that, by a natural competition, (natural we say, because it is in the nature of man to outdo his neighbours if he can, which in more elegant words is called the *vis æmulative*, or emulation,) it might be expected that this first of the necessaries of life should be yielded to the public at the lowest rate possible. The same expectation has left the meat-market open to this day in the same manner; but has been disappointed, like many other well-meant and benevolent intentions of our ancestors.

Bread-street is a well-built open street, on the east side of which, at the corner of Watling-street, is the parish-church of Allhallows, Bread-street. This church received its name from being dedicated to all the saints, and its situation. It is a rectory of very ancient foundation; the patronage of which was originally in the prior and canons of Christ-church in Canterbury, who remained patrons of it till the year 1365, when it was conveyed to the archbishop of Canterbury and his successors, in whom it still continues, and is one of the peculiars belonging to that see in the city of London. To this we may add a curious anecdote mentioned by Stow:—"In the three-and-twentieth yeere of Henry VIII. two priests of this church fell at variance, and the one drew blood of the other; wherefore the same church was suspended (*interdictum*), and no service sung or said therein for the space of one moneth after. The priests were committed to prison; and, the fifteenth of October, being enjoined penance, went before a generall procession, bare-headed, bare-footed, and bare-legged, before the children with beads and bookes in their hands, from Paul's, through Cheap, Cornhill, &c." Stow does not carry the ceremony to the end; but we may very naturally suppose that the procession returned to Allhallows, where our two priests were egregiously flogged, whilst the choir were singing, as usual on like occasions, the long-long psalm *Miserere mei*, beating time quick or slow, according to the heinousness of the crime.—The steeple of this church was struck by lightning on the 5th of September, 1559. Being afterwards totally destroyed by the fire of London in 1666, the present edifice was erected in 1684, at the expense of the public; and serves not only for the accommodation of the inhabitants of its

own parish, but likewise for those of St. John the Evangelist, which is annexed to it by act of parliament. This church consists of a plain body, of the Tuscan order, seventy-two feet in length, thirty-five in breadth, and thirty in height to the roof; with a square tower eighty-six feet high, divided into four stages with arches near the top. The inside is handsomely wainscoted and peded, the pulpit finely carved, the founding-board veneered, a neat gallery at the west end, and a spacious altar-piece well adorned and beautified.—Just by this church was Salters' Hall, with six alms-houses "for poore decayed brethren of that company." The hall was burnt in 1539; rebuilt, burnt again in 1666; and then rebuilt in Swithin's lane.

The parish-church of St. John the Evangelist stood at the north-east corner of Friday-street, in Watling-street; but, being burnt in the fire of London, was not rebuilt. It is a rectory, founded about the same time as Allhallows, and was also in the gift of the priory of Christ-church, Canterbury, till it was conveyed with that church to the archbishops of Canterbury, who still retain it. The site of the old church is now a burial-place for the parishioners; and, though the parish consists of no more than twenty-three houses, it has a separate vestry, and two churchwardens.

On the same side of Bread-street, south of Basing-lane, stands the parish-church of St. Mildred, Bread-street; so called from its situation, and its dedication to St. Mildred, niece to Penda king of the Mercians, who, having devoted herself to a religious life, retired to a convent in France, from whence she returned, accompanied by seventy virgins, and founded a monastery in the Isle of Thanet, of which she died abbess, in the year 676.—This legendary story seems to have been borrowed from the embarking of St. Ursula with 11,000 virgins in her train—a fact, we suppose, not unlikely in those *virgin* ages; but which in our corrupted times would excite as much curiosity as astonishment. We wonder that no English historical painter has ever, in imitation of Claude Lorraine, exercised his skill in representing the embarkation of St. Mildred with her numerous followers, with angels, instead of nereids, smoothing the waves, and laying the storm, to soften their passage to the *Insula Sanctorum*, or Island of Saints, as this was anciently, and perhaps not undeservedly, called.

It is a rectory, founded about the year 1300, by lord Trenchant, of St. Alhan's; but it had neither vestry-room nor church-yard till 1428, when sir John Chadworth, or Shadworth, by his will, gave a vestry-room and church-yard to the parishioners, and a parsonage-house to the rector. The old church was burnt down in 1666; and the present building was erected in 1683. It consists of a spacious body, lighted by one large window on each of the four sides, with a circular roof. The length of the church is sixty-two feet, its breadth thirty-six, the height of the side-walls forty, and to the centre of the roof fifty-two. At the south-east corner is a light tower, divided into four stages; whence rises a spire, the altitude of which is a hundred and forty feet. The front of it is built of free-stone, but the other parts of brick: the roof is covered with lead, and the floor paved with Purbeck-stone. Within is a neat wainscot gallery; and the pulpit is enriched; the altar-piece is handsomely adorned, and the communion-table stands upon a foot-piece of black and white marble. The advowson of this church was anciently in the prior and convent of St. Mary Overy's, in Southwark, by whom it was granted, in the year 1533, to John Oliver, and others, for a term of years; at the expiration of which it came to sir Nicholas Crisp, in whose family, or assigns, it still continues.

When the present edifice was built, it was made parochial for this parish and that of St. Margaret Moses; the church of which stood at the south-west corner of Little Friday-street, opposite to Distaff-lane; and was thus named from being dedicated to St. Margaret, and from one Moses, or Moyses, who had formerly rebuilt it; but, suffering by



the fire in 1666, it was not again rebuilt. It is a rectory, and was numbered among the most ancient foundations in the city; for, in the year 1105, it was given by Robert Fitzwalter to the priory of St. Faith, at Housham, or Horsham, in the county of Norfolk; which gift being confirmed to them by a bull of pope Alexander III. in the year 1163, it was possessed by the prior and canons, till the suppression of their convent by Edward III. as an alien-priory, when this church fell to the crown, in which the patronage has continued to this day. One part of the site of this church was sold to the city, by virtue of an act of parliament, for the purpose of widening the street between Friday-street and Bread-street; and the money arising from the sale was applied towards paving and beautifying the church of St. Mildred; the other part was reserved for a burial-place for the parish of St. Margaret.

On the north side of Distaff-lane is Cordwainers' Hall; a handsome convenient building, consisting of several rooms, the principal of which contains portraits of king William and queen Mary. A new stone front has been lately added to this building; over the centre-window of which is a medallion, representing a country girl spinning with a distaff, in allusion to the name of the lane; and at the top is a carving of the company's arms.—It is a subject of regret to all admirers of simplicity united with elegance, to find this neat building buried in so narrow a lane; for indeed it is painful to direct the sight so as to discover what the medallion represents; and, by looking to such a perpendicular height, the head becomes giddy, and the spectator begins to imagine that the carved spindle he painfully looks up to is really whirling and twirling about.

The next object worthy of our attention is Gerard's Hall, in Basing-lane. Here stood anciently the mansion of sir John Gisors, mayor of London, and constable of the Tower in 1311. In the turbulent time of Edward II. he was charged with several harsh and unjust proceedings; and, being summoned to appear before the king's justices to answer to the accusation, he and other principal citizens fled, and put themselves under the protection of the rebellious barons. His house was built upon arched vaults, and had arched gates made of stone brought from Caen. In the lofty roofed hall, says Stow, stood a large fir-pole, 39½ feet high and fifteen inches in circumference, with a ladder to ascend to the top of it. It was feigned to have been the staff of Gerardus, a mighty giant; but proved to be no more than a may-pole, which, according to ancient custom, used to be decked and placed annually before the door. From this fable the house long bore the name of Gerard's Hall; but it was properly changed to that of Gisors. It remained in the family till the year 1386, when it was alienated by Thomas Gisors. The house was divided into several parts; and in the time of Stow was a common hoferie, or inn. At present nothing remains but the vault, supported by pillars, which serves as cellars to the houses built on the site of the old mansion. The premises are still occupied by waggoners and stage-coaches, with a sort of tavern, or chop-house, annexed to it. At the gate, which seems old, still remains fixed in the door-post a gigantic figure of a man, wrapped in a mantle, with a staff in his hand; undoubtedly alluding to the story mentioned above. It has a singular appearance, and seems to date of a period cloie following that of the great conflagration.

Basing-lane, being contiguous to the Old Bread-market place, was in the time of Richard II. called Bake-house and Baking-house-lane, or Baking-lane, on account of the number of ovens heated there to supply the stalls in the market; from which arose the corruption into Basing-lane.

Following Watling-street eastward, we may take in Bow-lane, and visit St. Mary Aldermary. This church, which is a rectory, owes its name to its dedication to the Virgin Mary; and the additional epithet of Aldermary, to *Elder*, or *Elder, Mary*, from being the oldest church in this

city dedicated to the holy virgin. It is one of the peculiarities belonging to the archbishop of Canterbury, and was founded before the conquest, under the Saxon kings. In the year 1510, sir Henry Keble, lord-mayor of London, bequeathed a thousand pounds towards rebuilding this church; in 1626, William Rodoway gave, towards the building of the steeple, then greatly decayed, the sum of three thousand pounds; and Richard Pierston, about the same year, gave two hundred marks towards the same work; with condition that this steeple, thus to be built, should follow its ancient pattern, and go forward, and be finished, according to the foundation of it laid before by sir Henry Keble; which, within three years after, was so finished, that, notwithstanding the body of the church was burnt in the fire of 1666, the steeple remained firm and good. That part of it which was consumed was afterwards rebuilt in its present form by the munificence of Henry Rogers, esq. as appears by a Latin inscription over the west door of the church. This Gothic edifice is very spacious, it being a hundred feet in length and sixty-three in breadth; the height of the roof is forty-five feet, and that of the steeple a hundred and thirty-five. The body is lighted by a single series of large Gothic windows. The wall has well-contrived buttresses and battlements; these buttresses run up pilaster-fashion, in two stages, not projecting in the old manner from the body of the building. The tower, which is full of ornament, consists of five stages, each of which, except the lowest, has one window; and the pinnacles, which are properly so many turrets, are continued at each corner down to the ground, divided into stages like the body of the tower, and cabled with small pillars bound round it, with a kind of arched work, and subdivisions between. After the fire of London, the parish of St. Thomas the Apostle was annexed to this church; which being in the dean and chapter of St. Paul's, the archbishop of Canterbury and the dean of St. Paul's present alternately to the united livings.

Coming down Bow-lane, we re-enter our former walk. In Great Trinity-lane, so called from Trinity-church, which stood in Knight-riders-street, and which was so very old in 1572, that contributions were asked from the inhabitants to repair it. Having been destroyed in the general conflagration, it was not rebuilt; and, the parish being annexed to that of St. Michael Queenhithe, some German merchants purchased the site of it, in order to erect a church for the celebration of divine service according to the Lutheran confession; since which time, this has been their place of public worship.

Not far in Little Trinity-lane is Painter-stainers' Hall. These artists formed themselves into a fraternity as early as the reign of Edward III. and also erected themselves into a company; but were not incorporated. They styled themselves *Painter-stainers*, because their chief work was staining or painting glass, illuminating missals, painting portative or other altars, and now and then a portrait; witness that of Richard II. and those of the great John Talbot and his wife, preserved at Castle Ashby. In the year 1575, they found that plasterers, and all sorts of unskilful persons, intermeddled in their business, and brought their art into disrepute by the badness and slightness of their work. They determined (like the surgeons in later days) to keep their mystery pure from all pretenders. They were incorporated in 1576; had their master, warden, and common seal: George Gower was queen Elizabeth's favourite painter; but, as we do not find his name in Mr. Walpole's Anecdotes, we suspect his art was confined to the humbler part. This corporation extended only to such artists as practised within the city. As art is unconfined, numbers arose in different parts, and settled in Westminster, the seat of the court. They for a long time remained totally unconnected even with each other. About the year 1576, they solicited and received the royal patronage, and were incorporated under the title of Master, Wardens, and Commonalty, of Painter-stainers. The majority are independent of any other body corporate; but



several among them are regular freemen of the city under the ancient company. Numbers of paintings are preserved here; many of them probably by the members of the society. The portraits of Charles II. and his queen, by Houseman; architecture of the Corinthian order, by Trevit; the Fire of London, by Waggoner; &c. &c. On the ceiling is an allegorical painting, the work of Fuller. The silver cup and cover, given to this society by the great Camden, who was son of a painter in the Old Bailey, is preserved here, and annually produced on St. Luke's day, the old master drinking out of it to the new one, then elected. The entrance is well decorated, and is an ornament to the lane.

Lower down in Thames-street, directly opposite to Queenhithe, is situated the parish-church of St. Michael Queenhithe; so called from its dedication to St. Michael the archangel, and its situation near that hithe. It was formerly called St. Michael de Cornhithe, all the corn brought to London from the western parts of the country being landed here. The earliest authentic mention of this church is in the year 1404, when Stephen Spilman, who had served the offices of alderman, sheriff, and chamberlain, died, and left part of his goods to found a chantry here. The old church being destroyed by the fire of London, the present structure was erected in its stead. It consists of a well-proportioned body, lighted by two series of windows; the first a range of tall arched ones, and over them another range of large port-hole windows, above which are cherubs' heads, and underneath festoons that adorn the lower part, and fall between the tops of the under series. The tower is plain, but well-proportioned, and is terminated by a spire crowned with a vane in the form of a ship. The length of this church is seventy-one feet, its breadth forty, and its height to the roof, which is flat and covered with tiles, thirty-nine; the altitude of the tower and spire, a hundred and thirty-five feet. The patronage of this church is in the dean and chapter of St. Paul's, but it is subject to the archdeacon. On its being rebuilt, the parish of Trinity the Leas was annexed to it; and, the patronage of the latter being in the dean and chapter of Canterbury, they and the dean and chapter of St. Paul's present alternately to the united living.

We now descend into Queenhithe, which gives name to the ward. It is a place of great antiquity, the original name of which was Edred's hithe; and it possibly existed in the time of the Saxons. This was one of the places for large boats, and even ships, to discharge their lading; for there was a draw-bridge in one part of London-bridge, (see Plate II.) which was pulled up, occasionally, to admit the passage of large vessels; express care being taken to land corn, fish, and provisions, in different places, for the convenience of the inhabitants; and other *hithes* were appointed for the landing of different merchandize, in order that business might be carried on with regularity. When this hithe fell into the hands of king Stephen, he bestowed it on William de Ypres, who, in his piety, again gave it to the convent of the Holy Trinity within Aldgate. It again fell to the crown in the time of Henry III. and then acquired its present name, being called *Ripa Reginae*, the Queen's Wharf. That monarch compelled the ships of the Cinque Ports to bring their corn here, and to no other place. It probably was part of her majesty's pin-money, by the attention paid to her interest in the affair.—"When I visited this dock," says Mr. Pennant, "I saw a melancholy proof of the injury trade may sustain by the ruinous state of Blackfriars-bridge, the result of the bad materials of which part of it has been unhappily composed. A large stone had fallen out of its place. A vast barge deeply laden, I think, with corn and malt, struck on this sunk rock, and foundered. It was weighed up, and brought into this place to discharge its damaged cargo."

The church of St. Nicholas Olave stood on the west side of Bread-street-hill, where the church-yard now is. It is a rectory of very ancient foundation, as is evident from Gilbert Foliot, bishop of London, having given it to the

dean and chapter of St. Paul's about the year 1172, in whom it still continues. The additional epithet is supposed to be derived from Olave, or Olaus, king of Norway. The parish is annexed to St. Nicholas Coleabbey.

Thames-street runs through the heart of this ward, and contains, on the south side, several lanes that lead down to Wood-wharf, Broken-wharf, Brooker's-wharf, Brookes's-wharf, Queenhithe, and other places, on the Thames-side; on which account this division is greatly thronged with carts employed in carrying goods and merchandize.—Near Broken-wharf, to facilitate the passage of loaded vehicles, the corporation of London, ever alive and liberal to the comfort of the inhabitants of the city, caused this part of the street to be widened in the year 1807; and a stone has been put up with an inscription to record the useful improvement. Hence, and from other inscriptions of the same kind, arose the joke, when some of our rich and high-fed citizens appear with the majesty of corpulence, to apply to them the words of the inscription, "Widened at the expense of the corporation."

In this street, opposite Broken-wharf, is situated the parish-church of St. Mary Somerset, so called from its dedication to the Virgin Mary and its situation; the word Somerset being supposed only a corruption of *Somers-hithe*, from some small port, or hithe, so called from the owner of it being of the name of Somers. It appears, by ancient records, that a church was situated on this spot before the year 1335. The old church, however, sharing the common fate of 1666, the present structure was soon after erected in its stead. The body of this edifice is lighted by a range of lofty arched windows, and the wall is terminated by a balustrade. The tower is square, well-proportioned, and rises to a considerable height; it is crowned at each corner with a handsome vase, supported on a pedestal, with a neat turret between, in the form of an obelisk, and crowned with a ball. It is eighty-three feet in length, thirty-six in breadth, and thirty in height to the roof; and the altitude of the tower is a hundred and twenty feet. The patronage of this church is in lay hands; and, being united to St. Mary Mounthaw, which is in the gift of the bishop of Hereford, they present alternately to the living.

The church of St. Mary Mounthaw, which was destroyed by the fire of London, and not rebuilt, was situated on the east side of Fish-street-hill; and the spot on which it stood is now used as a burial-place for the parishioners. This church was also dedicated to the Virgin Mary, and obtained its additional epithet from having been formerly a chapel belonging to the city-mansion of the Montaltos, *de Monte Alto*, or Monthauts, of the county of Norfolk. This mansion, with the chapel, was purchased by Ralph de Maydenstone, bishop of Hereford, about the year 1234, who settled both on his successors in that see, whereby they became possessors of the house, which they used for their city-residence, and of the patronage of the chapel, which they have retained ever since. It is not now known when, or by what means, this chapel became converted into a parish-church.

At the south-east corner of Garlic hill, we find the parish-church of St. James, Garlic-hill. This church is so called from its dedication to the above saint, and its vicinity to a garlic-market, which was anciently held in the neighbourhood, and called Garlic-hithe, from being a wharf on the bank of the river. It is a rectory, the patronage of which appears to have been in the abbot and convent of Westminster, till the suppression of their monastery; when, coming to the crown, queen Mary, in the year 1553, granted the same to the bishop of London and his successors, in whom it still remains. The earliest mention of this church is, that it was rebuilt by Richard de Rothing, sheriff in 1326. The old church being destroyed by the fire of London, the present edifice was begun ten years after, and thoroughly completed in 1682. It is built of stone, seventy-five feet long, forty-five feet broad, and forty feet high to the roof; the altitude of the steeple is ninety-eight feet.

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The tower is divided into three stages; in the lowest of which is a very elegant door with coupled columns of the Corinthian order; in the second is a large window, over which is another of a circular form not opened; in the third story is a window larger than the former; and the cornice above this supports a range of open-work in the place of battlements, on a balustrade. Above this is the turret, which is composed of four stages, and decorated with columns, scrolls, and ornaments. From the body of the church projects a very handsome dial; on the top of which is a statue of St. James, to whom the church is dedicated.

A little to the east, on the south side of Thames-street, is Vintners' Hall. The gate is decorated with an iron railing, and two posts of stone surmounted with a stone group of three tuns, and on the upper one the jolly god of wine and mirth. The building is of brick bound with stone; and the quadrangle has a good appearance. The front facing the street exhibits the taste of the time it was built. The hall is exceedingly handsome; and behind it is a spacious garden considering the spot where it lies, and a narrow passage to the bank of the Thames. In the hall is a curious old sun-dial in painted glass, with this appropriate motto, *Dum spectas fugio*; "Whilst you look, I flee." The meaning is obvious; and points out the necessity of making the best use we can of Time, and not to trifle with his fleeting daughters, the Hours, but to turn them to advantage. Here is also a good picture of St. Martin, on a white horse, dividing his cloak with our Saviour, who appeared to him, in the year 337, in the character of a beggar:

Hic Christo chlamydem Martinus dimidiavit;  
Ut faciamus idem nobis exemplificavit.

There is, besides, a statue of that saint in the same room; and another picture of him above stairs. "Why this saint was selected as patron of the company (says Mr. Pennant) I know not, except it was imagined that, actuated by good wine, he had been inspired with good thoughts; which, according to the argument of James Howel, producing good works, brought a man to heaven. And, to show the moral in a contrary effect, here is a picture of Lot and his incestuous daughters, exemplifying the danger of the abuse of the best things."

Here Mr. Pennant indulges his jocular fancy; but the fact is, (though this well-read and intelligent author was not acquainted with it,) that the wine in France is never fit to be tasted, sold, or drunk, till about Martinmas, the eleventh of November. At that period all the wine-makers from Champagne and Burgundy bring their goods to market; and St. Martin's fair is held in most of the departments of France as regularly as fairs for horses and cattle are held in England. All lands, the produce of which is wine, pay their rent on that day—and it is a day of rejoicing and mirth in all places contiguous to the *vignobles*. St. Martin's day, and quaffing freely of the new wine, were synonymous: and no wonder if the vintners of this country, whose trade began from that day, chose St. Martin for the tutelary patron of the company, and set up his image in their hall. The vineyards in France, however, as we are informed, are placed under the holy protection of St. Vincent, a deacon who suffered martyrdom under the emperor Decius; but we apprehend that this was for no other reason than the alliteration of the first syllable of his name with the Latin word *vinum*, or the French *vin*.

Whilst we were reading the distich above quoted, we could not help calling to mind a curious legendary story, which ends also with a Latin couplet. It is said that Martin, after having given up the profession of a soldier, and been elected bishop of Tours, at that time when bishops kept neither carriages, horses, or servants, he had occasion to go on foot to Rome, in order to consult the pope upon some most important ecclesiastical matter. As he walked gently along the road, he met—the Devil, who

most politely accosted him, and ventured to tempt his pride, by observing how fatiguing and indecorous it was for the mitred traveller to perform so long a journey on foot. The saint knew the devil's drift, and commanded him to become a beast of burthen, a *jumentum*; which he did instantly. The saint knew well how to manage a horse, and jumped upon the devil's shoulders, who at first trotted cheerfully along; but it seems that the devil, any more than man, is not long of the same mind; for Satan soon slackened his pace. The bishop had neither whip nor spur; but he had a better and more powerful stimulus at hand: he made the sign of the cross; and then the devil galloped away; but soon again the father of sin returned to idleness and obstinacy, and again Martin hurried him along with repeated signs of the cross—till at last the tired reprobate, stung by those crossings so hateful to him, uttered the following distich:

Signa te, signa; temerè me tangis et angis;  
Roma tibi subito motibus ibit amor.

The singularity of which consists in each line reading backwards as well as in the common way—for *angis*, the last word of the first line, being read backwards, makes *signa*, the first word, and so on.—Of these curious literary trifles we intend to produce several instances under the word PALINDROMUS.

From Vintners' Hall we ascend Queen-street; and, returning to our eastward walk, we find at the corner of Cloak-lane, St. Thomas's church-yard, still planted with elm-trees, but offering no memento of the dead: two streets under the name of this apostle of the Gentiles are just by; and here we must observe, that, on the same side, and not far from the Swedish Lutheran chapel, stands the *first* Roman-catholic chapel that ever was permitted in the city after the reformation. It was opened a few years ago at the expence of several worthy families; and is a large room, plainly but decently fitted for the purpose: it was once a dissenters' meeting, then an auction-room, and now a consecrated place for the performance of the Roman-catholic liturgy. Two priests are attached to the service of the chapel; and it is generally crowded. Thus, by degrees, the blessing of toleration spreads itself around, and drops every-where the seeds of "peace and good-will towards men, for the glory of God in the highest."

Farther eastward is the street called Tower Royal, from an ancient building of the same name.—"This tower," says Stow, "and great place, was so called of pertaining to the kings of this realme; but by whom the same first was builded, or of what antiquity continued, I have not read, more than that in the reign of king Edward I. second, fourth, and seventh, yeeres, it was the tenement of Simon Beawmes; also that in the 36th of Edward III. the same was called the Royall in the parish of St. Michael de Pater-notter; and that, in the three-and-fortieth of his reign, he gave it, by the name of his *Inne* called the *Royall*, in the citie of London, in value twenty pounds by yeere, unto his Colledge of St. Stephen at Westminster. Notwithstanding, in the reign of Richard II. it was called the Queen's Wardrobe, as appeareth by this that followeth: *King Richard, having in Smithfield overcome and dispersed the rebels, hee, his lords, and all his company, entered the city of London with great joy, and went to the lady princeffe his mother, who was then lodged in the Tower Royall, called the Queen's Wardrobe, where she had remained three dayes and two nights, right sore abashed: but, when she saw the king her sonne, she was greatly rejoiced, and said; Hal sonne, what great sorrow have I suffered for you this day! The king answered and said; Certainly, madam, I know it well; but now rejoice and thanke God, for I have this day recovered mine heritage and the realme of England, which I had neere-hand lost.*"

And here the same Richard II. lodged in 1386, when his royal guest Leon III. king of Armenia, or, as Holinshed calls him, *Lyon king of Armony*, who had been expelled his kingdom by the Turks, took refuge in England. Richard treated this unfortunate prince with the



utmost munificence, loaded him with gifts, and settled on him a thousand pounds a-year for life. After two months stay, he returned into France, where he also met with a reception suitable to his rank; and, dying at Paris in 1393, was interred in the Celestins, where his tomb was to be seen previous to the French revolution.

College Hill contains still some antiquities.—Two large gates on the east side, both ornamented at top with flowers and masks in basso-relievo, and both with a circular window encircled with a garland. The first opens into the yard occupied by packers; the second into a small court surrounded with houses.—Next to these is Mercers' School; and lower down the well-known alms-houses founded by sir Richard Whittington, called God's House. A narrow passage leads to them; and at the entrance is a small stone gate, with a door which shuts every night. The gate is surmounted by a stone with a console on each side; and on it an inscription which is hardly legible, and should be cleaned. The fourth side of the court is bounded by the walls of St. Michael's church; which, as our female Cicerone, (April 16, 1814.) one of the inhabitants of the college, informed us, goes by so many names, that she could not exactly tell by which it should be called. The church, however, is a rectory, the patronage of which appears to have been in the prior and canons of Canterbury as early as the year 1285, when Hugh de. Derby was collated thereto. The church was rebuilt, and, by licence from Henry IV. in the year 1410, made a College of the Holy Spirit and St. Mary, by sir Richard Whittington, three times mayor, for a master, four fellows, clerks, choristers, &c. contiguous to which were alms-houses, for the accommodation of thirteen persons, one of whom to be chief, with the appellation of tutor. To encourage so laudable an undertaking, the lord-mayor and commonalty of London, in the year 1411, granted a spot of ground whereon to erect the intended college and hospital. But, sir Richard dying before the accomplishment of the work, it was soon after finished by his executors; who made laws for the good government thereof, by which, the master of the college (besides the accustomed rights and profits of the church) was to have an annual salary of ten marks; the chaplains eleven marks each; the first clerk eight marks; the second seven and a half; the choristers, each five marks a-year; the tutor of the alms-houses sixteen-pence a-week; and each of the brethren, fourteen-pence. This foundation was subsequently re-confirmed by parliament in the third and tenth years of the reign of Henry VI. and was afterwards suppressed by the statute of Edward VI. The alms-house, on its original foundation, still remains, and is supported by the Mercers' Company; and in their possession still remain the original ordinances of this charity, a very curious specimen of the style and manner of that remote age; but which is too long for us to copy.

Sir Richard, however, did not confine himself to acts of piety in his public benevolence; but proved himself a friend to learning, by building a library in Grey Friars, and by a liberal endowment to Christ's Hospital. Bartholomew's Hospital also owed much of its prosperity to his liberality; and Guildhall was greatly beautified and improved under his management, and at his individual expense. He also expended a considerable sum in building Newgate as it stood previous to the fire of London. So that here is most ample evidence of his princely beneficence, not in the institution of a single charitable establishment, but in the foundation, enlargement, or support, of many.

But the extensive charity and numerous acts of benevolence of this worthy citizen, could not secure an undisturbed repose to his ashes; for, as he was thrice mayor, so was he thrice buried. In the reign of Edward VI. the incumbent of the parish, a wicked and rapacious priest, imagining that Whittington's beautiful monument was a repository of something more valuable than his terrestrial remains, caused it to be broken open; but, being disappointed of his expected prey, robbed the body of its leaden covering, and re-committed it to the tomb. In the fol-

lowing reign the body was again disinterred, and inclosed in lead, and for the third time deposited in its sepulchre, where it remained unmolested till the great fire of London involved its resting-place in the common ruin. But Stow has preserved the epitaph, which, according to the taste of the time, is full of puns and rhimes in the true Leonine style. (See vol. xii. p. 463.) It begins thus:

Ut fragrans nardus famâ fuit iste Ricardus  
Albificans Villam, qui justè rexerat illam.  
Flos Mercatorum, fundator Presbiterorum;  
Sic et egenorum testis sit certus eorum, &c.

The words *Albificans Villam*, "whitening the city," allude to his name *Whittington*.

The old church was destroyed by the fire in 1666; after which the present structure was erected in its stead, and made parochial for this and the adjoining parish of St. Martin Vintry, the church of which was not rebuilt. It is a plain substantial stone building, lighted by a single series of large arched windows, placed so high that the doors open under them. The tower is divided into three stages, and is surmounted at top with carved open-work, instead of a balustrade: from hence rises a light and elegant turret, adorned with Ionic columns, which ends in a regular diminution, and supports the vane.

The south-west corner of the church is that of *Elbow-lane*, well denominated on account of its crooked shape. At the end of St. Thomas the Apostle, is *Cloak-lane*, at the north-east corner of which is an ancient church-yard, well railed, and planted with a few shrubs and one or two elm-trees. Sand-walks and grass-plots decorate this long-abandoned mansion of the dead; and nearly in the centre remains a handsome tomb in stone, elevated about three feet and a half from the ground, of an elegant form, and with an inscription which is nearly obliterated. At the sight of several flower-pots disposed in rows upon the flat slab of the tomb, we could not help indulging in the melancholy fancy of the owner, who, perhaps, tends them with care, and places them there to show, by a sad contrast, that every spring calls his roses and auriculas out of the ground; but that it is not so with man, who, once laid in his parent dust, never rises again. An old gardener, treading the pease he had just sown, assured us that sometimes a burial took place in this cemetery, which belongs to the parishes of St. Stephen Walbrook and St. John the Baptist: but we saw no appearance of any such thing.

*Dowgate-hill* received its name from an ancient gate, in the original wall that ran along the north side of the Thames, which was called the *Dwr*, or Water-gate, and was situated on the spot where the Roman *trajectus*, or ferry, passed. It became a noted wharf, and was called the Port of Dowgate. In the time of Henry III. and Edward III. customs were to be paid by ships resting there, in the same manner as if they rode at Queenhithe.

Crossing Dowgate Hill, we reach Cannon-street; but, ascending a little towards the north, we enter Walbrook, whilst concealed under our feet the old Nayad of the river *Wells* speeds her course to the Thames; this river, more properly called *brook*, originates on the north of Moorfields, and probably from the heights of Islington, following the vale which separates St. Paul's Hill from Tower Hill. It passed, anciently, through London Wall, between Bishopsgate and Moorgate, and ran through the city; for a long time it was quite exposed, and had over it several bridges, which were maintained by the priors of certain religious houses, and others. Between two and three centuries ago it was vaulted over with brick; the top paved, and formed into a street; and, for a long time past, known only by name. It is mentioned in a charter of the Conqueror to the College of St. Martin le Grand; and its course is most accurately marked by Stow, who tells us that barges were rowed up to Bucklersbury from the Thames by the entrance of the tide into this brook.

We are too near the church of St. Stephen not to take a survey of it in our way. It is dedicated to the proto-martyr of that name. It appears from ancient records, that



that a church dedicated to the same patron was situated near this spot, but on the opposite side of the stream, prior to the year 1135, when it was given to the monastery of St. John in Colchester, by Eudo, sewer to Henry I. How long the patronage was possessed by this fraternity, or for what consideration they parted with it, does not appear; but in 1428 it belonged to John duke of Bedford; in which year, Robert Chichely, mayor, gave a plot of ground on the east side of the water-course, two hundred and eight feet and a half in length, and sixty-six in breadth, to the parish of St. Stephen, to build a new church thereon, and for a church-yard; and in the following year he laid the first stone of the building, for himself, and the second for William Stondon, a former mayor, deceased, who left money for the purchase of the ground, and towards the charge of the building; the remainder being supplied by Chichely. Robert Whittington, draper, afterwards made a knight of the bath, purchased the advowson of this rectory from the duke of Bedford in 1432. From him it passed into the family of Lee, two of whom of the name of Richard, supposed to be father and son, the former being a knight and the latter an esquire, served the office of mayor in 1460 and 1469. The last of these presented to it in 1474; after which he gave it to the Grocers' Company, in whom it still remains.

The old church being destroyed by the fire of London, the present edifice was erected in its stead, by sir Christopher Wren; and is considered by many to be the masterpiece of that great architect: it is even asserted that Italy cannot produce any modern structure equal to this in taste, proportion, elegance, and beauty. It is a noble building of stone; but its external beauties are hid from the sight by the adjacent buildings, except the steeple, which is square to a considerable height, and is then surrounded with a balustrade, within which rises a very light and elegant tower in two stages; the first adorned with Corinthian, and the second with Composite, columns; and covered with a dome, from which rises a vane. The principal beauties of this church are, however, within; where the dome, which is spacious and noble, is finely proportioned to the church, and divided into small compartments elegantly decorated, and crowned with a lantern; the roof, which is also divided into compartments, is supported by very noble Corinthian columns, raised on their pedestals. It has three aisles, and a cross-aisle; is seventy-five feet long, thirty-six feet broad, thirty-four feet high to the roof, and fifty-eight feet to the lantern. On the sides under the lower roof are circular windows, but those which enlighten the upper roof are small arched ones. The altar-piece is the work of the best historical painter that England can boast of, (though the artist was born in America;) and has long received the deserved tribute of admiration from all who have seen it. The subject is the taking up of the body of St. Stephen after he had been stoned to death. (See Acts viii. 2.) The body of the young deacon is beautifully drawn and coloured; and the groups which surround it are composed, placed, and executed, in a masterly style. This is one of the first paintings which, since the iconoclastic fury that raged at several periods of times after the reformation, have found their way to the altars of our churches. At p. 407, 8, we have related the circumstance which occasioned this church to be decorated with an altar-piece. When the subject was agreed upon, Dr. Wilson asked Mr. West how much such a performance would cost; and most readily engaged to pay 700l. in part of which he immediately gave a draft for 150l. Dr. Wilson died soon after; and, no order having been found among his papers to pay the remaining sum, Mr. West, as we understand, never received any thing more for this excellent painting.

After the fire of London, the new church of St. Stephen was made the parochial church of this parish and that of St. Bennet Sherehog, in Cheap ward, the church of which was not rebuilt.

Adjoining to the church-yard of St. Stephen, is Wall-

brook-house, the old mansion of the family of Pollexfen; which, sharing the common fate of the general conflagration in 1666, was rebuilt in the following year by sir Henry Pollexfen, chief justice of the Court of Common Pleas in the reign of Charles II. It is built on lofty brick arches, of exquisite workmanship and great antiquity; and may be reasonably supposed to stand on the site of some religious house formerly dedicated to St. Stephen. It is an elegant brick building, of the Corinthian order, with double windows. Nothing of the ancient grandeur of the house remains in the inside but the mouldings and a beautiful carved stair-case.

Although we are near the Mansion-house, we shall leave the description of it for another part of our perambulations, and follow again the straight line to the east, by entering Cannon-street. To give an idea of the busy look of the greatest part of this street would be nearly impossible—for it is a most frequented thoroughfare from the warehouses in Thames-street, and a sort of by-way to avoid the greater bustle of it.

The first object which attracts the sight is St. Swithin's church, at the corner of the lane to which it gives its denomination. By ancient records it appears that there was a church on that spot in the year 1331; and it seems that, even long before this time, St. Swithin, bishop of Winchester, and chancellor to king Egbert, who died in the 9th century, had a church there dedicated to his name. The old structure was destroyed by the fire of London, and the present edifice erected in its stead.—The old church, which had been rebuilt in 1420, contained several curious epitaphs, among which we remark that of sir John Hart, some time lord-mayor of London, and a benefactor to the church; and that of Bartholomew Barnes, citizen-mercer, placed on a pillar in the middle aisle.—They are both in Latin, and of a style well known at the beginning of the seventeenth century.

Against the present fabric, in the centre of the south wall, is placed the famous and really-mysterious London Stone, which resisted, though not without being somewhat impaired, the great conflagration, and was carefully dug out of the rubbish. We have examined it very closely; and find it to be of the nature of granite, or original quartz: it yields fire when smartly struck with the steel, and is of a close and compact internal texture. This stone, which has been carefully preserved for many ages, is of great antiquity, as appears from its being mentioned by the same name so early as in the time of Ethelstan king of the West Saxons. It formerly stood nearer the channel opposite the same place; and, being fixed upright in the ground, was so well fastened with bars of iron, that it was perfectly secure from receiving any damage by carriages. Its age cannot be traced; but, from the most reasonable conjecture, it is supposed to be of Roman origin; for, as the ancient Roman colony extended from the river Thames no higher than Cheapside, and Watling-street was the principal street, or Prætorian way; it has been supposed, with great probability, that this stone was the centre from whence they measured the distances to their several stations throughout England, more especially as these distances coincide very exactly. Some of our forefathers were of opinion, that it was set up in signification of the city's devotion towards Christ, and of his care and protection of the city, under the type of a stone, on which it was founded, and, by his favour, so long preserved. This is the idea which prevails in these lines of Fabian, in praise of London:

It is so sure a stone that that is upon sette,  
For, though some have it thrette  
With manafes-grym and grette,  
Yet hurte had it none:  
Chryste is the very stone  
That the cite is set upon,  
Which from al hys foone  
Hath ever preserved yt.

Another conjecture is; that, as this street was anciently the



the principal one in the city, as Cheapside is at present, London-stone might have been the place where public proclamations and notices were given to the citizens. This conjecture has, indeed, some argument to support it; for, in the year 1450, when Jack Cade, the Kentish rebel, came through Southwark into London, he marched to this stone, where was a great concourse of people, among whom was the lord-mayor. On this stone Jack Cade struck his sword, and said, "Now is Mortimer lord of this city." It is also said, that this stone was set up for the tendering and making of payments by debtors to their creditors, at their appointed days, till, in after-times, they were usually made at the font in St. Paul's church, or the Royal Exchange. These, however, are but conjectures; nor can we say more, than that it is very singular, so much care should have been taken to preserve the stone, and so little to preserve the history of its origin. But it is with this sort of palladium as with others of the same kind and of the remotest antiquity—Veneration knelt before it; and, had she found what it really was, Veneration would have disappeared, and, the charm of mystery being once broken and unbound, the simple thing would have proved what it merely was in reality, an unknown stone, like many which unrevered and unnoticed lie at the foot of the hill, from which they originally rolled, either at some convulsion of nature in the place, or according to the system of gravitation which in a rotative motion sends heavy bodies to the circumference. Some centuries hence, perhaps, when the dark veil of ignorance revisits this island, as it probably may, Superstition will take hold of this subject, and make much more of it than has been done before, grounding her respect upon the very notice which we have taken of it. In this manner have thousands of prodigies been hauded to posterity; and, like fame, gathered strength as they went on: *Vires acquirit eundo*. Livy would never have employed his pen in recording the talking of cows, the sweating of marble statues, and other portentous nonsense, had not his cotemporaries been so plainly persuaded of the truth of these reputed facts, that his passing them unnoticed would have brought his annals into downright discredit.—A survey of London without some dissertation upon London-stone would share the same fate, and be stamped with the same anathema which the historian of Padua would have incurred had he not sacrificed blindly to the taste of his countrymen.

In Swithin's-lane, behind the church, is Salters' Hall, a plain brick building, part of which is let to a congregation of Presbyterians. In this hall are portraits of several kings of England, and a remarkable fine one of the great architect sir Christopher Wren, as large as life.

We are here, and indeed on the whole declivity of the hill from St. Paul's to the Tower, as if in a forest of towers and spires, so numerous are the churches all around. It is hardly possible to guess why our ancestors were so fond of building religious edifices; for, in fact, London, three centuries ago, was not half so big as it is now, and yet the number of places of worship was much greater, if we except the small dissenting meeting-houses, which rise like mushrooms in all parts within and without the city.

We have hardly lost sight of St. Swithin when we come to St. Mary Abchurch; so called from its dedication to the Virgin Mary; the additional epithet of Ab, or Upchurch, being given to it. It appears that a church, dedicated to St. Mary, has stood upon this spot from very early times; and we find, that, in the year 1448, the patronage of it was in the prior and canons of St. Mary Overy; but, coming to the crown in the reign of queen Elizabeth, her majesty granted the perpetual advowson to Corpus Christi College, in Cambridge, in whom it still remains. The old church was destroyed by the fire of London, soon after which the present building was erected. It is built of brick, strengthened with rustic quoins of stone at the corners, with three windows on each side; the middle window rising higher, and taking up the space above, while the others, which are smaller, have round

windows over them: the window and door cases are also of stone. The tower is square, the corners of which are strengthened in the same manner as the body; and in the centre of each square is a window, ornamented like the rest. From the tower rises a dome, on the summit of which stands a plain spire, supported by a lantern-base. The altar-piece, which is very curiously carved, is deserving of notice. The length of the church is sixty-three feet, its breadth sixty feet, the height of the roof fifty-one feet, and that of the steeple one hundred and forty feet.

After the fire, the parish of St. Lawrence Pountney was annexed to this parish, the church of the former not being rebuilt. The old church was situated on the west side of Lawrence-Pountney-lane, and took the addition of Pountney from its great benefactor, sir John Pountney, lord-mayor in the years 1312, 1330, 1331, and 1333, who founded a College of Jesus and Corpus Christi, for a master, warden, thirteen priests, and four choristers; which was confirmed by Edward III. in the year 1346. The patronage of this church and college was in its own chaplains, until the dissolution of the college, when it came to the crown; and was granted, by queen Elizabeth, to Edward Dorening and Roger Rant, to be held of her and her successors, as an appendage of the manor of East Greenwich, paying a fee-farm rent of 4l. 6s. 9d. a-year to the crown, and 10l. annually to a stipendiary priest, serving cure there. Soon after this, the parishioners purchased the grant for 140l. by which means they obtained the advowson, which has continued in them ever since. The site of the old church is now used as a cemetery for the inhabitants of this parish.

Descending a little towards the Thames, we find, in Suffolk-lane, Merchant-Tailors' School, founded by that respectable company in the year 1651, for the education of boys. It was anciently kept in a house which belonged to the duke of Buckingham, and was called the Manor of the Rose; but, that edifice being destroyed by the fire in 1666, the present structure was erected upon the same spot. The school is a long and spacious building, supported on the east by stone pillars, forming a handsome cloister, within which are apartments for the three ushers. Adjoining to this is a library, supported also by stone pillars, and well furnished with classical and other books, for the use of the school; and on the south of the library is the chapel. Contiguous to these is a large house appropriated to the use of the head master. The school consists of eight forms, in which near three hundred boys have their education; a hundred of whom, according to the constitutions of the foundation, are taught gratis; a hundred more at 5s. and fifty at 2s. 6d. per quarter. The head master receives from the company a salary of 10l. 6s. per annum, and 30s. for water; besides the quarterage from the scholars, which renders his salary very considerable. The first usher has 30l. per annum, and the two others 25l. and all of them have proper apartments. Several of the scholars are annually sent to St. John's College, Oxford, which was founded by sir Thomas White chiefly for their use, since they have forty-six fellowships in it.

Nearly opposite Suffolk-lane stands the parochial church of Allhallows the Great. This church, which is dedicated to All Saints, was originally called Allhallows ad Fœnum in the Ropery, from its vicinity to a hay-wharf, and its situation among rope-makers; and Allhallows the More, (or Greater,) to distinguish it from another church, which stood a little to the east of it, and was called Allhallows the Less; but, being both destroyed by the fire in 1666, the latter was not rebuilt, and the two parishes were united. The church of Allhallows the Great was founded by the noble family of the Despencers, who presented to it in the year 1361; from whom it passed to the earl of Warwick and Salisbury, and at last to the crown. In 1546, Henry VIII. gave this church to Thomas archbishop of Canterbury, in whose successors it has continued









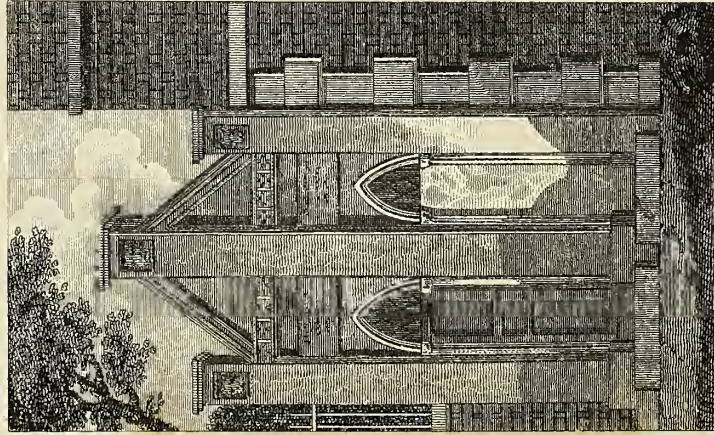
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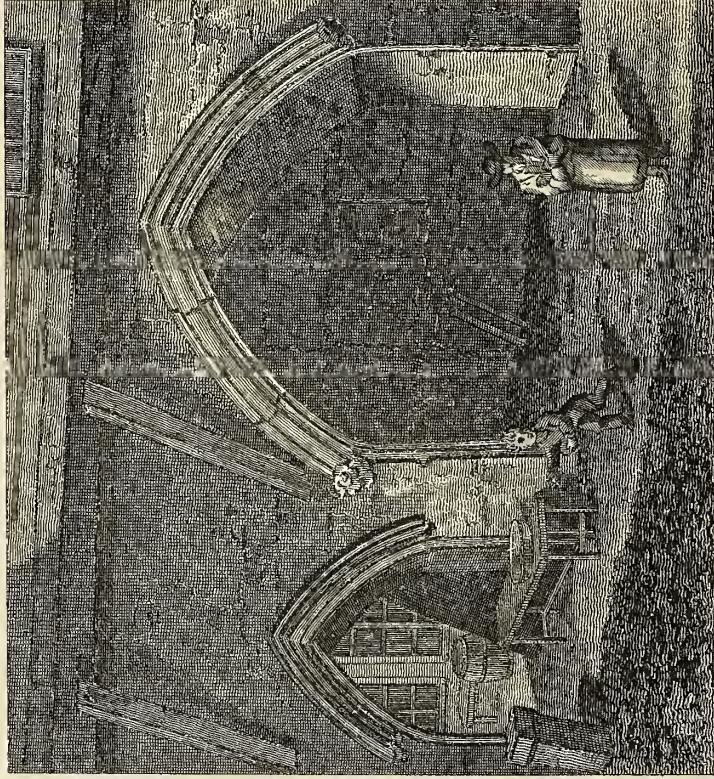
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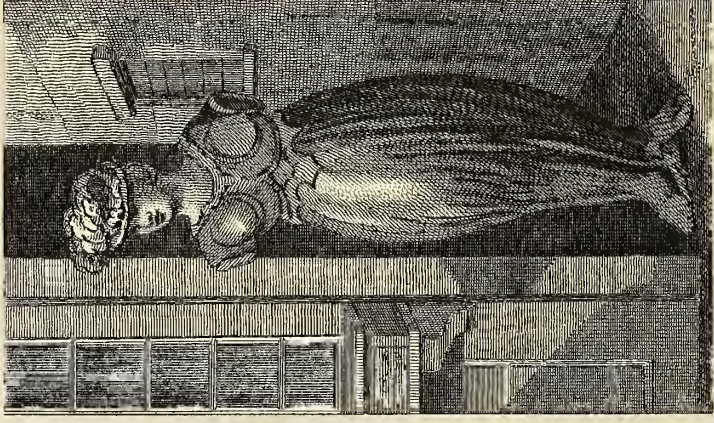
Milk Street.



Thames Street.



Dukes Place.



Shoreditch.

Fragments of Architecture, ancient & modern.

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nued to the present time. It is a rectory, and one of the thirteen peculiars, in London, belonging to the see of Canterbury.—The present edifice was finished in 1683. It was planned by Sir Christopher Wren, but not executed with the same accuracy that was designed. It is eighty-seven feet long, sixty feet broad, and thirty-three feet high, to the roof, built of stone, strong and solid. The walls are plain and massy, the ornaments few and simple, and the windows very large. The tower is plain, square, and divided into five stages, terminating square and plain, without spire, turret, or pinnacle. The cornice is supported by scrolls; and over these rises a balustrade, of solid construction, suitable to the rest of the building.

Allhallows the Less, which was also called Allhallows on the Cellars, because it stood over vaults let out for cellars, was also a rectory, the advowson of which was in the bishop of Winchester, until the college of St. Lawrence Pounteney was founded, when Sir John Pounteney purchased it, and rebuilt the church, which he appropriated to his college; by which means it became a donative, or curacy. At the general suppression of religious houses by Henry VIII. this church came to the crown; and, in the year 1577, Queen Elizabeth granted it to William Verle for a term of twenty-one years. Her successor James I. in the second year of his reign, sold it to Richard Blake; and others, and their heirs or assigns, in free soccage, for ever; since which time it has remained in private hands.

Two houses below the church has been lately built a small but neat watch-house, between a public house and the parochial cemetery. It consists of two compartments divided by three pilasters with flat stones at top, and under each a small bas-relief of a lion's head; a little lower is a neat ornamental frieze of roses in squares, and below the inscriptions. A water-tablet in the Gothic style over a sort of pointed window marks the door on one side as well as on the other; but a blank wall, which might have been made in imitation of a door, spoils the effect of the whole. It is an odd compound of divers orders of architecture; and yet it has a pleasing appearance when shaded by the church-yard trees waving majestically over this little funum-like edifice. We have therefore copied it on the annexed Plate of Fragments, fig. 1.—The inscriptions are as follows: "Dowgate-Ward Watch-house, erected 1807."—"George Scholey, esq. alderman. James Saunders, esq. deputy."

At a short distance from Allhallows church is the Steel-yard, the wharf originally allotted to the Hanseatic merchants, for landing and storing up their goods; and so called from a large Roman balance, or *steel-yard*, used, as in many other places, to weigh bales and other unwieldy loads of merchandise. This was the great repository of the wheat and other grain, the cables, masts, tar, hemp, flax, linen cloth, wax, steel, and other merchandise, imported by the Easterlings; and on this spot stood the *Guldhalla Teutonorum*, or Guildhall of the Germans. They called it *Staple-hoff*, or House of General Trade; and the importance of their commerce was such as to procure them great privileges; among others, the being free from all subsidies to the king, and also of having an alderman of London to be their judge in case of disputes. But, as the inestimable advantages of commerce became better understood, the impolicy of suffering foreigners to command our markets was too striking to be overlooked; and, on the one hand, the privileges enjoyed by these people were gradually abridged, while, on the other, every facility was given to the formation of commercial societies of natives, by which means the profits of their trade were, in time, diverted into English hands; and, consequently, Englishmen became the holders of the provisions and naval stores which had compelled our dependence upon them. At length, in 1597, their house was finally shut up, and its inhabitants expelled the kingdom. The Steel-yard is now the great repository of the imported bar-iron, which supplies our metropolis with that necessary article; and the yards and warehouses are filled with immense quantities of it.

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Nearly at the western extremity of the ward, in a lane, formerly called Friars'-lane, but now Joiners'-hall-buildings, is the hall of the Joiners' Company. This building is remarkable for a magnificent skreen at the entrance into the hall-room, having demi-savages, and a variety of other enrichments, curiously carved in waincoat. The great parlour is beautifully pannelled with cedar.

On the east of the Steel-yard, on the bank of the river, stood Watermans' Hall; but this was removed to the west side of St. Mary Hill in 1786. It is a neat building, partly of stone, and partly of brick. The principal entrance, which is at the south end, is through a rustic basement story, above which rise four pilasters, of the Ionic order, supporting a plain triangular pediment. Over the door are the arms of the company.

Several halls belonging to city-companies have been erected in this part of the city since the great-fire, most probably on account of their being near the Mansion-house and the Guildhall. Two of these are nearly opposite to each other in Elbow-lane. The first (in Little Elbow-lane) is a neat building, used as a hall by the Dyers' Company. Their hall, which was formerly situated near Old Swan-lane, in Thames-street, being destroyed by the conflagration in 1666, and a number of warehouses erected in its place, the company have converted this house into a hall to transact their affairs in. Over the arched doorway, which is shut by an iron gate, is a *perron*, or double flight of steps, of great height considering the narrowness of the street; and over the main entrance at top are the arms of the company well carved in stone. Several houses in this neighbourhood have preserved, since the rebuilding of that part of the town, very curious pediments, and round pent-houses with bold and often elegant carvings in wood.—There are two very curious ones in Lawrence Pounteney-hill, one of which is dated 1707.—Nearly opposite to Dyers' Hall (but in Great Elbow-lane) is the hall belonging to the Innholders' Company: it has a well-decorated front; with the arms of the company carved, we suppose, in wood, painted and gilt.

On Dowgate-hill is Skinners' Hall, a very handsome edifice, built with bricks of different colours: the hall-room is elegantly waincoated with oak, and the great parlour pannelled with cedar. The entrance to this building is through an arched doorway, in a modern stone-fronted building, in which are the offices for the clerk and other persons belonging to the company. In the beginning of the last century, the East-India Company had the use of this hall, for which they paid 300l. per annum.

At a small distance from this hall, but further to the north, stands Tallow-chandlers' Hall, a very handsome and spacious building, adorned with friezes, formed with columns and arches of the Tuscan order.

Opposite to Skinners' Hall is Chequer-yard, which runs into Bush-lane. It is principally occupied with warehouses and stables; and at the north-east angle is Plumbers' Hall, a small but convenient building.

There is a small but neat recess in Bush-lane called Scott's Yard, of which we must take a transitory notice, on account of a piece of tessellated pavement, and the remains of a large hall, discovered there at the depth of twenty feet, when the ground was opened for the rebuilding of houses after the dreadful havoc in 1666. The former was believed to have been the pavement of the Roman governors' palace, and the hall a Prætorium, or court of justice, supposed to have been destroyed in the great conflagration made by Queen Boadicea. These buildings seem to have been situated close to the river, and near the *trajectus*, or ferry; for without the south wall were four holes in the ground, full of charred wood, which might be the remains of the piles that had been placed there for the support of the city-wall.

We now return to our deambulation by Old Swan-alley, which derived its name from a public house just by the stairs where boats and wherries use to ply; in order to reach Cannon-street, in our way to the Tower, and enter Candel-



wick ward.—This name brings with it a mean idea. One is prone to think that the narrowness of the streets and lanes in this part of the city, forcing the inhabitants to use artificial light at mid-day, might have stamped this division with its odd name. But, recurring to ancient records, we find that, by a singular effect of the desire which tradesmen feel of emulating each other, or because “man is a gregarious animal,” the place was originally and entirely inhabited by tallow-chandlers, then vulgarly called *candle-wrights*, or makers of tallow and wax candles. Indeed, when we consider the quantity of wax and tallow tapers burnt in churches, chapels, and chantries, and the number of these chantries, chapels, and churches, in the city, we need not wonder if a whole ward was entirely devoted to the manufacturing of this sort of merchandise.

At the corner of St. Martin's lane there is the sign of a cannon upon its carriage, in remembrance of what originally gave name to the street, which ends at Clement's lane. Great Eastcheap begins at that point, and extends to Fish-street-hill. It took its name from a market kept there, to serve the east part of the city; which market was removed to Leadenhall-square; and, by the early account we have of Eastcheap-market, and its vicinity to the ferry, or Roman trajectus, over the Thames, we have great reason to suppose this to be the first, or one of the first, markets in London, even of a Roman date. In this state it continued for many ages, especially for victuals; as may be collected from the song called London Lickpenny, made by Lydgate the poet, in the reign of king Henry V. who, in the person of a countryman, coming to London, and walking through the city, says, “In Westcheap I was called on to buy fine lawn, Paris thread, cotton, umbel, and other linen clothes, and such like; (but not a word of silks.) In Cornhill, to buy old apparel and household stuff. In Candlewright-street, the drapers proffered me cheap cloth. In Eastcheap, the cooks cried, hot ribs of beef roasted, pies well baked, and other victuals. There was clattering of pots, harp, pipe, and sawtrie; yea by cock, nay by cock, for other greater oaths were spared. Some sang of Jenkin and Julian, &c. all which melody liked the passenger; but he wanted money to abide by it, and therefore gat him into a Gravefend barge, and home into Kent.”

Here stood the Boar's-head Tavern, immortalized by Shakespeare as the scene of the frolicsome exploits of sir John Falstaff and the prince of Wales, afterwards Henry V. But the mirth of these celebrated guests was not always confined within due limits; nor was the heir apparent the only one of the blood-royal who indulged in such excesses. His brothers John and Thomas, being here at supper, on St. John's eve, in the year 1410, raised such a riot in the street, between two and three o'clock in the morning, that the mayor and sheriffs were called up to quell it. This the princes took as an insult to their dignity. The magistrates were summoned before the king by the celebrated chief justice, Gascoyne; but they stood on their defence, and were honourably dismissed, it being proved that they had done no more than their duty, for the maintenance of the peace.

The boar's head is still stuck up, on the south side of Eastcheap, between the first and second floor, and on the division of two houses (both kept at present by perfumers) which have been built on the site of this famed tavern. The head of the boar is masterly carved, and seems as if of an older date than the inscription above it; (see Plate VII. b.) Having been painted in a sort of bottle-green or bronze colour, it appears at some distance as if made of brass and inlaid in the stone. The figure which we give of it is perfectly correct, the sketch having been taken on the spot, except that the ornaments round the slab of stone on which is the boar's head are now gone. We have been told that this piece of sculpture was after the fire of London placed over the chimney-piece of one of the principal rooms of the public house or tavern rebuilt on the premises of the ancient one; and that it is but re-

cently that it has been hoisted up again. This very stone might have been found among the *rudera*, the ruins of the conflagration, and preserved to this moment; the name and date having been added by those who fixed it up again. But the reader, aware that this is a mere conjecture, will be at liberty to form an opinion for himself.

Opposite, on the north side, is another stone bas-relief, set in the wall, and nearly facing the boar's head. It is the bold and animated figure of a Mermaid, with her usually-disevelled hair about her shoulders, and holding in her right hand something resembling a bundle of flax or a distaff. Was there any public house or tavern under the sign of the Mermaid in Great Eastcheap? or was this carved piece of work dug out of the rubbish after the fire, and placed there without meaning? did a comb-maker, or a fish-monger, live under it?—We have mentioned above, after Stow, that this street was once famous for revels and good eating. Perhaps, while the boar's head was beckoning and inviting the hungry passenger to feed upon flesh, the mermaid, on the other side, was calling them to the dainties of the ocean and of the river. However, the workmanship ought to be taken notice of, for the animation and spirit breathed by the artist into the figure of the female monster. We could not find any date that might have led us to guess when, where, and why, this was originally put up: but it is worth noting down, as it may, at some future day, become a sort of clue to direct the search of keener antiquaries towards some interesting facts belonging to the history of the metropolis. Many and many times we have passed in Great Eastcheap, and yet the boar's head never attracted our notice, till the etching in Pennant's London roused our curiosity, and directed our steps to the spot. But what a change this famous place has undergone!—The cries of victuallers are heard no more: the fumes of their viands do not now fill the air; and no jolly knight repairs there to quaff his sack, as in the days of Falstaff. Eastcheap is now occupied by a few plodding tradesmen; and is nothing but a sort of fag-end, less busy, less alive, less wide, than Cannon-street. Pennant mentions not the mermaid, but takes notice of “a swan cut in stone:” surely he could not have mistaken the *Nereid* for the *Bird of Leda*. However, the swan has hopped off, as is usual to the tribe; but the faithful sea-dame remains with us.

Crooked-lane, so well named on account of its turnings, is remarkable for the great number of shops devoted to fowling and angling, cages of all sorts, mouse and rat traps of all forms, and all works in which white or yellow wire is employed. Probably, as it is the nearest way to London-bridge, those who intend to go and enjoy the above-mentioned diversions of angling and bird-catching, taking St. Michael and Crooked-lane in their way, attracted there the vendors of the commodities and implements necessary for the rural sports.

The church of St. Michael stands on the east side of that lane, a little before the turning off into Crooked-lane. This church is of ancient foundation, John de Borham appearing to have been rector thereof in the year 1304; at which time it was a very ordinary small building, and stood amidst laystalls and slaughter-grounds used by the butchers of Eastcheap-market. But, in 1366, John Loveken, or Loufken, four times lord-mayor of London, obtained a grant of the ground where the laystalls were, and built a handsome and capacious church thereon. This church received considerable additions from sir William Walworth, lord-mayor in the year 1374, and formerly servant to Loveken. He likewise founded a college for a master and nine priests; settled his own new-built house, adjoining to the church, for a habitation of the said master and chaplains or priests for ever, and was buried in the north chapel by the choir. This church, however, being entirely destroyed by the great conflagration in 1666, the present edifice rose in its stead. It is a plain structure built with stone, and lighted by a series of large arched windows. The tower, which is at the west end, is carried square to a considerable height; and



and the uppermost window in the centre of each face is ornamented with a head, and handsome festoons; from hence, instead of a balustrade, is a range of open-work of the Gothic kind, with vases at the corners. From within this part the tower rises circular, diminishing in three stages, with an open buttress rising from each corner of the square tower to the top of the first stage: from this buttress rises a large scroll, which extends to the top of the second, and a smaller to the top of the third, stage, above which rises a short round spire of a peculiar kind, swelling out at the bottom, and then rounding off to a small height, where it is terminated by a gilt ball and vane. The length of this church is seventy-eight feet, its breadth forty-six, height to the roof thirty-two, and to the top of the pinnacle one hundred feet. The patronage was anciently in the prior and convent of Canterbury, in whom it continued till the year 1408; since which time, it has been in the archbishop, and is one of the thirteen peculiars in the city, belonging to that see.

In Clement's-lane, at the western extremity of Eastcheap, stands the parish-church of St. Clement, Eastcheap. This church was dedicated to St. Clement, disciple of St. Peter the Apostle, who was ordained bishop of Rome in the year 93; and it received the addition of Eastcheap from its situation, and to distinguish it from other churches dedicated to the same saint. The date of its foundation is lost; but William de Southlee appears to have been rector of it prior to the year 1309; and, before the suppression of religious houses, it was in the gift of the abbot and convent of St. Peter's, Westminster. But, in the first year of her reign, queen Mary gave the advowson thereof to the bishop of London, whose successors have continued patrons of it from that time to the present. The old church was burnt down in 1666, and the present building was erected in 1686. It is a neat, though plain, structure, of the Composite order, having a square tower, finished with a balustrade round the top. The length of this church is sixty-four feet, its breadth forty, height of the roof thirty-four, of the tower eighty-eight feet. It is a rectory, and the living was considerably augmented by the parish of St. Martin Orgar being annexed to it.

The church of St. Martin Orgar stood on the east side of St. Martin's lane, near Cannon-street, and was so denominated from its dedication to St. Martin, and from Ordgarus, who was supposed to be the founder of it. It was also a rectory, the patronage of which was granted by Ordgarus, with the consent of his wife and sons, to the dean and chapter of St. Paul's, about the year 1181, in whom it still remains; and, since the union of this parish to that of St. Clement, they present alternately with the bishop of London. The remains of this church being found capable of repair, after the fire in 1666, a body of French protestants, in communion with the church of England, obtained a lease of the tower and ruinous nave, from the minister and churchwardens, which being confirmed by parliament, they repaired it, and converted it into a place of worship for their own use.

Nearly facing the east opening of Crooked-lane, on the east side of Fish-street-hill, and before a neat square called Monument-yard, (well-known many years for the great fame of a dealer for whose tea people use to apply from all parts of the town, for goodness united with cheapness,) stands that noble fluted column of the Doric order called emphatically *The Monument*, erected to commemorate an event which never would have been forgotten, and to perpetuate a falsehood which never was believed; for, since it has raised its cloud-capt and gilt head into the skies, it has been pretty well ascertained that Pope, who describes it as "a tall lying bully," was right. Sir Christopher Wren, the architect, had proposed the statue of the king, Charles II. as a proper object on the top; but his design was rejected, and a small chaffing-dish, or inelegant fire-jar, bristling with iron spikes to prevent the fowls of the air from perching upon it, which looks at a distance like a full-grown artichoke, was substituted for it. The whole is

built of the best Portland stone. The height is 202 feet, the exact distance from the spot where the fire began; the diameter of the shaft is fifteen feet, the circumference consequently forty-five; and the pedestal is forty feet in height. Over the capital is a balcony with iron-rails, from which in a clear day the spectator may enjoy a charming prospect.

If we consider this piece of workmanship divested of prejudice, and with impartiality, we must confess that it is worthy the genius of the great man who conceived it.—The west side of the pedestal is adorned with curious emblems, by the masterly hand of Mr. Cibber, father of the poet-laureat, denoting the destruction and restoration of the city, in which the eleven principal figures are done in alto, and the rest in-basso, relievo. The first female figure represents the City of London, sitting among the ruins, in a languishing posture, with her head dejected, hair dishevelled, and her hand carelessly lying on her sword. Behind is Time, gradually raising her up: at her side a woman, representing Providence, gently touching her with one hand, and, with a winged sceptre in the other, directing her to regard the goddesses in the clouds, one with a cornucopia, denoting plenty, the other with a palm-branch, the emblem of peace. At her feet a beehive, showing that by industry and application the greatest misfortunes are to be overcome. Behind Time are citizens exulting at his endeavours to restore her; and beneath, in the midst of the ruins, is a dragon, who, as supporter of the city-arms, with his paw endeavours to preserve the same. Still farther at the north end is a view of the city in flames; the inhabitants in consternation, with their arms extended upwards, as crying out for succour. Opposite the City, on an elevated pavement, stands the king, in a Roman habit, with a laurel on his head, and a truncheon in his hand; and, approaching her, commands three of his attendants to descend to her relief; the first represents the Sciences, with a winged head, and a circle of naked boys dancing around, holding Nature by the hand, with her numerous breasts ready to give assistance to all; the second is Architecture, with a plan in one hand, and a square and pair of compasses in the other; and the third is Liberty, waving a hat in the air, showing her joy at the pleasing prospect of the city's speedy recovery. Behind the king stands his brother, the duke of York, with a garland in one hand to crown the rising city, and a sword in the other for her defence. The two figures behind are Justice and Fortitude; the former with a coronet, and the latter with a reined lion: and under the royal pavement, in a vault, lies Envy, gnawing a heart, and incessantly emitting pestiferous fumes from her envenomed mouth. In the upper part of the plinth the re-construction of the city is represented by builders and labourers at work upon houses.

On the other three façades of the plinth are Latin inscriptions. That on the north side is thus rendered. "In the year of Christ 1666, September 2, eastward from hence, at the distance of two hundred and two feet (the height of this column), a terrible fire broke out about midnight; which, driven on by a high wind, not only wasted the adjacent parts, but also very remote places, with incredible noise and fury. It consumed eighty-nine churches, the city-gates, Guildhall, many public structures, hospitals, schools, libraries, a vast number of stately edifices, thirteen thousand dwelling-houses, and four hundred streets. Of the twenty-six wards it utterly destroyed fifteen, and left eight others shattered and half-burnt. The ruins of the city were four hundred and thirty-six acres, from the Tower by the Thames side to the Temple church; and from the north-east along the wall to Holborn-bridge. To the estates and fortunes of the citizens it was merciful, but to their lives very favourable, that it might in all things resemble the last conflagration of the world. The destruction was sudden; for, in a small space of time, the city was seen most flourishing, and reduced to nothing. Three days after, when, in the opinion of all, this fatal fire had baffled all human counsels and endeavours, it



stopped, as it were by a command from heaven, and was on every side extinguished."

The inscription on the south side is translated thus: "Charles the Second, son of Charles the Martyr, King of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, Defender of the Faith, a most gracious prince, commiserating the deplorable state of things, whilst the ruins were yet smoking, provided for the comfort of his citizens, and ornament of his city, remitted their taxes, and referred the petitions of the magistrates and inhabitants to parliament; who immediately passed an act, that public works should be restored to greater beauty with public money, to be raised by an impost on coals; that churches, and the cathedral of St. Paul, should be rebuilt from their foundations with all magnificence; that the bridges, gates, and prisons, should be new made, and sewers cleaned; the streets made straight and regular; such as were steep, levelled, and those too narrow to be made wider; and that the markets and shambles should be removed to separate places. They also enacted, that every house should be built with party-walls, and all in front raised of equal height, and those walls all of squared stone or brick; and that no man should delay building beyond the space of seven years. Moreover, care was taken, by law, to prevent all suits about their bounds. Also, anniversary prayers were enjoined; and, to perpetuate the memory hereof to posterity, they caused this column to be erected. The work was carried on with diligence, and London is restored, but whether with greater speed or beauty, may be made a question. In three years' time, the world saw that finished, which was supposed to be the business of an age."

Thus far, we do not find a word of accusation against any set of men, against any party, and *all this is in Latin*; but around the pedestal, and along the fascia, creeps, like a snake, the following ungrounded accusation *in plain English*.—"This pillar was set up in perpetual remembrance of the most dreadful burning of this protestant city, begun and carried on by the treachery and malice of the popish faction, in the beginning of September, in the year of our Lord 1666, in order to the carrying on their horrid plot for extirpating the protestant religion, and old English liberty, and introducing popery and slavery." This inscription was expunged in the time of James II. but restored in the next reign.—We hope to see it erased once more, never to appear again.

This pillar was near seven years in building, an astonishing slowness, for which we are unable to account.—The cornice of the pedestal is adorned with the king's arms, the sword, mace, cap of maintenance, &c. enriched with trophies; and at each angle are winged dragons, the supporters of the city-arms. These fabulous animals are carved in stone, and truly deserve an unfeigned tribute of admiration. They are really executed, as to anatomy, as if nature had produced such beings; and they are so spiritedly put in attitude, that they appear as if copied after the life.

Upon the whole, this monument is, undoubtedly, the noblest modern column in the world; and, in some respects, may vie with the most celebrated ones of antiquity. In height, it greatly exceeds the pillars of the emperors Trajan and Antoninus, the stately remains of Roman grandeur, as well as that of Theodosius at Constantinople; for the largest of the Roman columns, which was that of Antoninus, was only 172½ feet in height, and twelve feet three inches in diameter, English measure.

Two objects will force us to deviate a few yards from our direct walk.—The church of St. Magnus, at the foot of London Bridge, is so called from its dedication to St. Magnus, who suffered martyrdom in the city of Cesarea, under the emperor Aurelian, for his steadfast adherence to the Christian religion. It is a rectory, the patronage of which was anciently in the abbots and convents of Westminster and Bermondsey, who presented alternately, till the general suppression of monasteries, when it fell to the crown.

In 1553, queen Mary, by letters patent, granted it to the bishop of London and his successors, in whom it still remains. The date of the foundation of this church cannot be traced; but the chapel of St. Thomas the Martyr, built upon the bridge by Peter of Colechurch, before 1209, was in this parish. See Plate II.

The old church was destroyed by the fire in 1666; and, when rebuilt, was made the parochial church, for this parish and that of St. Margaret, New Fish-street, which is annexed to it by an act of parliament; but part of the ground on which the old church stood was laid into the street for widening the passage. The body of the present structure was erected in the year 1676, but the steeple was not added till several years after. It is a spacious and massy stone building, plain, but well ornamented. The angles have rustic quoins, and the body is lighted by tall arched windows, over each of which is a cornice supported by scrolls, and between these is a cherub over the centre of each window. At the west end, on each side the door, rise coupled pilasters from a plain course, which support a pediment. The door on the north side is also placed under a pediment, but without the decorations of the other. The roof is hid by a kind of attic course, from which the tower rises square and plain; and from this the dial, which is richly ornamented, projects over the street. The course above this is adorned at the corners with coupled pilasters of the Ionic order, supporting an open work in the place of a balustrade, with large urns at the corners. From within this open-work rises the lantern, which has also Ionic pilasters, and arched windows in all the intercommunications. The dome rests upon these pilasters; and on its crown is placed a piece of open-work like that which surrounds the base of the lantern; on which is raised the turret that supports the vane. In this church is a peal of ten bells. The bottom of the tower offers a sort of postern for foot-passengers, (see p. 103.) whence the dial of the clock projects, and is thus rendered very useful to the great number of people who cross the bridge.

The second object which is worthy our attention is a large handsome building on the side of the river, opposite to St. Mary Overy, across the water. This large fabric is Fishmongers' Hall, and presents a fine appearance from the bridge. It has been erected since the destruction of the old hall by the great fire; and commands in return a beautiful view of the bridge and of the water. The front entrance to this hall is from Thames-street, by a passage that leads into a large square court, paved with flat stones, and encompassed by the great hall, the court-room for the assistants, and other grand apartments, with galleries. These are of a handsome construction; and are supported by Ionic columns with an arcade. The back front, or that next the Thames, has a grand double flight of stone steps, which lead to the first apartments from the wharf. The door is adorned with Ionic columns, and these support an open pediment, in which is a shield with the arms of the company. The windows are ornamented with stone cases, and the quoins of the building are wrought with a handsome rustic. In the great hall is a wooden statue of sir William Walworth, armed with his dagger; and also another of St. Peter: the former belonged to this company; and the latter is, with great propriety, adopted as its patron-saint. In the court-room are several pictures of the various species of sea and river fishes; and the arms of the benefactors to the company are emblazoned in painted glass in the different windows. Under the great hall are vaults let to wine-sellers; one of them is called *the Shades*, a place well known for many years to tradesmen in the neighbourhood, who repair there on an evening and enjoy themselves with draught-wine, which is sold by measure, not by bottle, and is generally much admired by men of taste in that line. The place enjoys the double advantage of being snug and warm in long winter-evenings; and cool in summer, when the fresh water breeze wafts over the perfumes of the Kentish meadows and Surrey hills.



The noise made by the wheels, as if reluctantly yielding to the impulse of the foaming waves, in the machines called the *water-works*, has assailed our ears, and claimed our attention. It is known that they supply the greatest part of the city with the wholesome stream of father Thames; and curious, that the invention originated in the mind of a foreigner, a Dutchman, named Morrice, who projected them first in the year 1532. See p. 33.—It has been often remarked, perhaps with some appearance of correctness, that generally we improve by our perseverance the works which the liveliness of foreign imaginations has conceived, but which their want of perseverance has left in the first stage towards perfection.—Mr. Serocold, in the beginning of the last century, made a new step towards improvement; and since that time Mr. Hadley has rendered them far superior to what they were at first.—The principle of motion is nearly the same as that at the famous machine of Marly; with this difference, that here the axle of the great wheel puts three engines in the double action of pressing and aspirating, whilst at Marly one only is moved by each wheel; which must necessarily make the work more complicated there than it is here. These works are placed before the first five arches on the north side of the bridge, and force the water into a reservoir a hundred-and-twenty feet in height. The quantity raised in the course of the day exceeds forty-six thousand hogheads; and it is conveyed through the different parts of the city by means of wooden pipes.—When curiosity applies to see the machine, a fee to the men belonging to the works introduces you, and gains you every explanation.

Taking leave of these, we return by Pudding-lane, the unfortunate spot where the great conflagration began, and extended to Pye-corner, near Smithfield; which coincidence, as accidental as it is curious, very probably gave rise to the idea that the "sin of gluttony" had been the cause of this dreadful visitation upon one of the finest cities of the world—but with as little ground of likelihood as that assigned on the monument. See p. 432.—"This lane was called anciently," says Stow, "Clother-lane, or Red-Rose-lane, of such a signe there; it is now commonly called *Pudding-lane*, because, the butchers of Eastcheape having their scalding-house for hogs there, their puddings, with other filth of beasts, are voided downe that way in their dung-boats on the Thames."—What a contrast with the old and fragrant name of Red-Rose-lane! Now all these have disappeared, and the smell of oranges in turn perfumes the whole of the neighbourhood.

Coming up this lane, we find on our right, near the top, the parish-church of St. George, Botolph-lane.—It is an ancient rectory, Robert de Haliwell having been rector in the year 1321; and was originally in the gift of the abbot and convent of St. Saviour's, Bermondsey, at whose dissolution it came to the crown. The old church was burnt down in 1666; soon after which the present edifice was erected. It is a neat small building of stone, lighted with a single series of tall windows; the steeple consists of a plain tower, ornamented with vases at the four corners. In length it is fifty-four feet, in breadth thirty-six feet, and its height, to the roof, is thirty-six feet; that of the steeple is eighty-four feet.

After the fire, the parish of St. Botolph, Billingsgate, was added to St. George's. The church stood in Thames-street, opposite to Botolph-lane, which was named from it. It was also a rectory, the advowson of which was anciently in lay hands; but, in 1194, was claimed by the dean and chapter of St. Paul's under a deed of gift from one Odgarus, his sons, and the mother of Dionysia Bocometer, who, with her husband, John, also claimed it. The dean and chapter, however, prevailed, and it continued in their gift till the church was annexed to that of St. George; since which time, the crown and the chapter present alternately. The church-yard is preserved in Love-lane.

At the top of Love-lane, in Little Eastcheap, where we

resume our easterly deambulation, is a square building, part of which is supported by wooden pillars, and forms a sort of piazza. It is called the Weigh-house; the original intent of which was, to prevent frauds in the weight of merchandise brought from beyond sea. It was under the government of a master and four master-porters, with labouring porters under them, who used to have carts and horses to fetch the merchants' goods to the beam, and to carry them back; but little has been done in this office of late years, as a compulsive power is wanting to oblige merchants to have their goods weighed.

This house was erected on the very ground where the church, cemetery, and parsonage, of St. Andrew Hubbard stood before the fire. The parish has been united to that of St. Mary at Hill; which is so called from its situation on the highest point of the arched sweep which rises at Walbrook-vale, now Dowgate-hill. The date of the foundation of this church is equally uncertain with that of most of the churches in this city: the first circumstances met with concerning it, are, that Rose de Wrytel founded a chantry in the church of St. Mary at Hill in the year 1330; and that Richard de Hackney presented Nigellus Dalleye to this living in the year 1337. Stow, on the authority of Fabian, who was living at the time, relates a singular occurrence at the rebuilding of this church. He says, "In the year 1497, in the month of Aprill, as labourers digged for the foundation of a wall, within the church of St. Marie-hill, neare unto Billingsgate, they found a coffin of rotten timber, and therein the corps of a woman, whole of skinne, and of bones, undiscovered, and the joynts of her arms plyable without breaking the skynne, upon whose sepulchre this was engraven: Here lieth the bodies of Richard Hackney, fishmonger, and Alice his wife; the which Richard was sheriffe in the fifteenth of Edward II. (1323.) Her bodie was kept above grounde three or four dayes without noysfance; but then it waxed unfavorie, and so was againe buried." Though this church was considerably injured by the fire in 1666, it did not require rebuilding, and was therefore repaired; after which the parish of St. Andrew Hubbard, the church of which was totally burnt, was united to it. It is a well-proportioned Gothic structure of stone, consisting of a plain body lighted by large windows, with a cupola in the middle, and a square tower, crowned with a handsome turret, at the end. The dimensions are, length ninety-six feet, breadth sixty; altitude, to the ceiling twenty-six feet, to the centre of the cupola thirty-eight, to the top of the turret ninety-six feet. It is a rectory the advowson of which appears to have been always in lay hands; and, in 1638, was purchased by the parishioners, in whom it has ever since remained; but, since the parish of St. Andrew Hubbard has been united to it, the duke of Northumberland, who is patron of that parish, presents in turn. Annually, on the Sunday after Midsummer-day, according to ancient custom, the fraternity of Fellowship-porters, of the city of London, repair to this church in the morning, where, during the reading of the Psalms, they reverently approach the altar, two and two, on the rails of which are placed two basons; and into these they put their respective offerings. They are generally followed by the congregation; and the money offered is distributed among the aged, poor, and infirm, members of that fraternity.

The parish of St. Andrew Hubbard was a rectory, formerly called St. Andrew juxta Eastcheap, and was founded before 1389; in which year the earl of Pembroke presented Robert Clayton to the rectory, in the room of Walter Palmer, deceased. On the death of the earl of Pembroke without issue, the patronage devolved to the earls of Shrewsbury, in whose family it continued till 1460, when John earl of Shrewsbury was killed at the battle of Northampton; and it came to Edward IV. After this, it had divers patrons, till Algernon earl of Northumberland presented Thomas Parker, who was burnt out in 1666. After the fire, the ground on which this church stood, with the church-yard, in Little Eastcheap, between Bo-



tolph-lane and Love-lane, and also the site of the parsonage house, were sold to the city of London, for public uses; some of the purchase-money was paid to the parish of St. Mary at Hill, towards the repairs of that church, and the remainder was appropriated to making a provision for the rector and his successors, in lieu of the parsonage-house.

At the south-east angle of Rood-lane, stands the parochial church of St. Margaret Pattens.—We find that, anciently, churches dedicated to the saint in vogue received a sort of sur-name, or nick-name: but this is rather a curious denomination. St. Margaret *Pattens* is so styled, we are told, on account of this neighbourhood being anciently occupied by patten-makers. But whether pattens were used at that time is a question; for it is a remark made by every-body who has travelled in France, that pattens are not commonly worn there as they are here: yet it is natural to suppose, that, had they been in common use here when the English were masters of part of that kingdom, and when the communication between the two countries was, consequently, much more free than it has ever been since, they would have been used by the Parisian females, and more particularly as the towns of France had no foot-pavement. This being the case, we shall take the liberty of suggesting to our readers a more probable explanation or derivation of this word. We find in Stow, that, while the old church was taking down and building anew, the oblations made at the *rood*, or cross, which was in the church-yard, were employed towards the expenses of rebuilding the church. Now it was customary here (and it is so now in Roman-catholic countries) to place small dishes, called *pattens*, to receive the alms and offerings of the faithful. It is therefore easy to suppose that the church, being rebuilt out of the money dropt into these pattens, was distinguished from others of the same name by that appellation. The word *patten* is still used for the silver round dish which covers the chalice in Roman-catholic chapels and churches.—This lane, however, was afterwards called *Rood-lane*, on account of a rood, or cross, set up in the church-yard of St. Margaret, when the church was pulled down to be rebuilt. This cross, or rood, was blessed in a particular manner, and privileged by the pope with many indulgences, for the pardon of the sins of those who came to pray before it, and to make their offerings towards the rebuilding of St. Margaret's church. But the church being finished in the year 1538, soon after the reformation; some people unknown assembled, without noise, in the night of the 22d of May in that year, who broke the rood to pieces, and demolished the tabernacle in which it was erected.

The original foundation of this church was in, or before, the year 1324; for the first rector upon record is Hamo de Chyrch, presented by lady Margaret Nevil on the 14th of June in that year; and the patronage thereof remained in the family of the Nevils till the year 1392, when it came to Robert Rikeden, of Essex, and Margaret his wife; who, in 1408, conveyed it, by agreement, to Richard Whittington and other citizens of London, together with the advowson of St. Peter Cornhill, and the manor of Leadenhall, &c. which agreement the said Whittington and others confirmed, in 1411, to the mayor and commonalty of London; in whom the right of presentation has ever since remained.—The old church was destroyed in 1666, after which the present one was immediately erected, and the parish of St. Gabriel Fenchurch was united to it. It is built part of stone, and part of brick, and consists of a plain body, sixty-six feet in length, fifty-two broad, and thirty-two in height. The windows are arched, with port-hole windows over them. Above the front door is a large Doric window, with a cherub's head, and a large festoon over it; and above these is a pediment, which stretches from the steeple to the end of the church. The tower rises square to a considerable height, and is terminated by four plain pinnacles, crowned with balls, and

a balustrade, within which rises a very solid spire, terminated by a ball and vane.

The parish of St. Gabriel Fenchurch, which was annexed to this parish after the fire of London, is in Langbourn-ward. It was also a rectory, founded before the year 1321, when John Paynell appears to have been rector; and was dedicated to the angel Gabriel. The patronage of this rectory was in the prior and convent of the Holy Trinity, within Aldgate, until the suppression of their priory, when it devolved to the crown, in whom it still remains.

After having surveyed so many churches, which, indeed, in this part of the city, are the only objects worthy of notice, we may meet with a curious contrast if we come down to Billingsgate.—We read in ancient authors, that the market-women of Athens spoke the Attic dialect with so much purity, or, however, had so good an ear, that they could presently distinguish a foreigner from a native. We do not contend that the Billingsgate dialect is the most correct of all places in London; but we must confess that the style of the people there is of a peculiar kind, and much resembling, in its tropes and figures of vulgar rhetoric, that of the *Macquerelles* and *Poissardes* of Paris. Many persons, not dealers, think that, by going there early in the morning, they may buy fish much cheaper than at the fishmongers' stalls in town; but they often find that they pay as much there as they would any-where else, and perhaps receive a complimentary harangue into the bargain.

For the history of this only fish-market, see p. 57 and 94. To which we have just to add, that the salmon which arrives from Berwick and other parts of our northern fishery is packed in boxes with ice. This practice has considerably prevailed of late, not only for salmon, but for all sorts of fish, which the fishmongers have the skill to keep fresh by the same means for many days, and even weeks, though epicures and men of refined taste soon find the difference. Every fishmonger of any repute at this time has his ice-house for his fish, as well as the pastry-cook for his venison, the confectioneer for his creams, and the nobleman for his wine.—As to the etymology of the word Billingsgate, we have nothing very plausible to offer. It has been said, that the port was contrived and built by *Belinus*, king of Britain, long before the Christian era; and the word being spelt *Belinsgate* as late as the end of the sixteenth century seems to countenance the hypothesis.

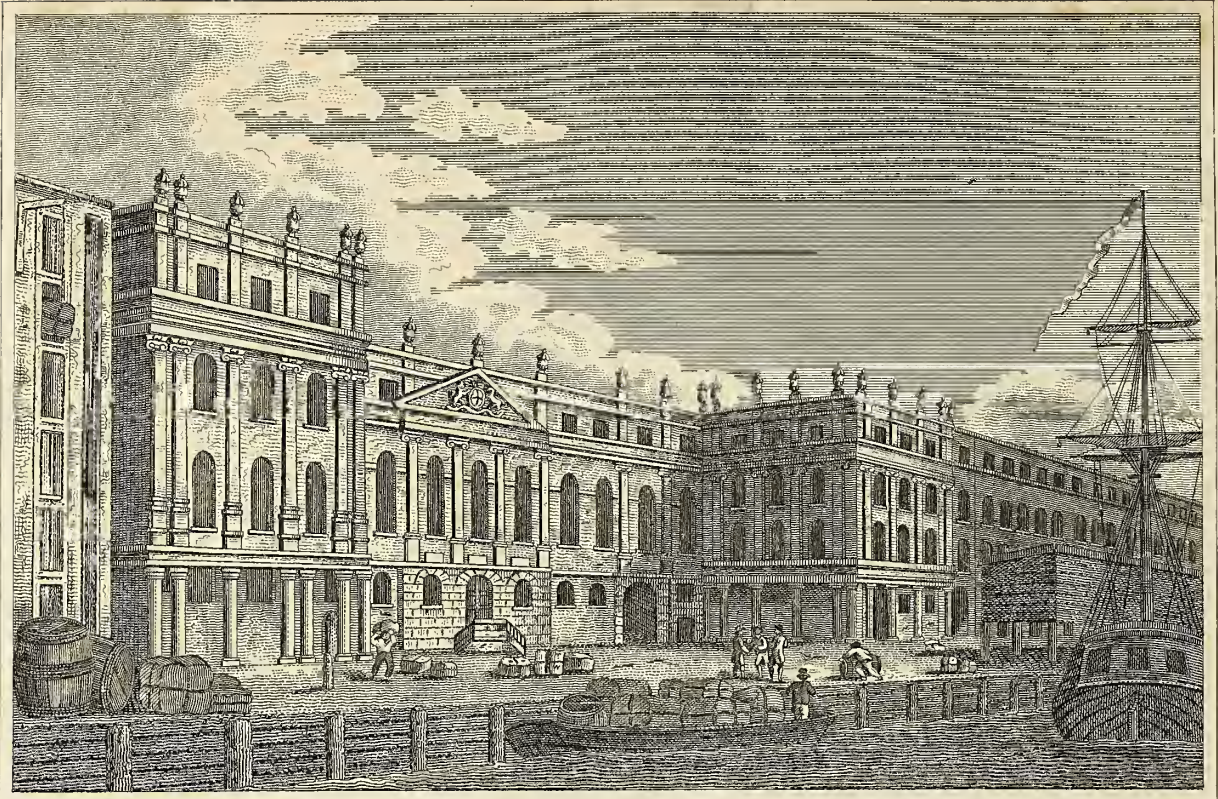
From Billingsgate, finding our way, as well as we can on the narrow pavement of Thames-street, and squeezing ourselves between posts and walls to avoid the dangerous contact of an immense number of carts, often entangled together, and going to and fro loaded with all sorts of merchandise, we ascend the hill which leads us to St. Dunstan's in the East, so called in contradistinction to the church in Fleet-street, dedicated to the same archbishop of Canterbury. The edifice rises on the brow of the hill with an elegant tower, and a church-yard adorned with trees, the common repair of sparrows and rooks, whose garrulous tribes awaken the neighbours in the morning, and tease them with their evening chatterings: thus it has a rural appearance, and reminds us of the country in one of the busiest spots of the town. The church, we are told, suffered greatly by the fire in 1666. It was repaired shortly after; though the steeple was not erected till about 1678. It is built in the style called modern Gothic, eighty-seven feet in length, sixty-three in breadth, and thirty-three in height to the roof; the steeple, which is constructed in the same style as the body of the church, is a hundred and twenty-five feet high. The tower is light, supported by outworks at the angles, and divided into three stages, terminating at the corners by four handsome pinnacles, in the midst of which rises the spire, on the crowns of four pointed arches; a bold attempt in architecture, and one proof, among many, of the great geometrical skill of sir Christopher Wren, who planned and built this elegant tower. The patronage of this rectory was anciently in the prior and canons of Canterbury, who,



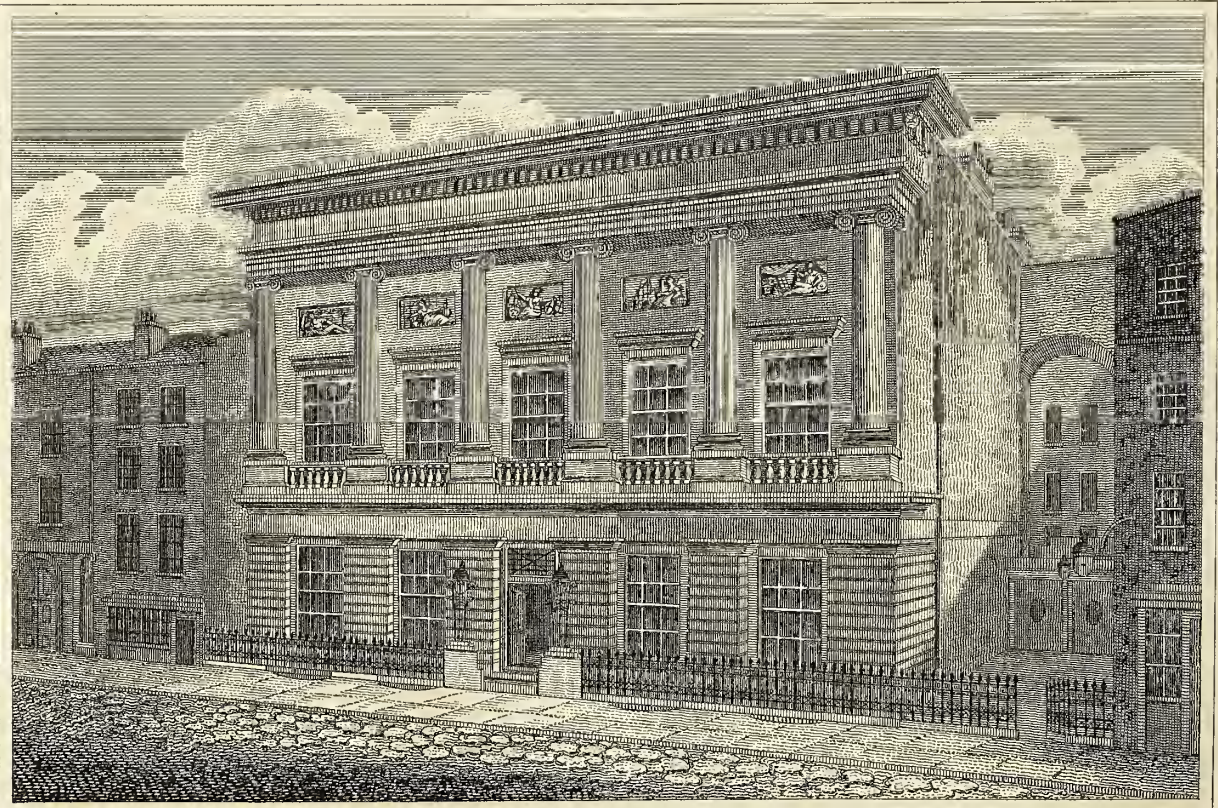




LONDON.



*The Custom House, burnt down, Feb. 12, 1814.*



*Commercial Hall, Mincing-lane, now used as a Custom House.*



in the year 1365, granted the same to Simon Islip, their archbishop, and his successors, in whom it still remains. It is one of the thirteen peculiars in this city, belonging to the archi-episcopal see of Canterbury.

On the north side of this church is the Coal-meters' office, in which are entered all ships that arrive in the port of London with coals. There are fifteen principal meters belonging to this office, who appoint a sufficient number of persons to measure the coals, to prevent impositions, which would otherwise happen, both in respect of the duty, and the measure to buyers. These principal meters have each four deputies, or labouring meters, who must be approved by the lord-mayor and aldermen, as upon them the care of weighing and measuring coals principally depends; their business being to attend each ship, to top the vats, and to return an account of the coals measured to the coal-office, in order to ascertain and collect the duties; for which they receive one penny per chaldron for all coals measured, and two pence per ton for all that are weighed. Both the principal and under meters take an oath, on their admission into office, to give just measure, without partiality or favour; to buy no coals, except for their own use, nor to sell any, while in that office; and not to take more for their trouble than was anciently allowed. See the article COAL, vol. iv. p. 712.

Farther to the east, is Harp-lane; on the east side of which is Bakers' Hall, a plain neat edifice, on the site of the dwelling-house of John Chichley, esq. formerly chamberlain of London. The room called the hall is beautiful, and pretty large, adorned with a fine wainscot screen, having four columns and two pilasters, with entablatures of the Corinthian order. At the opposite end are pictures of St. Clement, the patron of this company, and of Justice, between which are their arms, very large, and finely painted.

We have now to record another of those dreadful havocks which the element of fire has caused in London at different periods of time. Whilst our eyes were lifted up to survey, and our pen ready to describe, the CUSTOM-HOUSE, Providence bade it to disappear from the surface of the earth. The immense body of water that flows by it was of no avail to assuage or extinguish the devouring conflagration; and the river Thames recoiled hissing from the burning volumes of flame curling over its useless waves. Instead of telling our readers, as we intended, what the Custom-house is, we can only mention what it was—of so short a duration are the strongest works of man, whose life is shorter still! The edifice presented a noble appearance from the water, when seen through the forest of masts and chequered riggings of the vessels which cover nearly the whole surface of the noble river from one bank to the other, leaving but a narrow channel for the departure and arrival of ships, and the numerous wherries, crafts, and boats, circulating about to load and unload them, and rowing up and down the stream. It was built of brick and stone, and calculated to stand for ages. So strong were the walls, so deep the foundations!—Alas! one night destroyed the whole. It had underneath and on each side large warehouses for the reception of goods on the public account; and that side of the Thames is lined with wharfs, quays, and cranes, for landing them.

It was a hundred and eighty-nine feet in length; the centre twenty-seven feet deep, and the wings considerably more. The centre stood back from the river; the wings approaching much nearer to it; and the building was judiciously and handsomely decorated: under the wings was a colonnade of the Tuscan order, and the upper story was ornamented with Ionic columns and pediments. It consisted of two floors, in the uppermost of which was a spacious room, fifteen feet high, almost the whole length of the building: this room was called the Long Room, and there sat the commissioners of the customs, with their officers and clerks. The inner part was well disposed, and sufficiently lighted; and the entrances were so well contrived, as to answer all the purposes of convenience for the trans-

action of such extensive business. Of this building, therefore, we have preserved a correct view on Plate VIIc.

The government of the Custom-house is under the care of nine commissioners, who are intrusted with the whole management of all his majesty's customs in all the ports of England; and also the oversight of all the officers belonging to them. Each of these commissioners has a salary of a thousand pounds per annum, and both they, and several of the principal officers under them, hold their places by patent from the king. The other officers are appointed by warrant from the lords of the treasury.—It appears that, in ancient times, the business of the Custom-house was transacted in a more irregular manner at Billingsgate; but, in the year 1559, an act being passed, that goods should be no-where landed but in such places as were appointed by the commissioners of the revenue, this was the spot fixed upon for the entries in the port of London, and here a custom-house was ordered to be erected. It was, however, destroyed by the fire of London in 1666; and was rebuilt, with additions, two years after, by Charles II. in a much more magnificent and commodious manner, at the expense of ten thousand pounds; but, that being also destroyed in the same manner, in 1718, the late structure was erected in its stead. Thus the Custom-house has been three times the prey of the flames; in 1666, in 1718, and in 1814.

The fire happened on Saturday, February the 12th. It broke out at a quarter past six o'clock in the morning, and is understood to have originated from a fire-flue of one of the offices of business, adjoining a closet attached to the house-keeper's apartments, on the two-pair of stairs. From the time of the morning at which it began, and from the instant burst of flame from the back part of the building, there can be little doubt of the fire having been lumbering in a latent state throughout the principal part of the previous evening. The porter of the house was the first person who discovered it. He was going up stairs for a key to admit him, as usual, to a part of the house that communicated with the offices; and when on the second floor he heard a crackling of fire, and saw a flame breaking from the ceiling; he instantly rushed into the room, which was that in which colonel Kelly slept, whom he found standing by the bed-feet, the curtains in a blaze, and the flame pouring from the above-mentioned closet. By this time the whole room was on fire; and a Mr. Drinkald had given the alarm from the quay, towards which the windows of this room looked. The porter proceeded to call up the servants and the family; the colonel ran to a room adjoining his own, which was fronting the street; he was saved by a ladder with the greatest difficulty, and shockingly burnt in the face and hands. The account he gave is, that he was awakened by a smoke which filled his room, and almost in a state of suffocation he arose and opened his closet, for the purpose of getting at his dressing-gown, that he might hasten to alarm the family; but, immediately upon opening this closet, a volume of flame burst forth—the curtains of the bed and the windows caught fire, and thus encompassed with the blaze he was found by the porter. It appears that in this closet there was formerly a fire-place, which, for a long time, had been boarded up, the flue of which was connected with another in an office below. The colonel, at the moment, was carried to Mr. Lingham's, in Beer-lane; and the injuries he received, added to a severe asthmatic complaint which he caught in the retreat under sir John Moore, and which was much increased by the Walcheren fever, occasioned his death on the 23d of the same month.

The Miss Kellys most narrowly escaped, with only the covering of blankets; and captain Hinton Kelly made his way through the fire with his sisters, in the same unprovided state. The captain had but the day before returned from Brighton, where he had been for the recovery of his health, which had suffered greatly in consequence of long service in the West Indies. Most of the servants had previously fled to the top of the house, from which they



they were taken down by ladders. It is to be deplored, that two orphan sisters, whom Miss Kelly had brought up in her service, perished in the flames. Miss Kelly, by her shrieks, endeavoured to awaken them; for it was impossible for her to reach the chamber in which they slept.

The fire, according to the report of the firemen, would have been got under very soon; but, the explosion of some gunpowder having struck terror into the men who worked the engines, they fled, and left the flames for some time to range uncontrolled. This powder was for the use of the volunteer corps, and did not, it is now said, amount to a larger quantity than two barrels; but the assertion that there were many more barrels, threw an instant panic on all around, and throughout the neighbourhood. Certain however it is, that, had not this explosion taken place, the fire would not have spread. As it is, there is great consolation in knowing that many of the important papers of office were recovered; and several chests of valuables, with the principal records, were saved.

It is a remarkable circumstance, that the parents of the poor girls, whose lives fell a sacrifice to the devouring flames, both met a melancholy and premature end. The father, who was a labourer at the London Docks, was drowned in the canal; the mother then went to live servant to Miss Kelly at the Custom-house; and one night, about five years since, she went into the cellar, to get some tow to stuff a chair, when the watchman, hearing some dismal groans, alarmed the family, who, on going down, perceived the clothes of the poor woman in a blaze, and herself so dreadfully burnt as to cause her death the next day. Miss Kelly then took the eldest girl under her protection, sent her to school, and, about three weeks before, having completed her 14th year, put her on her establishment as assistant to the house-maid, and sent for the youngest sister from the workhouse, with intent to provide for her in a similar manner—but the ways of Providence are inscrutable to short-sighted man, and the late melancholy catastrophe has frustrated her charitable intentions.

An old clerk made many efforts, in the course of the day, to force his way through the ruins, to the place where he usually officiated. He was sure that some of his papers, from the care he had taken in their deposit, would be found safe, could he only get to the spot. On Sunday, with some workmen, he succeeded in getting through the ruins from the side next the river. The pick-axe at last struck on an iron chest—the rubbish was cleared away, the key introduced, and out came *four hundred guineas*, which the clerk carried off in his hat.

The Custom-house which was thus destroyed had already been condemned, and a contract made for erecting a new one. This contract was undertaken by Mr. Miles, a very respectable architect; and is in a state of forwardness. The first stone was laid in October last. The fatal illness which occasioned Mr. M.'s death, prevented his attending that ceremony; he died on the 5th of February; and, during the time his remains were consigned to *dust* in the family-vault in St. Helen's church, on the 12th, the entire range of building comprising the old Custom-house and warehouses was reduced to *ashes*, the ruins forming as it were a funeral pile to his manes.

From the site of the new Custom-house, which will occupy the greatest part of the quays opposite to Hart-lane on the east, and St. Dunstan's Hill on the west, we reascend the hill by Beer-lane, pass by Beckford-court, so named from the celebrated lord-mayor of London, and reach Tower-street, where we find the noble church of Allhallows Barking, on the west side, next to Barking-alley, leading to Tower-hill, and in Seething-lane. This part, this eastern verge of the city, is interesting and pleasant; and, had we not set our limits as close as the nature of our work bade us, we might long expatiate in this district, immediately under the Tower guns, and in their reach. We suppose this part to have been originally much awed by the presence of these neighbouring spitfires, and in constant fear of being called to order. The

church of Allhallows was distinguished by the name or epithet of *Barking*, on account of its having been in old times a vicarage in the gift of the abbess of Barking, in the convent of that place in Essex. See p. 398 of this volume.—After the dissolution of religious houses, Henry VIII. gave the advowson to the archbishop of Canterbury, in whose successors it still remains. So ancient was this church, that a chapel in it was, as records attest, founded by Richard I. This is one of the few churches which, being eastward of the spot where the fire in 1666 began, escaped its levelling fury. It is of considerable extent, being a hundred and eighty feet long, sixty-seven broad, and thirty-five high. The steeple is a plain tower, with a well-proportioned turret, the altitude of which, all together, is about eighty feet. Round the church is a battlement; and the body of it is well lighted by two rows of Gothic windows.—We take this opportunity to observe upon the general height of ancient church steeples and towers, that nearly all these elegant appendages of churches, which were originally, as they are partly now, devoted to the belfry, and calculated to call the parishioners to their respective duties, were rather low, as they seldom exceeded a hundred feet in height. From this circumstance we draw this natural conclusion, that the roofs of the houses were at those times much lower than they have been since. The reason is obvious; the greater the population, the higher the houses; and, if all the buildings of Salisbury were as high as the late Commercial Hall in Skinner-street, the noble and elegant spire of that cathedral would look like a pigny.

At the north-west corner of Seething-lane is Hart-street, in which is situated the parish-church called St. Olave, Hart-street; so denominated from its dedication to Olave, or Olaus, king of Norway, who took part with the English against the Danes in defence of the Christian religion; for which, and the punishment he suffered on account of this religion, he had the honour of being canonized. This church also escaped the fire of London, since which time it has had several repairs and additions; particularly a new portico, which is formed of Corinthian pilasters, with an arched pediment. The church is built of brick and stone, and the body of it forms an exact square of fifty-four feet in length and breadth; the height of the roof is thirty feet, and that of the steeple sixty. The windows are large and Gothic; and every thing exceedingly plain, except the portico. The tower consists of a single story above the roof, and is also very plain; but it is crowned with a well-proportioned turret.

We were directed to search in Hart-street for the remains of the supposed residence of the celebrated Whittington; but it is now either choaked up by warehouses and modern buildings, or entirely destroyed. We could find no trace of it; and must borrow our description from those who have seen it. "In the old leases, it is described by the name of Whittington's Palace; and the appearance of it, especially externally, leaves no doubt of the fact. It forms three sides of a square; but the original appearance of the lower part of it is much altered. Under the windows of the first story, are the arms of the twelve companies of London, carved in basso relievo; the one on the right is, however, concealed by a cistern. The principal room has the remains of grandeur: it is twenty-five feet long, fifteen broad, and ten high; the ceiling is elegantly carved in fancied compartments; the wainscot, which is also carved, is carried up to the height of six feet; above it is a continuation of Saxon arches, in basso relievo; between each arch is a human figure." *Lambert*.—This building escaped the inquiring eye of Stow; neither is it mentioned by Maitland; and, were we to set-up a conjecture, we might give our readers an idea that this supposed palace of the worthy mayor was, when it was lately taken notice of, exactly what it happened originally to be, some sort of warehouses. However, it must be observed, that the architectural taste did not improve in this country so rapidly as it did in Italy, or even in France; and that,



while palaces were building at Rome for every petty nobleman, our noblemen and rich citizens contented themselves with a snug house with a garden *en pente* to the Thames, or many small-paned glass windows looking towards the busy street.

Not far from us, in *Mark-lane*, we have the Corn Exchange, or market.—This lane was anciently the site of a free mart, or market; and is now enlivened by the presence of this place of resort for all who have any interest in the corn-trade. The street is well built, and chiefly inhabited by merchants of opulence. The Corn Exchange itself is a great ornament; and, though small, and having nothing to boast to the eyes of those who have seen the Corn Market at Paris, yet it is neat and elegant, and well adapted to the business it is intended for. Next to the street is an ascent of three steps to a range of eight lofty Doric columns, those at the corners being coupled; between them are iron rails, and three iron gates. These columns, and two others in the inside, support a plain building two stories high, containing two coffee-houses, to which there are ascents by two flights of stone steps, underneath the edifice. Within the iron gates is a small square, paved with broad stones: this is surrounded by a colonnade, composed of six columns on each side, and four at the ends. Above the entablature is a handsome balustrade, surrounding the whole square, with an elegant vase placed over each column. Round the colonnade is a broad space covered in, with windows in the roof, for the use of the corn-factors, who have each a desk, on which the samples of corn are shown. We cannot help animadverting, however, upon the useless show of cramped architectural display on a spot where room was more wanted than ornament, and upon the disproportionate height of the columns in front: the whole has the look of a small Grecian theatre; and, though it pleases the eye, does not satisfy the mind.—The market-days are Monday, Wednesday, and Friday.

Just by, parallel to this lane, and on the west, is *Mincing-lane*, anciently *Mincheon-lane*; the etymology of which we must leave to others, as we have not been able to substantiate our conjectures upon it. It is handsomely built, and well inhabited. On the east side, near the north end, stands Clothworkers' Hall, a neat brick-building, with fluted columns of the same, having Corinthian capitals of stone. The hall is a lofty room, adorned with wainscot to the ceiling, which is of curious fret-work. The screen at the south end is of oak, with four pilasters, their entablatures and compass pediment of the Corinthian order, enriched with the arms of the company and palm-branches. The west end is adorned with the figures of king James and king Charles I. as large as life, in their robes and regalia, richly carved, all gilt and highly finished. At this end of the hall is a spacious window of stained glass, on which are the king's arms, as also those of sir John Robinson, bart. his majesty's lieutenant of the Tower of London, lord-mayor of the city in the year 1663, and president of the Artillery Company.

On the same side of the way is an elegant pile of building, called the London Commercial Sale-rooms. The intention of this undertaking was to collect in one establishment all the conveniences necessary for the public and private sales of merchandise, and principally colonial produce. The building is divided into two principal parts. The front consists of an entirely-new edifice, the first stone of which was laid by the lord-mayor, on the 1st of June, 1811. It is sixty-four feet six inches long, and thirty-eight feet eight inches broad, with a stone front ornamented with six columns of the Ionic order, adopted with little variation from the Temple of Minerva Polias at Priene, as given in the *Ionian Antiquities*. These columns are supported on pedestals, which rest on the cornice of an inferior order, composed, not of columns, but of piers, forming the ground-story of the building. The spaces between the pedestals are filled up with balustrades, and above the windows are five reliefs, executed in artificial stone by Bubb; the middle compartment represents the City of London,

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the four others, Navigation, Commerce, Agriculture, and the Fine Arts. The whole of the ground-floor was intended for a magnificent coffee-room, at one end of which, between two scagliola columns, appear the stairs leading to the upper floors. The second building, behind the one already described, formerly consisted of three houses, which are now thrown into one; the lower floors are divided into a number of small rooms for counting-houses; the upper into five rooms, the largest sixty feet long, and communicating by a gallery with the rooms of the front building. Particular attention has been paid to the lights in these rooms; as, by a succession of skylights sloping to the north, the perfect light of day is admitted, and the sun excluded. The space between these buildings, and that behind the latter, on the ground-floor, are occupied by a number of rooms lighted in the same way. The buildings and alterations were designed by Mr. Joseph Woods, and executed under his direction.

The recent conflagration of the Custom-house has occasioned great alterations in the present use of this edifice, as the opportunities it afforded for transacting public business determined the commissioners to take the principal part of the buildings for that purpose, till the new Custom-house is finished. We have therefore given a view of it, in conjunction with the old Custom-house, on Plate VII c. and the bas-relief in the centre, representing the City of London and her attributes, is shown on a larger scale on Plate VII b\*. fig. 2.

Passing through a narrow court, we return to Hart-street, which has been lately considerably improved by new buildings, and chiefly by the round corner which widens the opening considerably. This new mode of blunting, by a round sweep, the ancient sharp elbow of a street, deserves our peculiar notice, and is worthy of the highest praise. This circular shape is now very generally adopted; and its convenience is no-where more evident than in this region of narrow and crowded streets.

*Hart street*, the name of which originates most probably from one of those numerous public-houses which adopted the badge of Richard II. (see p. 112.) opens into Crutched Friars, so called from a convent of those religious denominated *Frates Sanctæ Crucis*, the Brothers of the Holy Cross. We suppose these friars to have been originally under the rule of St. Anthony; and, though we differ here from our precursors, we will in a few words explain our reasons. The monks of the establishments made by the great hermit of the Thebaïd in Egypt, used to wear, in remembrance of their old and infirm founder, the figure of a *crutch* upon their garment; (see the article KNIGHTHOOD, vol. xi. p. 788.) from whence they were called most likely *Crutched Friars*. This crutch nearly resembling the letter T, the friars who wore it were called in France *Théatins*; and, indeed, a quay on the bank of the Seine has preserved that name since the destruction of religious houses. Ever fond of puns, the Parisians used to say that "these friars took their tea (T) before breakfast," alluding to the *crutch* shaped like a T upon their dress. It is not generally known that the Greek cross is in the shape of a T.

The convent erected in this neighbourhood, was founded in the year 1298, by Ralph Hosier and William Sabernes, who became friars in it. We are told that they wore a red cross on their garment, which must have been mistaken for the *crutch*. A prior of this house, not so observant as he should have been of the rules of continence prescribed by the order, was caught in the apartment of a courtesan by some of the visitors appointed by the vicar-general Cromwell, (the worthy predecessors, we suppose, of the worthier members and serrets of the worshipful Society for the Suppression of Vice.) The busy and scandalized visitors, however, disposed to listen a little to the whispers of enticing mammon, pocketed a bribe of thirty pounds, a great sum for hush-money at that time; but even this was not sufficient to quiet the consciences of these worthy visitors. They took the money, as we said—but still reported



ported the transaction to their employer; and, the matter being blown, the convent was dissolved; and Henry VIII. granted the house to sir Thomas Wyatt, who built a handsome mansion on the site.—The friars' hall was converted into a glass-house, the first manufacture of that article in England; which, on the 4th of September, 1575, was destroyed by fire. By a curious coincidence, if our hypothesis upon the T is right, on the site of this ancient religious house now stands a most magnificent warehouse for tea, belonging to the East-India Company; it is a regular oblong square of two hundred and fifty feet, by a hundred and sixty; inclosing a court of a hundred and fifty feet, by sixty, entered by a noble arched gateway, surmounted and adorned with the arms of the company, supported by two lions.—In the same street is another tea-warehouse belonging to the same company, which was formerly the site of the Navy-office, a building of no beauty; in which the comptroller of the navy used to reside, and all business respecting the payment of seamen's wages, and many other naval matters, were transacted; but this office is now removed to Somerset-house.—Speaking of the tea-warehouse, Mr. Pennant says, "I am told that the searachers, who have frequent occasion to thrust their arms deep into the chests, often feel numbnesses and paralytic affections."—If such an idea were to be spread abroad and get credit, surely the company would suffer much; for, if the paralyzing property of the green leaf is so great as to benumb the muscular limb of an athletic porter, what must be its effect upon the tender and easily-vibrating fibres of a delicate lady, when she sips its infusion at least twice a-day? If any such accident ever happened, it must have been owing to the air fixed and confined in the boxes, and not to the harmless leaves.

Ere we pay our visit to the Tower of London, which, though not in the city, seems to belong to it as a badge does to a collar, we must rove a few steps, and enter Port-foken-ward, which takes its name from being entirely without the ancient walls of the city; the word *Portfoken* signifying, in the old Saxon dialect, "a liberty or franchise at the gate." It has something chivalrous in itself, and pleases the mind of the fond antiquary by the recollection of a fraternity, or company, of thirteen knights, who received their ground from a grant signed by king Edgar, in reward of their distinguished valour; from this circumstance it was called *Knighten Guild*.—In the year 1115, the descendants of these knights surrendered all the lands and soke belonging to this guild, to the priory of the Holy Trinity within Aldgate; from which time the prior of that convent was admitted as one of the aldermen of London to govern the land and soke, who, according to the custom of the city, sat in the court, and accompanied the mayor and aldermen in public processions, clothed in scarlet or such other livery as they used, until the year 1531, when the priory was surrendered to king Henry VIII. who gave it to sir Thomas Audley, lord-chancellor, by whom the church was pulled down. Since this dissolution, the ward of Portfoken has been governed by a temporal person, elected by the citizens, as the aldermen of the other wards are. The ancient bounds of the knighten guild extended further to the south and east than those of the present ward, and included all East Smithfield, St. Catherine's, with the mills founded in king Stephen's days, and the outward stone wall and new ditch of the Tower, which were made in the time of Richard I. by William Longchamp, bishop of Ely; but part of these were afterwards forcibly withheld by the constables of the Tower.

The *Minories*, so called from a convent of nuns of the order of St. Clare, who setting themselves at the bottom of the list of nuns, called themselves *Minorefs*, (leaving behind, however, the humblest of all, the *minims*, or lowest,) is now a large open street.—The convent of these minoresses was founded by Blanch queen of Navarre, wife of Edmund earl of Lancaster, in 1293.

The view at the bottom of the *Minories* meets the venerable old Tower and its battlements; and the shops and

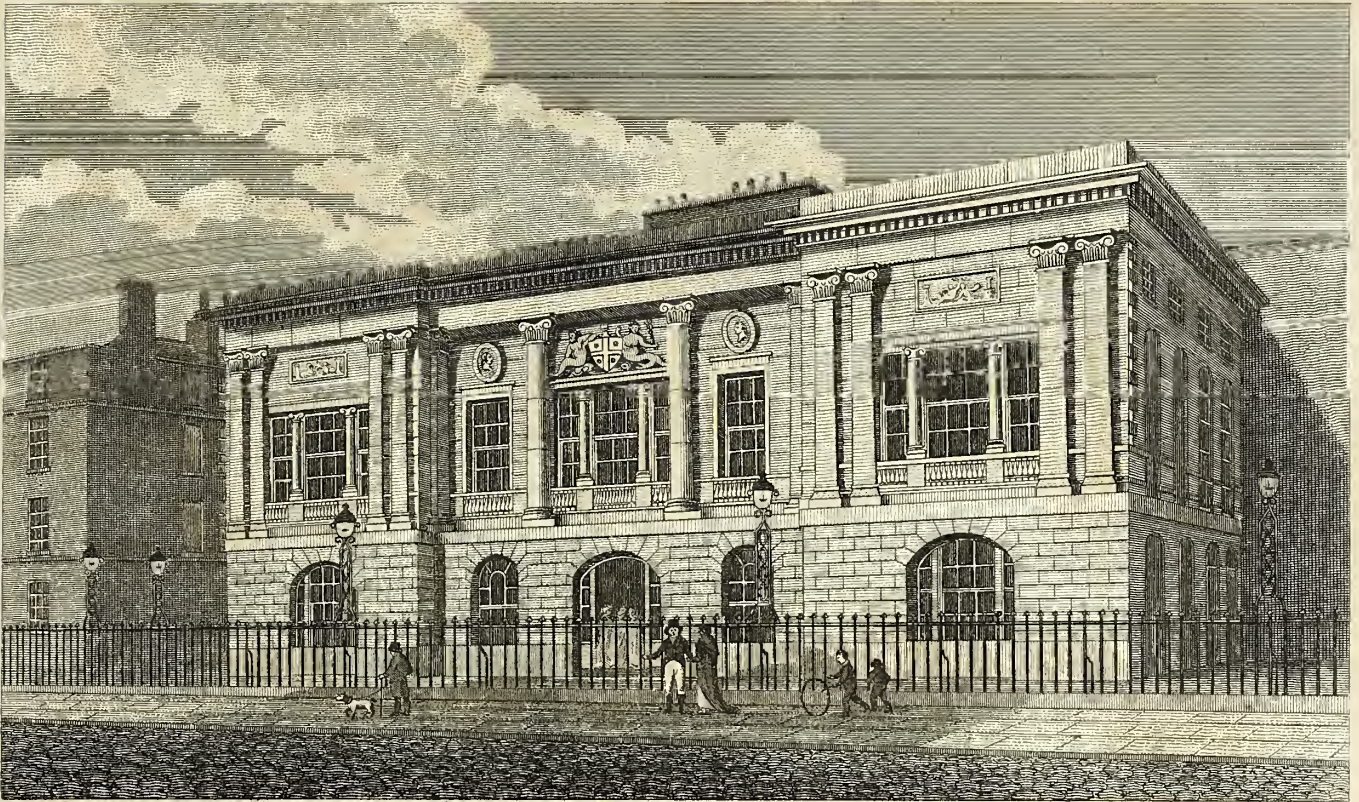
buildings on each side have a more than neat, indeed an elegant, appearance. The trade of this neighbourhood is enlivened by the frequent calls of our honest tars, who, ever ready to part with their rhino, do not always find a dealer so honest as themselves; and, partaking the character of the birds who follow them in their marine excursions, are easily *gulled* by landmen.

The west side of the street has been entirely rebuilt with very large and uniform houses; and several new streets have been made leading to Crutched-friars. On this side, also, are America-square, the Crescent, and the Circus, inhabited principally by eminent merchants. On the east side of the *Minories*, is a passage leading to the place called the Little *Minories*, in which is situated the parish-church of the Trinity in the *Minories*. This church stands on part of the site of the convent mentioned above, which on its suppression in 1593 was taken down; a number of small houses being built in its stead, and a small church for the use of the inhabitants, which was dedicated to the Holy Trinity, from whence it derives its present appellation. This church, which was rebuilt in 1706, is of brick, with a flat roof, covered with plain tiles, and has two aisles. There is no steeple to this church; but it has a handsome turret, at the west end. It is the burial place of the family of the Legges, earls of Dartmouth; to one of whose ancestors, a house called the King's, built on the site of the suppressed monastery, was granted by Charles II. The curate of this parish, for it is neither rectory nor vicarage, holds the same by an instrument of donation under the great seal of England. The income is very small, being only twenty-five pounds per annum, collected from the inhabitants, besides surplice-fees. The parish, being the close of the monastery, is a particular liberty, and exempt from the jurisdiction of the city, although part of the ward of Portfoken.

As we stand at the end of the *Minories*, and on the eastern shoulder of Little Tower Hill, we cannot view this old and curious mansion, the Tower, without feeling our minds crowded with historical events of the most important and too-often melancholy import, whilst our hearts vibrate with sensations of pity and horror, of dread and compassion. At once a palace and a prison, the seat of majesty in ancient times, and the dungeon of crime; having on one side the Traitors' Gate, on the other the platform which has so often resounded with the blows of the vengeful axe—this building will arrest our consideration for a few hours, and we must introduce our readers into the bosom of this solemn fabric. By the simple and mere aspect of the whole as it presents itself to the eye, by the irregularity of the parts of which it is composed, it is easy to conceive, that, except the centre square tower, all the rest was added at different times, according to what occasion required or necessity ordained.

We shall present to our readers a short historical account of this fortress, and of what it contains; leaving others, however, to describe the menagerie, which has so long existed there, and been so often supplied by foreign princes whose dominions are infested with wild beasts, and who send them here as presents to the king, and objects of curiosity to his people. But to royal palaces why should such collections be annexed? Why should Versailles also have its menagerie as well as the Tower of London? Why should the ferocious howlings of enslaved beasts, the chattering of caged monkeys, and the screaming of hungry eagles and vultures, disturb the peaceful mansions of majesty, or add a horrid supplement of wretchedness to the prisoners enclosed in the adjoining walls? Yet how common has this appendage been in various times!—Our interesting chronicler, Stow, speaks as follows: "Henry the first builded the manour of Woodstoke, with a parke, which he walled about with stone, seven miles in compasse, destroying for the same divers villages, churches, and chapels; and this was the first parke in England. The words of the records are the following: *He appointed therein (beside great store of deere) divers strange beasts to be kept and nourished, such*





*The Trinity House, on Tower Hill.*



*View of the Tower.*

*London: Published as the Act directs Dec. 24. 1814 by G. Jones.*







as were brought to him from far countries—as lions, leopards, tinxes, porpentines, and such others; for, such was his estimation among outlandish princes, that few would willingly offend him. More I read," continues Stow, "that in the year 1235 Frederick the emperor sent to Henry the third three leopards, in token of his regall shield of armes, wherein three leopards were pictured: (foreigners to this moment called the lions in the arms of England "Les leopards d'Angleterre"—"Gli pardi d'Inghilterra:") since which time, those lions and others have been kept in a part of the bulwarke, now called the *Lion Tower*, and their keeper there lodged. King Edward the second, in the twelfth year of his reign, commanded the sheriffes of London to pay the keeper of the king's leopards in the Tower of London 6d. a-day, for the sustenance of the leopards, and three halpence a-day for dyet of the said keeper, out of the fecfarm of the citie." A curious proportion between the daily allowance to the keeper and his wards. We must leave to others, and particularly to the Cicerone of the place, the pleasure of describing *Hector*, *Helena*, *Miss Suhey*, *Miss Fanny Howe*, &c. &c. and the other noble inmates of this part of the Tower.

Julius Cæsar has long enjoyed the honour of having laid the foundation of this fortress; but, we are convinced, without sufficient authority. Ever ready, however, to respect tradition when, instead of contradicting written records, it seems to supply the want of them, we cannot help thinking that, even at the time of William the Conqueror, there must have remained among the people a confused idea, that Cæsar, during his sojourn at London, if he ever came there, (see p. 54.) had built some fort of defence, or *vallum*, on the site. On the authority of Edmund of Hadenham's Register-book of the Acts of the Bishops of Rochester, Stow says, that William the Conqueror built the White Tower about the year 1078, appointing Gundulph bishop of Rochester, the most celebrated architect of that period, to superintend the work. In 1092, this building sustained great damage from a violent tempest of wind; but it was afterwards repaired by William Rufus, who added another castellated tower, on the south side, between it and the river. The Tower was first enclosed about the year 1190, by William Longchamp, bishop of Ely, who, under pretence of guarding against the designs of John, the king's brother, surrounded it with embattled walls, and a broad deep ditch, communicating with the river Thames.

Hitherto, the Tower was considered as a fortress for the defence of the city; but Matthew Paris says, that, "in the year 1239, Henry III. fortified the Tower to another end; wherefore the citizens, fearing lest that was done to their detriment, complained; and the king answered, that he had not done it to their hurt; but, saith he, *I will from henceforth do as my brother doth, in building and fortifying castles, who beareth the name to be wiser than I am.*"

The building of the Lions' Tower is by Pennant attributed to Edward IV. but erroneously. According to Strype, that king "fortified the Tower, and enclosed a piece of ground, taken out of the Tower-hill, *west from the Lion Tower, now called the Bulwark:*" whence it is evident, that it must have been built before his time. Probably Henry I. was the founder of it; since he introduced the menagerie, which had formerly been kept at Woodstock; as we mentioned above.

Richard III. made some additions to the Tower, and Henry VIII. repaired the White Tower, which was rebuilt in 1638; after the restoration, it was thoroughly repaired, and a great number of additional buildings made to it; in 1663, the ditch was cleaned a second time, (see p. 74.) all the wharfing about it was rebuilt of brick and stone, and sluices made for admitting and retaining the Thames-water, as occasion might require.—The present contents of the Tower, within the walls, are twelve acres and five rods.

From the other side of the river, and from the river it-

self, the Tower makes an interesting appearance. It stands on the north side of the Thames, from which it is separated by a convenient wharf, and narrow ditch, over which is a drawbridge for the more easy receiving or sending out ammunition and naval or military stores. On this wharf is a long and beautiful platform, whereon stand sixty-one pieces of cannon, mounted on very handsome carriages, and which are only fired on days of state, or public rejoicings. Within the walls, on a line with this wharf, is a platform seventy yards long, called the Ladies' Line, because much frequented as a promenade by ladies in the summer. It is shaded within by a row of lofty trees; and, without, commands a delightful prospect of the shipping in the river. The ascent to this line is by stone steps; and, being once upon it, a person may walk almost round the walls of the Tower; in the course of which there are three batteries. The first of these is called the Devil's Battery; where is also a platform, on which are mounted seven pieces of cannon, though on the battery itself are only five. The second is called the Stone Battery, and is defended by eight pieces of cannon: and the last is called the Wooden Battery, mounted with six pieces of cannon, all nine pounders.

The Tower-wharf is enclosed at each end by gates, which are opened every morning, for the convenience of a free intercourse between the respective inhabitants of the Tower, the city, and its suburbs. Under this wharf is a water-gate, through the Tower wall, commonly called Traitors' Gate; because it was customary, in former times, to convey traitors, and other state-prisoners, to and from the Tower, by water, through this gate; but, at this time, such persons are publicly admitted at the main entrance. Over the water-gate is a regular building, terminated at each end by a round tower, on which are embrasures for cannon. In this building are an infirmary, a mill, and the water-works that supply the Tower with water.

The principal entrance into the Tower is by three gates to the west. The first of these opens to a court, on the right hand of which is the Lions' tower, mentioned before. The second gate opens to a stone bridge built over the ditch; at the inner end of which is the third gate, much stronger than the two former, having a portcullis to let down upon occasion, and being guarded not only by soldiers, but by the warders of the Tower. Within this gate, on the right hand, is the drawbridge for foot-passengers to and from the Tower-wharf.

A place of such importance as the Tower was anciently, and is still in some degree, required a man of the greatest trust and confidence to be the keeper of it. This high officer is called the Constable of the Tower; and even now enjoys high honours and privileges. He is always selected from among the most trusty and distinguished of the nobility; his post being, at coronations and all other state-ceremonies, of the utmost consideration, having the crown and all the regalia in his custody. The office is now mostly performed by deputy, except upon very particular occasions.—The present constable is lord Moira, now residing in India as governor-general; the same post had been held by lord Cornwallis, a former governor-general.

The constable has under him a lieutenant and deputy- lieutenant, usually called *governor*, whose offices are also of great consequence; a tower-major, gentleman-porter, gentleman-gaoler, a master and four quarter gunners, and forty warders, whose uniform is like the king's yeomen of the guard.

At the end of the New Armory, at the north-west corner of Northumberland Walk, is situated the church of St. Peter *ad Vincula*, or in Bonds; a very proper device for the dedication of a church in a place of confinement! The miracle of St. Peter's being set free from his bonds and fetters is related in the Acts v. 19. and the religious prisoners could not but feel a lively comfort under the protection of a patron who like them had been incarcerated,



cerated, and like whom they might eventually recover their liberty. Religion is seldom sincere without a spark of enthusiasm, and then it becomes sublime. This church was rebuilt by king Edward III. It is a plain Gothic building, sixty-six feet in length, fifty-four in breadth, and twenty-four feet high from the floor to the roof. The walls, which have Gothic windows, are strengthened at the corners with rustic, and crowned with a plain blocking course. The tower is plain, and is covered with a turret. The living is a rectory, in the gift of the king. The rector, as minister of the Tower garrison, which is a parish within itself, is paid by his majesty; and the living is exempt from archi-episcopal jurisdiction. This church is remarkable for being the burial-place of the following royal and noble personages, who were executed either in the Tower, or on the Hill.—Fisher bishop of Rochester, who was beheaded on Tower-hill, the 22d of June, 1535.—George Bullen, lord Rochford, beheaded on the 17th of May, 1536.—Anna Bullen, beheaded on the 19th of May, in the same year.—Cromwell earl of Essex, beheaded in the year 1540.—Catharine Howard, beheaded February 13, 1541.—Thomas Seymour, baron Sudley, and lord high admiral, beheaded in 1549, by a warrant from his own brother, the protector Somerset, who, in less than three years, was executed on the same scaffold.—Dudley duke of Northumberland, beheaded on the 22d of August, 1553.—Devereux earl of Essex, the favourite of queen Elizabeth, beheaded February the 25th, 1602.—James duke of Monmouth, natural son of Charles II. beheaded on the 15th of July, 1685, for asserting his right to the crown, against James II.—The earl of Kilmarnock, and lord Balmerino, beheaded August 18, 1746, for being concerned in the rebellion in Scotland; and Simon Frazer, lord Lovat, convicted of the same crime, and executed in the following year. See the article ENGLAND, vol. vi. p. 720.

We must observe, that, though this church is said to have been founded by Edward III. it must only have been rebuilt by that king; since Strype has preserved an order from Henry III. dated in 1241, for repairing and beautifying the chancels of St. Mary and St. Peter, in the church of St. Peter, within the bailiffwick of the Tower; from which it appears, that the ancient church was much larger, and more elegant, than the present one. It was adorned with a figure of St. Mary, which, in the above-mentioned order, is called *Mariolam cum suo Tabernaculo*, the Little Mary in her Shrine; and also with images of St. Peter, St. Nicholas, and St. Catharine; all of which are ordered to be new painted, and “refreshed with good colours.” Here were also stalls for the king and queen, who sometimes repaired to the Tower, to perform their devotions.

The White Tower is a large square irregular building, situated almost in the centre, no one side answering to another: nor are any of its watch-towers, of which there are four on the top, built alike; one of these towers is now converted into an observatory, and indeed seems well adapted to that use. The building itself consists of three very lofty stories, under which are spacious and commodious vaults, chiefly filled with salt-petre. It is covered at top with flat leads, from whence there is an extensive and noble prospect of the shipping in the Thames, and the opposite shore well inhabited, full of business, and extending over Tooley-street, Bermondsey, Rotherhithe, Deptford, and the adjacent country.

In the first story are two spacious rooms, one of which is a small armory for the sea-service, having various sorts of arms, very curiously displayed. In the other room are a great number of closets and presses, all filled with warlike tools and instruments of destruction. Over these are two other floors, one filled principally with arms; the other with arms and pioneers' tools; such as chevaux de frize, pick-axes, spades, and shovels. In the upper story is kept match, sheep-skins, tanned hides, &c. In this tower are likewise kept models of the new-invented engines of destruction, that have from time to time been

presented to the government; but which have very properly been condemned to the obscurity of the Tower, never to be used, but only to be shown as evidence of the ingenuity of man to torment and destroy. On the top is a large cistern, or reservoir, for supplying the whole garrison with water, in case of need: it is seven feet deep, nine in breadth, and about sixty in length, and is filled from the Thames, by means of an engine very ingeniously contrived.

Within this tower is a very ancient chapel, dedicated to St. John; which was for the private use of our kings and queens, when they resided in the Tower. It is of an oblong form, rounded at the east end; on each side are five short round pillars, with large square capitals, carved in different forms on their faces, and with a cross on each. At the east end are two pillars of the same form as the others. Above is a gallery, with windows and rounded arches, looking into the chapel, and said to have been appropriated to the females. The columns pass down to the ground-floor, through a lower room, which is used as a magazine for gunpowder. The chapel forms part of the record-office, and is filled with papers. Strype has also preserved an order of Henry III. for painting and beautifying this chapel. It runs thus: *Depingi faciatis patibulum et trabem ultra altare ejusdem capel. bene et bonis coloribus; et fieri faciatis et depingi duas imagines pulchras, ubi melius et decentius fieri possint in eadem capell. unam de sancto Edwardo tenente annulum, et donante et tendente Scto. Johan. Evangelista, &c.*—In English thus: “Order that the cross and the traverse behind the altar of the said chapel be painted well, and with good colours; and, besides, two handsome images in the most proper situation within the chapel; one representing St. Edward receiving the ring from St. John the Evangelist, &c.”

The office of Keeper of the Records is opposite the platform already described. It is adorned with a fine carved stone door-case at the entrance, and finely wainscoted within. All the rolls, from king John to the beginning of the reign of Richard III. are deposited in fifty-six wainscot presses, in this office; those since that time are kept at the Rolls Chapel, in Chancery-lane. The rolls and records kept in the Tower, contain the ancient tenures of all the lands in England, with a survey of the manors; the originals of all laws and statutes; the rights of England to the dominion of the British seas; leagues and treaties with foreign princes; the achievements of England in foreign wars; ancient grants of our kings to their subjects; the forms of submission of the Scottish kings; writs and proceedings of the courts of common law and equity; the settlement of Ireland, as to law and dominion; privileges and immunities granted to cities and corporations, during the period before mentioned; with many other important records; all regularly disposed by the diligence of sir William Dugdale, and others under his direction, and properly referred to, in near a thousand folio indexes. The price of searching here is half a guinea; for which a person may peruse any one subject a-year. In the months of December, January, and February, this office is open only six, but all the rest of the year eight, hours in a-day. Samuel Lysons, esq. is the present keeper.

To the north of the White Tower is the grand storehouse, which is a noble building, and extends two hundred and forty-five feet in length, and sixty in breadth. It was begun by James II. who built it to the first floor; but William III. erected that magnificent room, called the New, or Small, Armory; in which, when finished, he and his queen, Mary, dined in great form, having all the warrant-workmen and labourers to attend them, dressed in new aprons and white gloves. This noble structure is of brick and stone; and on the north side is a stately door-case, adorned with four columns, an entablature, and triangular pediment, of the Doric order. Under the pediment are the king's arms, with enrichments of ornamental trophy-work, by our celebrated artist Gibbons.



On entering the great gate of the Tower, a warder is in readiness to attend visitors to those parts of the fortress which are permitted to be shown; the first of which is called the Spanish Armory (situated to the south of the White Tower), from the spoils of the Spanish Armada being deposited here, to perpetuate the memory of the signal victory obtained by the English over the whole naval power of Spain, in the reign of queen Elizabeth. See the article ENGLAND, vol. vi. p. 658, 9.

The articles consist of different kinds of arms in use at that time, which it is not necessary to enumerate. But in the same room are preserved some other very curious articles; the principal of which are these: 1. A small train of ten pieces of brass cannon, neatly mounted on proper carriages; which were a present from the foundery of London to king Charles I. when a child, to practise the art of gunnery. 2. Some Danish and Saxon clubs; weapons which each of those people are said to have used in their conquest of England; and are, perhaps, curiosities of the greatest antiquity of any in the Tower. 3. King Henry the VIIIth's walking-staff, which has three match-lock pistols in it, with coverings to keep the charges dry. With this staff, it is said, the king sometimes walked round the city, to see that the constables did their duty; and, one night, as he was walking near the bridge-foot, the constable stopped him, to know what he did with such an unlucky weapon at that time of the night; upon which the king struck him; but, the constable calling the watchmen to his assistance, his majesty was carried to the Poultry Compter, where he lay till morning, without either fire or candle. When the keeper was informed of the rank of his prisoner, he dispatched a messenger to the constable, who came trembling with fear, expecting nothing less than death; instead of which, the king applauded his resolution in honestly doing his duty, and made him a handsome present; at the same time he settled upon St. Magnus parish an annual grant of twenty-three pounds and a mark; and made provision for furnishing thirty chaldron of coals, and a large allowance of bread, annually, for ever, toward the comfortable relief of his fellow-prisoners, and their successors. 4. A large wooden cannon, called *Policy*, because, as we are informed, when Henry VIII. besieged Boulogne, the roads being impassable for heavy cannon, he caused a number of these wooden ones to be made, and mounted on proper batteries before the town, as if real cannon; which so terrified the French commandant, that, when he beheld a formidable train, as he thought, just ready to play, he gave up the town without firing a shot.—At the upper end of this room, under a canopy, is an elegant group of figures, representing queen Elizabeth alighting from her horse, to review her fleet at Tilbury. The figure of the queen is strikingly majestic: it is attired in the armour she is said to have worn upon that occasion, with a white silk petticoat, curiously ornamented with pearls, &c. Her robe, or upper garment, is of rich crimson satin, laced and fringed with gold. The horse is a noble animal, of a cream-colour; his bridle ornamented with gilt metal, and the saddle covered with crimson velvet, laced and fringed with gold. At the head of the horse stands a page, holding the bridle with his left hand, and in his right is the queen's helmet, decorated with a plume of white feathers. His dress is of snuff-coloured silk lined with blue, and a blue silk sash fringed with gold, according to the fashion of the time. The attitude of this figure is remarkably fine.

From the Spanish Armory the visitor is conducted to the Horse Armory, where the following things are presented to his notice: 1. The figures of the horse and foot, on the left hand, supposed to be drawn up in military order, to attend on the kings on the other side of the room. These figures, which are as large as life, are very fresh, and have a noble appearance. 2. A large tilting-lance of Charles Brandon, duke of Suffolk, general to king Henry VIII. This nobleman excelled at the then-fashionable diversion of tilting; and, engaging the king, who was

likewise passionately fond of that royal exercise, gave him such a shock with his spear as had nearly cost him his life. 3. A complete suit of tilting-armour, such as the kings, nobility, and gentry at arms, used to exercise in on horseback; at which diversion Henry II. king of France was killed, by a shiver of a spear striking him in the eye. 4. A complete suit of armour, made for king Henry VIII. when he was but eighteen years of age. It is at least six feet high, and the joints in the hands, arms, thighs, knees, and feet, play like the joints of a rattle-snake, and are moved with all the facility imaginable. The method of learning the exercise of tilting, was upon wooden horses set on castors, which, by the sway of the body, could be moved every way; so that, by frequent practice, the rider could shift, parry, strike, unhorse, and recover, with surprising alertness. Several of the horses in this armory have been used for this purpose; but the castors have been some years taken off. 5. A very small suit of armour, made for king Charles II. when prince of Wales, and about seven or eight years of age, with a piece of armour for his horse's head; the whole most curiously wrought, and inlaid with silver. 6. The armour of lord Courcy, who, as the warders say, was grand champion of Ireland; and, as a proof, show you the very sword he took from the champion of France; for which valiant action he, and all his successors, have the honour to wear their hats in the king's presence; which privilege is at this time enjoyed by lord Kinsale, as head of that ancient and noble family, who is always presented to the king, on his first appearance at court, with his hat on. 7. A number of real coats of mail, called brigandine jackets. They consist of small bits of steel, quilted one over another so as to resist the point of a sword; and yet are so flexible, that the body may be bent in them any way, the same as in common clothing. 8. An Indian suit of armour, sent as a present to Charles II. from the Great Mogul. It is made of iron quills, about two inches long, finely japanned, and ranged in rows, one row slipping over another very artificially. They are bound together, with silk twist, very strong, and are used in that country as a defence against darts and arrows. 9. The armour of the great John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, who was the son, father, and uncle, of a king, but was never king himself. The armour is seven feet high, and the sword and lance are of a most enormous size. 10. A droll figure of William Somers, jester to Henry VIII. The description given of this figure by the warder, is calculated more for the amusement of the spectator than the entertainment of the reader. 11. To the left of this figure stands the line of kings; but, by beginning at this end of it, the order of chronology is reversed. You therefore begin with his late majesty, George II. in a complete suit of armour, richly gilt, sitting with a sword in his hand, on a white horse richly caparisoned, with a fine Turkey bridle, gilt, with globes, crescents, and stars, velvet furniture laced with gold, gold fringe, and gold trappings. The other kings, quite back to William the Conqueror, are likewise on horseback and in armour.

In an inclosure, at the end of this room, is a perfect model of that most admirable machine, the idea of which was brought from Italy, by sir Thomas Loombe, and first erected at Derby, at his own expence, for making organzine, or thrown silk. This ingenious gentleman, as we are told, made two attempts, at the hazard of his life, for the completing of this machine, which, by means of a friar, he at length effected; and, having obtained the sanction of an act of parliament, in the year 1742, by which 1400l. were granted to his majesty, to be paid to him as a reward for his eminent service, in discovering and introducing the said machine, he finally completed it, and brought it into use. The following is a brief description of it. It contains 26,586 wheels, and 97,746 movements; which work 93,726 yards of silk thread every time the water-wheel goes round, which is thrice in one minute. One water-wheel gives motion to the rest of the wheels



and movements, of which any one may be stopped separately. One fire-engine conveys warm air to every individual part of the machine, and one regulator governs the whole work.

The depôt for the royal train of artillery is on the ground-floor of the grand store-house; very few pieces of ordnance, however, remain there at present, except such as have been long preserved, and shown as curiosities; every thing else kept here has been in such a continual state of fluctuation, during a long period of war, that a description of them is impossible. In addition to the articles which are stationary, this extensive store-room is filled with new brass cannon, and other implements of war, such as sponges, rammers, ladles, artillery harness, &c. which are deposited here till called for. The room itself is three hundred and eighty feet in length, fifty wide, and twenty-two high. In it are twenty pillars for supporting the small armory above, hung round with standards, colours, &c. taken from the enemy.

The Small Armory, above, is three hundred and forty-five feet in length, and contains a wilderness of arms, so ingeniously disposed in racks, in the middle, and all around the walls, that arms for upwards of a hundred thousand men, all kept bright, and fit for immediate service, are seen at one view.—The only piece of ordnance in this room is a very curious small cannon; a two-pounder, taken by the French at Malta, in June 1798, which, with the eight flags hanging from the ceiling, were sent to the Directory on-board *La Sensible* frigate; but that vessel was taken by the Sea-horse, Capt. Foote. This cannon is made of a mixed metal, resembling gold. On it is the head of the Grand Master of Malta, supported by two genii, in bas-relief; it is also ornamented with eagles, &c. all of excellent workmanship. The carriage is also very curious: on it are the carved figures of two furies, whose features are strongly expressive of rage and despair. One arm of each of them, being entwined together, grasps a large snake; and in the other each holds a torch. From their heads issue clusters of small snakes; but these are broken off from one. The centres of the wheels represent the face of the sun, and the spokes its rays. The whole is executed in a very masterly manner. Four of the Maltese colours hang over the entrance into the room; and the other four in the corners.

Of the curious and ornamental disposition of the arms, no adequate idea can be formed by description; but, to assist the spectator to retain the remembrance of what he sees, we shall give a few particulars. The walls, on each side, are adorned with eight pilasters of pikes, sixteen feet long, with capitals of pistols, of the Corinthian order. On the left of the entrance are two curious pyramids, composed of pistols, standing upon crowns, globes, sceptres, &c. finely carved, and placed upon a pedestal five feet high. The inter-columns compose a kind of wilderness of arms, round which you walk. Here you find pistols and bayonets placed in the form of half-moons and fans; with the imitation of a target in the centre, made up of the blades of bayonets. Brass blunderbusses for sea-service, with capitals of pistols over them. Old-fashioned bayonets, formed in such a manner as to represent the waves of the sea. Bayonets, and sword-bayonets, in the shape of half-moons and fans, and set in scollops-hells, finely carved. The rising sun, irradiated with rays of pistols set in a chequered frame of marine hangers of a peculiar make, having brass handles, and the form of a dog's head on their pommels. Four beautiful twisted pillars, made with pistols up to the top, which is about twenty feet high, and placed at right angles, with the form of a falling star on the ceiling, exactly in the centre. The representation of a pair of large folding gates, of antique form, made of soldiers' halberts. Horsemen's carbines, blunderbusses, and pistols, hanging very artificially in furbelows and slouches. A Medusa's head, within three regular ellipses of pistols, with snakes represented stinging her. At the east end are two suits of armour, one made

for Henry V. the other for Henry VI. over each of which is a semicircle of pistols: between these is represented the figure of an organ, the large pipes composed of brass blunderbusses, and the small of pistols: on one side of this figure is the representation of a fiery serpent, the head and tail of carved work, and the body of pistols, winding round in the form of a snake; and on the other a hydra, or seven-headed monster, whose heads are very artificially combined by links of pistols.—Here is also the sword of Justice (having a sharp point), the sword of Mercy (having a blunt point), carried before the pretender, when proclaimed in Scotland, in 1715.

In the centre of this room, on the north-side, opens the grand stair-case door, for the admission of the royal family, or any of the nobility, whose curiosity may lead them to view the armory; opposite to which, on the south side, opens another door into the balcony, that affords a fine prospect of the parade, the governor's house, the surveyor-general's, store-keeper's, and the other general-officers' houses in the Tower.—The arms in this room were originally disposed by Mr. Harris, who contrived to place them in this beautiful order, both here and in the guard-chamber of Hampton-court. He was a common gunsmith; but, after he had performed this work, he was allowed a pension from the crown as a reward for his ingenuity.

The Jewel-office is the next place which is visited. When the rich articles deposited in this office are shown, the spectators are locked into that half of the room assigned for them, where they sit down close to a grate, like that of a nunnery: on the other side of which, the person who shows the jewels displays them separately, by candle-light. These precautions have been taken since the reign of Charles II. when that desperado, Blood, made a bold attempt to carry off the crown, and other ensigns of royalty.

The regalia shown in this office, are, 1. The imperial crown, with which it is said all the kings of England have been crowned since the time of Edward the Confessor. This, however, is contradicted by fact; for the regalia of St. Edward was kept in the arched room, in the cloisters of Westminster Abbey, till the grand rebellion, when, in 1642, Harry Martin, by order of the parliament, broke open the iron chest in which it was deposited, took it from thence, and sold it, together with the robes, sword, and sceptre, of St. Edward. After the restoration, king Charles II. had one made like it, which is shown at present. It is of gold, enriched with diamonds, rubies, emeralds, sapphires, and pearls. The cap within is of purple velvet, lined with white taffety, turned up with three rows of ermine. 2. The golden orb, or globe, put into the king's right hand before he is crowned, and borne in his left, with the sceptre in his right, upon his return into Westminster-hall, after he is crowned. It is about six inches in diameter, edged with pearl, and enriched with precious stones. On the top is an amethyst, near an inch and a half in height, set upon a rich cross of gold, adorned with diamonds, pearls, and precious stones. The whole height of the ball and cup is eleven inches. 3. The golden sceptre, with its cross, set upon a large amethyst of great value, garnished round with table-diamonds. The handle of the sceptre is plain, but the pommel is set round with rubies, emeralds, and small diamonds. The top rises into a fleur-de-lis, of six leaves, all enriched with precious stones; from whence issues a mound, or ball, made of the amethyst already mentioned. 4. The sceptre with the dove, the emblem of peace, perched on the top of a small Jerusalem cross, finely ornamented with table-diamonds, and jewels of great value. This emblem was first used by Edward the Confessor, as appears by his seal. It is also marked on the seals of Henry I. Stephen and Henry II. but omitted by Richard I. Richard II. assumed it again on his seal; and it was also used by Edward IV. and Richard III. 5. St. Edward's staff, in length four feet seven inches and a half, and three inches and three quarters in circumference, all of beaten gold, which



which is carried before the king at his coronation. 6. A large silver fountain, presented to king Charles II. by the town of Plymouth, very curiously wrought. 7. A noble silver font, double gilt with gold, and elegantly wrought, which is used at the christenings of the royal family. 8. The *curtana*, or sword of mercy, the blade thirty-two inches long, and near two broad, is without a point, and is borne naked before the king at his coronation, between the two swords of justice, spiritual and temporal. 9. A gold salt-cellar of state, in form like the square White Tower, and exquisitely wrought. It is used only at the king's table, on the day of the coronation. 11. The crown of state, that his majesty wears in parliament; in which is a large emerald, seven inches round; the finest pearl ever seen, and a ruby of prodigious value. 12. The prince of Wales's crown. These two crowns, when his majesty goes to the parliament-house, are carried by the keeper of the jewel-office, attended by the warders, privately, in a hackney-coach, to Whitehall; there they are delivered to the officers appointed to receive them, who, with some yeomen of the guard, carry them to the robing-rooms, where his majesty and the prince robe themselves. The king wears his crown on his head as he sits upon the throne; but that of the prince of Wales is placed before him, to show that he is not yet come to it. As soon as the king is disrobed, the two crowns are re-conducted to the Tower, by the same persons that brought them. Lastly, the ampulla, or eagle of gold, finely engraved, which holds the holy oil the kings and queens of England are anointed with, and the golden spoon that the bishop pours the oil into. These are two pieces of great antiquity. The golden eagle, including the pedestal, is about nine inches high, and the wings expanded about seven inches; the whole weight about ten ounces. The head of the eagle screws off about the middle of the neck, which is made hollow for holding the oil; and, when the king is anointed by the bishop, the oil is poured into the spoon out of the bird's mouth.—Besides these commonly shown, there are, in the jewel-office, all the crown-jewels worn by the princes and princesses at the coronations; and also a vast variety of curious old plate.

These ensigns of royalty, as already mentioned, had nearly been stolen in the reign of king Charles II. the particulars whereof are worthy recital; as it is, perhaps, the most singular enterprise that ever was undertaken. The projector of this theft was colonel Blood, a gentleman of Ireland, who, having spent his substance in following the fortune of king Charles II. while in adversity, thought himself hardly used by being neglected when that prince was restored to his throne; and therefore, after having engaged in several very desperate, though unsuccessful, plots, thought of a scheme to make himself amends, by seizing the crown, globe, sceptre, and dove, and carrying them all off together. To effect this, he contrived, under the guise of a clergyman, to make acquaintance with Mr. Talbot Edwards, the keeper of the jewel-office, insinuating himself into his favour and confidence. After various visits, he at length, with the assistance of some associates, seized on the old man, whom he had requested to show the jewels to his friends, gagged him, and, on his resisting, struck him on the head with a mallet, and gave him several stabs. Edwards thought it prudent to counterfeit death. Blood put the crown under his parson's gown; another put the globe in his breeches; a third, not being able to conceal the sceptre by reason of its length, broke off the rich ruby, and put it in his pocket. As soon as they were gone, Edwards forced out the gag, and gave the alarm; they were instantly pursued, and three of them soon taken. Blood struggled hard for his prize, saying, when it was wrested from him, "It was a gallant attempt, though unsuccessful; it was for a crown." The curiosity of the king was excited to see a man engaged in so many important villainies; and from that moment the artful Blood dated his security: he told the king so many plausible tales; such indifference he showed for his own life, such

anxiety for that of his majesty, (for he insinuated that his comrades would certainly revenge his death, even on his sacred person,) that in a short time he obtained his pardon. It was necessary to apply to the duke of Ormond for permission, the ruffian having made an attempt on his grace's life not long before. The duke nobly answered, "If his majesty could forgive him stealing the crown, he might easily forgive the attempt upon his life; and, if such was his majesty's pleasure, that was a sufficient reason for him, and his lordship (the earl of Arlington, who brought the message) might spare the rest." Blood was not only pardoned, but received into favour, had a pension of 500*l.* a-year, and was perpetually seen at court, enjoying the smiles of majesty, and even successfully employing his interest as a most respectable patron. But all good men looked on him with horror, and considered him as a Sicarius to a profligate set of men, to overawe any who had integrity enough to resist the measures of a most profligate court. This miscreant died peacefully in his bed, August 29th, 1680, fearlessly, and without any signs of penitence. The innocent Talbot Edwards, so far from receiving the grateful reward of his fidelity and sufferings, got with great difficulty a pension of 200*l.* a-year; and his son, who was active in taking Blood, 100*l.* more; but the order for the pensions was so long delayed, and the expenses attending the cure of the good old man's wounds so great, that he was forced to sell his order for a hundred pounds ready money, and his son his for fifty*l.*

The business of coining the money of the realm had been carried on principally within the Tower, from the time of William the Conqueror until the year 1211. In that year a very elegant mint was completed on the eastern side of Tower-hill, in which the coinage is now performed with a simplicity, dispatch, and accuracy, that can scarcely be conceived by any who have not been witnesses of the several operations.—This beautiful building was erected after a design of Mr. Smirke, jun. and is intended for all those purposes of coinage which have usually been carried on in the Tower of London, and at Birmingham. As the building happened to be finished just at the time when, owing to the high price of gold, all specie had disappeared, and also at the time that the new custom-house was planned, it was wittily observed, by some member in the house of commons, that we had a new mint when we had no money, and a new custom-house when we had no trade. The New Mint is erected on the site of the Old Victualling-office, to the east of the Tower; and is an extensive building, containing all the machinery and conveniences for coining, and also houses for the residence of the principal officers. It is composed of a long front of stone, consisting of a ground-floor, with two stories above; the whole surmounted by a handsome balustrade. The wings are ornamented with pilasters, and in the centre are several demi-columns, over which is a pediment, decorated with the arms of England. The porch is covered with a gallery, balustrades, &c. all of the Doric order.

The coining of metallic money was originally performed by the hammer; and afterwards by what was called the screw-press, or mill and screw. These operations have been described under the word COIN, vol. iv. p. 753.

Almost all the money now coined in this kingdom is from bullion received from the Bank of England; from which it is sent to the master of the mint's assay-office: here it is received into what is called the *strong-hold*, and there kept till its fineness is ascertained, in order that its true value may be computed. This being ascertained, the parties concerned are desired to attend at the office of receipt and delivery, to witness its weight, and to be informed of its fineness, and, consequently, of its value; the standard weight of the bullion being determined by the calculation of the respective offices. A mint-bill is now made out, and given to the owner of the bullion, by which he knows the exact value of his deposit. The next thing is to deliver the bullion to the melting-house, which is furnished with a variety of apparatus, adapted, not only



to the melting of the gold and silver, but to lifting in and out the pots containing the precious metals, with safety, ease, and expedition. The silver is melted in pots of cast-iron, but the gold is melted in smaller pots manufactured from black-lead, or carburet of iron. The silver is run into plates ten inches long, seven wide, and about five-eighths of an inch thick; the gold plates are ten inches in length, four in breadth, and three eighths of an inch in thickness. While the metal is pouring into the moulds, there are three portions taken, from the top, the middle, and bottom, of each pot, and carried to the king's assay-office, there to be examined by the master of that office, and not permitted to pass into work until the fineness of the metal is accurately determined. The furnaces used are air-furnaces; and the fuel is coke. In the process of melting there will necessarily be waste; every thing, therefore, that can possibly contain any portion of the precious metals, such as the sweepings of the melting-house, &c. are collected and carried to another apartment, in which are erected two grinding and two triturating mills, where the sweep is worked up, and the fine metals in part recovered, in the manner practised by refiners and goldsmiths. The sweep, thus brought together, is ground into a powder, and passed through a fine sieve, by which the larger grains of metal are obtained. The sweep is then put, in small portions, into a wooden bowl with two iron handles, and carefully washed; the lighter particles, being absorbed by the water, are collected in a large tub; the heavy or metallic ones are found deposited at the bottom of the bowl. By these means the most considerable of the particles of gold and silver are obtained. The powdered sweepings, however, which have been collected after the washing process, still contain portions of metal; to obtain these, the sweep, in certain portions, is put into a mill containing generally about a hundred-weight of mercury, the remainder of the mill being filled with water. This is commonly called the *tritulating-mill*; and each charge is agitated about four hours with an iron instrument, having four arms placed horizontally, in the shape of a cross, and fixed to the centre of the mill; and, for the better agitation of the sweep and mercury, the motion of this mill can be reversed at pleasure.

From the melting-house, the plates above described, provided they are found by the assay-master to be of the exact degree of fineness, are carried to the rolling-mill. They are first hot-rolled, that is, made red-hot in a furnace adapted to the purpose, and then passed through a pair of cast-iron rollers. In the room in which this operation is performed there are four pair of rollers, which (as they require an immense power) are put in motion by a steam-engine of a power equal to that of thirty horses. The rollers are placed very near the furnaces; and the metal, being brought to what is called a blood-red heat, is taken out by a man with a pair of smith's tongs, and immediately returned by another man, and again passed through while hot two or three times, by which it is greatly extended; after this, it is annealed. This process is called the *breaking-down rolling*; and, when finished, the plates of silver are about  $\frac{3}{16}$ ths of an inch thick. They are then cut into slips by a pair of circular shears attached to the shafts by which the rollers are worked; after which they are finished in what are called the *adjusting-rollers*, which are also made of cast-iron, and very finely polished. In this process the slips are rolled cold; and, when a piece cut from the middle of each is found of the proper standard weight, they are carried to another apartment, called the *cutting-out room*, containing twelve machines worked by a steam-engine of the power of sixteen horses. With these machines the blank pieces are cut out from the strips or laminæ just mentioned with great ease and velocity. The only manual labour required, is that performed by a boy nine or ten years old at each machine; he quickly learns the art of presenting the laminæ to the cutters, which instantly cut out the blank pieces of metal; these so struck fall through a hole that conducts to a box placed below to re-

ceive them. Each machine will cut 60 pieces in a minute, of course twelve will produce 720 in a minute, or 43,200 in an hour. Formerly these machines were worked by hand by a man or boy at each cutter, but no manual labour can operate so accurately and well as the power obtained by the steam-engine. The instruments with which the blanks are cut (called a bed and punch) are made of steel, of the exact diameter of the piece of money required. From this apartment the blanks are carried to the *adjusting-room*, where every piece is most accurately weighed, the gold twice at least, and the silver once; those pieces that are found too heavy are reduced by the file called a *float*; and those that are found too light, which occasionally occurs, are remelted. The blanks, now properly adjusted, are carried to the *milling-room*. But the process of milling is a secret by the very constitution of the mint. This has always been the case since the time of Peter Blondeau, who introduced the milling in 1662, as appears from an extract from Mr. Folkes, in his Tables of English Silver Coins, in which he observes, and the observation holds good even now, though at the distance of sixty-nine years; that "it may be noted, that this practice of keeping secret the manner of edging the money is still observed in our mint, all those who are entrusted with it being sworn not to discover it; notwithstanding, the manner in which the same operation is performed in several foreign mints is there publicly shown." The blanks, when milled, are annealed or softened, in order that they may be fitted to receive the impression.

The next operations are pickling and cleaning. The process of pickling is to throw the pieces of gold, thus annealed, into a strong solution of super-sulphat of alumine, those of silver into a solution of the super-sulphat of potash. When the pieces are properly blanched, they are taken into another room to be dried and cleaned; which operation is performed by agitation in sieves, containing saw-dust, over a gentle heat. They are now taken to what is properly called the *coining-room*. In this apartment there are eight coining-presses, worked by a ten-horse power steam-engine; the apartment also is, in the winter months, heated with steam, so as to be kept to an uniform temperature. The machines are worked with the most perfect accuracy, and with such rapidity, that each will produce about 60 in a minute; and on the average, allowing for the necessary delays in working, forty pieces of money, that is 320 guineas, &c. will pass through the eight machines in a minute, or about 19,200 in an hour. These machines require also one boy of ten or twelve years of age to each, who, by supplying the machine with the planchets, runs no risk of injury to his fingers, as the machine contains in itself a self-feeder or layer-on; the business of the boy being only to fill the layer-on, through a tube, with the blanks. From this tube, the machine places the blanks upon the dye; and, when struck, displaces one piece and replaces another; and so on, as long as the steam-engine is kept at work.—The coin thus completed is carried to the mint-office, where the king's assayer attends, and where the process called *pixing* takes place, to ascertain the weight and fineness of the moneys before delivery. The pix is a box in which a small proportion or sample of the coins struck at the mint is reserved, in order to be assayed and compared with a check-piece or standard kept in the exchequer for the purpose. This operation, which is called *pixing*, or the trial of the pix, is performed with great exactness, in the presence of the privy-council, the officers of the mint, and a jury of the goldsmiths' company; and there is no instance upon record of the coins thus tried being found to vary from the full standard.

The officers of the mint are, 1. The warden, who is the chief, and is to receive the bullion, and oversee all the other officers. This officer has under him a deputy and two clerks. 2. The master-worker, with three clerks; he receives the bullion from the warden, causes it to be melted, and delivered to the moneyers; and takes it from them again when coined. 3. The comptroller, with a deputy and clerk,



clerk, who is to see that the money be made to the just assise, and to oversee the officers. 4. The assay-master, who weighs the silver and gold, and sees whether it be standard. This officer, called the king's assay-master, has under him a clerk. 5. The master's assay-master, and the probationer assayer. 6. The surveyor of the melting, who is to see the silver cast out, and that it be not altered after it is delivered to the melter, i. e. after the assay-master has made a trial of it. 7. The clerk of the irons, who is to see that the irons be clean, and fit to work with. These two offices are united in one person, who has a deputy and clerk. 8. The chief engraver, who engraves the dyes and stamps for the coinage of money; there is also an assistant engraver, and a probationer engraver; with a smith, assistant to the engravers. 9. The melters, who melt the bullion before it comes to coining. 10. The blanchers, who anneal, or boil and cleanse, the money. 11. The porter and office-keeper, who keep the gate, &c. 12. The provost to the company of moneyers, acting as an engineer, who provides for all the moneyers, and oversees them. And, lastly, the company of moneyers, some of whom bear the money, some forge it, some stamp or coin it, and some round and mill it. In this office there are also the weigher and teller; receiver; king's clerk, and clerk of the paper; surveyor of the money-presses; solicitor and assistant; warden's deputy, master's deputy, comptroller's deputy, and subordinate clerks.

Before the Norman conquest, the kings of this nation established their mints in different monasteries, from a presumption, it is supposed, that in such sanctified places the coinage would be secured from fraud and corruption. In time, however, we find mints set up in almost all the principal towns of England; and in some of the largest there were different mints. Thus the state of the coin was perpetually fluctuating, owing to the removal, or discontinuance, of the old mints, or the establishment of new ones, according to the caprice, or, sometimes, the cupidity, of the reigning prince; for there is no doubt that this privilege was frequently granted, in consideration of an advance of money, or in recompense for services. This promiscuous coinage of money was attended with so many inconveniencies, that, in the early part of her reign, queen Elizabeth endeavoured to remedy them, by establishing one mint only, in the Tower of London, for the use of the whole kingdom; and thus it has remained ever since, except in the latter part of Charles the First's reign, who was reduced to the necessity of coining money wherever he was quartered; and in the beginning of that of William III. who found the coin in such a state of debasement, that he called it all in, and re-coined it; and, in order to accomplish this with greater facility, erected mints in some of the distant parts of the kingdom, such as Exeter, Bristol, York, and Winchester.

On the opposite side of Tower-hill, near the great western entrance, a new Excise-office has lately been erected. It is merely assistant to the other in Broad-street; and chiefly for the export, or drawback, business.

Without the Tower are certain districts called the Tower Liberties, the government of which is under the same jurisdiction as the Tower itself, and for the administration of which a court is held, by prescription, on Great Tower-hill, by a steward appointed by the constable of the Tower. These liberties include both Tower-hills, part of East Smithfield, Rosemary-lane, Wellclose-square, and the Little Minories; and all the streets, lanes, and alleys, in Spitalfields, built on the old Artillery-ground, which formerly belonged to the Tower.

Great and Little Tower-hill are two irregular open spaces, without the ditch, on the west and north sides of the Tower, and are separated from each other by Postern-row; which is so called from the Postern-gate, formerly standing there. See p. 106.

The northernmost part of Great Tower-hill has been called Trinity-square, from the new Trinity-house, erected on the north side of it. It is a handsome stone-fronted

building, consisting of a main body and two wings; the latter of which project a little. The basement story is of massy rustic-work, and in the centre is the entrance, which, as well as all the windows in this story, is arched. On this rises the principal story, of the Ionic order, supporting a plain entablature, on which rests a sloping roof. In the centre of the main body are the arms of the corporation, and, on each side, a circular medallion, containing the profiles of their present majesties. Above the windows, in the two wings, are square medallions, in which are groups of genii, exhibiting different nautical instruments, with representations of the four principal light-houses on the coast. This building is seen to great advantage, by being placed on a rising ground, and having an extensive area in front. The court-room contains portraits of the king and queen; James II. lord Sandwich; lord Howe, and Mr. Pitt; and in the secretary's office is a beautiful model of the Royal William man-of-war.

The military jurisdiction of the constable of the Tower extends greatly beyond the liberties of that fortress, and includes a considerable part of the county of Middlesex, under the denomination of the Tower Hamlets; the names of which are as follow:

Hackney.	Ratcliff.
Norton-Falgate.	Shadwell.
Shoreditch.	Limehouse.
Spitalfields.	Poplar.
Whitechapel.	Blackwall.
Trinity-Minories.	Bromley.
East Smithfield.	Bow.
Tower Extra and Intra.	Old Ford.
St. Catharine's.	Mile-End.
Wapping.	Bethnal-Green.

These twenty-one hamlets are severed from the county of Middlesex, so far as relates to the raising of the militia, by an act of parliament passed in the fourteenth year of the reign of Charles II. and are obliged to raise two regiments of themselves, to be the standing militia of the Tower; and, for this purpose, the constable of the Tower is lord-lieutenant of the district.

Leaving the Tower, we proceed towards the London Docks, and visit in our way the few remarkable objects which are thinly scattered in this busy part of the great eastern suburb of the metropolis.—The church of St. Catharine stands almost concealed from the view by the surrounding buildings, on the east side of a small open place, called St. Catharine's Square. It belonged, originally, to an hospital, founded, in 1148, by Matilda, consort to king Stephen. The old foundation was dissolved, and re-founded, in 1273, by queen Eleanor, relict of Henry III. Philippa, consort to Edward III. was a great benefactress to this hospital, as was Henry VI. who not only confirmed all the former grants, and made several additional ones, but gave an ample charter to it. It was exempt from the jurisdiction of the bishop of London, till its suppression by Henry VIII. soon after which, Edward VI. annexed it to that diocese; leaving the patronage, however, in the hands of the queens of England, according to the disposition of its re-founders. The church, which is a very handsome Gothic building, is collegiate, and has a master, whose situation is a valuable sinecure, and three brethren, who have forty pounds each; three sisters, who have twenty pounds; and ten beads-women, who have eight pounds per annum each; and six poor schoolars. This church was repaired and enlarged in 1621; and, in 1629, the outside of it was rough-cast, at the expense of sir Julius Cæsar; about which time the clock-tower was added, at the charge of the parishioners. In the choir are several handsome stalls, ornamented with Gothic carved work, resembling those in cathedrals, under one of which is a very good carving of the head of queen Philippa, and another of her husband; and the east-window is very elegant. The pulpit is a great curiosity; on its eight sides are represented the ancient building, and different gates of the hospital. The length of the



church is sixty-nine feet, and its breadth sixty feet; the length of the choir is sixty-three feet, and the breadth thirty-two; and the height of the roof is forty-nine feet. The organ is a remarkably-good one.—There are many ancient monuments in this church, the most curious of which is that of John Holland, duke of Exeter and earl of Huntingdon, and his two wives, on the north side of the choir, under a stately arch; his effigy is placed on the table, in a recumbent posture, and those of his wives on his left hand; with coronets on all their heads. The duke was a great benefactor to the hospital, in which he founded a chauntry; and he bequeathed to the high altar in the church, “a cuppe of byroll, garnished with gold, perles, and precious stones, to be put in the sacrament,” and a number of other valuable effects. Raymond Lully, the famous Hermetic philosopher, wrote his *Testamentum Novissimum* in this hospital.

On the fourth side of the Thames, shaded by an immense forest of masts rising from the innumerable crowd of vessels of all nations, loading and unloading, from this universal mart, all the riches and commodities of both the hemispheres of the globe, winds the well-known street of Wapping, frequented and inhabited by seamen of all descriptions. It has an appearance peculiar to itself, and which cannot be matched any-where.—To the north of this street stands the parish-church of St. John, Wapping; so called from its dedication to St. John the Baptist, and its situation. The old church was erected, in 1617, as a chapel of ease to St. Mary's, Whitechapel; but, by the great increase of buildings, the hamlet of Wapping was, in 1694, constituted a distinct parish. The present edifice was erected in the year 1790. It is built of brick, strengthened with rustic quoins of stone, and enlightened by two series of windows. The principal entrance, to which there is an ascent by a double flight of steps, is at the west end; above it rises a square tower, in two stages, crowned with a bell-shaped cupola, from which rises the vane. This church is a rectory, the patronage of which is in the principal and scholars of King's-hall and Brazen-nose college, Oxford. Adjoining to the church is a charity-school for fifty boys and forty girls, founded in 1704, and rebuilt by voluntary contribution in 1765.

The ground on which this parish stands, was anciently within the flux of the Thames; but when, or by whom, it was first embanked, is not known, though it is supposed to have happened about the year 1544. By frequent inundations of the Thames, its banks in these parts were at times much injured; particularly in the year 1365, when great breaches were made in various parts of it, which were scarcely repaired when another happened in 1571, which was attended with still worse consequences. The commissioners of the sewers, after viewing the destruction made, were of opinion, that the most effectual way to secure the bank of the river, in those parts, would be to erect buildings thereon. Accordingly, the ground was taken for that purpose, and the first foundations of houses were laid on the spot where Wapping is now situated.

At the elbow which the bank of the river makes towards the south, is the place called *Execution Dock*, where all pirates, and others condemned at the admiralty-sessions for offences committed on the high seas, are executed on a gibbet, at low-watermark.

On the west is the entrance into the *LONDON DOCKS*.—When it is considered that the port of London commands about three-fifths of the commerce of the whole kingdom, that it has frequently riding within it from 1300 to 1400 sail of vessels at a time, and in the course of the year about 14,000; that from the year 1700 to 1792 its imports had increased from 4,785,538l. to 12,072,674l. and its exports from 5,387,787l. to 14,742,516l. it appears surprising that proper accommodations for its commerce should have been so long wanting. The legal quays, which were only 1464 feet long, having remained the same as at the time of the fire of London, were, with the aid of the sufferance-wharfs, totally inadequate to the increase of its commerce. The inconveniencies arising from

the crowded state of the Thames at all times, but particularly at those periods when ships arrive in large fleets, were long felt and complained of by all the principal merchants; and, from reference to the reports of committees, and other publications on the improvement of the port of London, it appears that different plans had been frequently suggested to extend the convenience of the legal quays both above and below London-bridge. It was not, however, till the year 1793, that a plan was first projected for making wet docks for the port of London, in Wapping, the Isle of Dogs, and at Rotherhithe; the preference was intended to have been given, in the first instance, to Wapping, from its vicinity to the city, the seat of business, and to the custom-house; one end of the spot fixed upon being within a quarter of a mile of the Tower of London, and the eastern extremity of it about one mile. The plan of docks meeting with approbation and encouragement, they were circulated generally to all the great leading interests in and out of parliament, and to all the principal persons connected with the commercial interest.

In 1794, a general meeting of merchants was convened, to consider the great inconveniencies of the port of London, arising from the crowded state of the river, and the confined extent of the legal quays; when a committee was appointed to consider of the best mode of relief, who took into consideration all the plans which had been suggested; and at length they approved of the plan for making wet docks in Wapping, with wharfs and warehouses on their borders, as the most effectual means of remedying the evils of the port. In consequence of this determination, Mr. Daniel Alexander, an ingenious architect and surveyor, who had been making great alterations at Rochester-bridge, and who was conversant with operations connected with the tide, was directed to make a survey, and prepare plans and estimates for forming docks at Wapping, with the addition of a cut or canal leading to them, from that part of Blackwall where the present East-India docks have been made, and along a line where the West-India docks have been since formed. The plans and estimates were laid before a general meeting of merchants on the 22d of December, 1795, when they were unanimously approved, and a subscription of 300,000l. was filled in a few hours, for carrying the same into execution. A committee was appointed to make application to parliament, who presented a petition in January 1796, which was referred to a select committee of the house of commons, who were directed “to enquire into the best mode of providing sufficient accommodation for the increased trade and shipping of the port of London.” The application of the merchants experienced great opposition both from the corporation of the city of London and from private interests; and a great variety of plans and projects were brought forward for the extension of the legal quays above and below the bridge, and the improvement of the river, with or without docks. This caused much delay; but the necessity of providing some additional accommodation for the increasing multitude of ships which filled the river became every day more evident; and, upon a comparison of the various plans for making docks in different situations, it was generally admitted, that wet docks might be formed in various situations at a much less expense than on the spot fixed upon for the London docks at Wapping; but that the situation of the latter, from its vicinity to the seat of commerce, would much more than counterbalance the additional expense of their formation. Through the great exertions and perseverance of William Vaughan, esq. assisted by other highly-respectable mercantile characters, the various obstacles to the plan of the London Docks were successively overcome; and, in August 1798, the subscribers gave notice, that in the ensuing session of parliament they meant to renew their application for forming docks at Wapping, and in December following they petitioned for leave to bring in a bill for this purpose. A few days after a petition was presented by the corporation of London, with a view to similar objects, and by making a navigable canal or passage across the Isle of Dogs from



from Blackwall to Limehouse, purchasing the mooring-chains in the river, which were mostly private property, and appointing harbour-masters to regulate the navigating and mooring of vessels in the port; they also proposed to make wet docks in some part of the Isle of Dogs for the reception and discharge of West-India shipping. The latter part of the plan had however been taken up by a number of West-India merchants and planters, who had formed themselves into a company distinct from the subscribers to the London Docks, for the purpose of forming docks for the reception of the West-India trade only, either alone or in conjunction with the other improvements projected by the corporation. The general conviction of the necessity of some measure of this kind was not sufficient to produce a union of interests in favour of either of the proposed plans. At length the committee of the house of commons made a report, recommending the formation of wet docks as the only remedy for the evils of the port; and that they should be made both at Wapping and the Isle of Dogs; but that the latter should be adopted first.

The corporation of London and the West-India merchants forming a junction, the act for making the West-India docks passed in 1799; in 1800, an act was passed for forming the docks at Wapping; and, in 1803, for making docks at Blackwall for the East-India trade. These several undertakings, all arising out of the original project of the London Docks, have been since carried into execution, to the great convenience of the commerce of the port of London, and the permanent benefit of the subscribers, by whom the large sums necessary for accomplishing them were advanced.

The act for forming the London Dock Company was the second in point of time; but it meets us first in our eastern progress. This act passed on the 20th of June, 1800. The capital stock of the company was originally 1,200,000*l.* and they were authorised to borrow, at interest, the further sum of 300,000*l.* but, a still larger capital being found necessary for completing the undertaking, they applied to parliament, in 1804, for leave to augment their capital stock by 500,000*l.* and, having since obtained another act for the liberty of raising a further sum of 500,000*l.* the total capital stock the company are now authorised to raise is 2,200,000*l.* The dividends to be paid thereon to the subscribers, are limited to 10 per cent. per annum. The management is vested in twenty-four directors, elected annually, of whom the lord-mayor is one. The original plan of these docks (with the canal, which had been abandoned) was submitted by the directors to the consideration of four civil engineers of the first eminence and respectability, viz. Messrs. Robert Mylne, John Rennie, Joseph Huddart, and William Chapman; and underwent some alterations by them. The dock and basin, as settled by them, were then executed under the direction of Mr. Rennie; and the warehouses and wall by Mr. Alexander. The dock, basin, and warehouses, are of brick and stone, are well designed, in a chaste and grand style, and happily executed, producing a noble effect. The principal dock is 1260 feet long, and 690 feet broad, containing twenty acres, and the other basin three acres; and the whole capable of containing about two hundred and thirty ships of 300 tons burthen and upwards. In the act, a power was preserved to make a second dock and basin to the eastward, with an entrance at Shadwell, containing an area of fourteen acres. The stacks of warehouses are furnished with party and cross sub-divisionary walls through the roofs, as a protection against fire. On the east side is the tobacco-warehouse, planned to contain 24,000 hogheads of tobacco; and spacious arched vaults underneath for wine. The whole building stands upon an area of near five acres, covering more ground, under one roof, than any public building or undertaking, except the pyramids of Egypt. Its roof is light, airy, and simple, and adds greatly to the beauty and boldness of the design, and stands unrivalled in architectural buildings of its kind. The company was re-

quired to complete the docks within seven years, which was afterwards extended to twelve years. On the 24th of January, 1805, they gave notice, by advertisement, that the basin at Bell-dock, and the dock communicating therewith, and also part of the warehouses, vaults, and quays, were ready for the reception of ships and landing their cargoes; in consequence of which, the dock was opened for public use in the following week. All ships laden with wine, spirits, tobacco, and rice, must unload in these docks for the term of twenty-one years; with all other vessels the use of the docks is optional, excepting those from the East and West Indies. The ships discharge their cargoes under the company's cranes, by their own crews. In these docks, cooking and residence on-board are allowed, but no lights are permitted after certain hours. The whole is surrounded by a wall, the gates of which are shut at stated hours. There is a neat swivel cast-iron bridge over the entrance-lock at Wapping. An excellent double steam-engine was erected, while the docks were making, to carry off the water; it is not now worked. The rise of the tide at the entrance-lock of the basin, is four feet lower than the dock itself.

Pursuing our way through Wapping, amidst the sounding blows of the hammer against the sides of ships under repair, we indulge in the recollection of the famous simile in the poem of Apollonius of Rhodes, where, describing the fight between Amycus and Pollux, he says:

———— The woods re-echo to the blows.  
Such is reverberated from the cliffs,  
A constant din, when on the shelving shore  
Of some deep-curved bay, or fedy creek,  
The busy shipwrights, in the bulging planks  
Drive and beat on the diamond-headed nails  
With sounding hammers.

Amidst the noise and bustle of sailors of all nations, and the screaming of parrots hanging at the windows of sea-faring men, we arrive at the WEST-INDIA DOCKS, which, by a most bold and well-executed plan, communicate from Blackwall to Limehouse Reach; separating entirely the Isle of Dogs from the large fields known under the name of Poplar.

The act for establishing this company was passed on the 12th of July, 1799. Their original capital was 500,000*l.* which they were empowered to increase to 600,000*l.* This capital was, however, found insufficient for completing the undertaking; and in 1802 the company were authorised to add 200,000*l.* to it, making their capital 300,000*l.* which has been since increased to 1,200,000*l.* The dividends to be paid thereon to the subscribers, are not to exceed 10 per cent. per annum, to which rate they have already attained. The concerns of the company are under the management of twenty-one directors, eight of whom are chosen by the corporation of London, four of them being aldermen, and four common-council men. The works were begun on the 2d of February, 1800; and the first ship entered the homeward-bound dock on the 27th of August, 1802. For the dimensions of these docks, and some other particulars, see ISLE OF DOGS, vol. xi. p. 408. —The use of these docks is limited to the West-India trade for twenty-one years. The company take the ships under their sole direction, of unloading and management, from the moment they enter the docks, discharging the same by their own servants; the crews are dismissed; and neither cooking nor residence allowed on-board any of the vessels while they remain in the homeward-bound docks, the gates of which are shut every evening at stated hours. A military guard is stationed without the docks day and night. The distance from the standard in Cornhill to the nearest dock-gates is rather more than three miles, and to the further extremity of the dock-wall about half a mile more; a considerable expense of cartage is unavoidably incurred, by the ships discharging at this distance; but there is an excellent road both to these docks and to the East-India Docks. The docks and warehouses are hand-

some



soms and spacious, forming a noble and interesting object, which must impress every one with an idea of the vast magnitude of the branch of commerce to which they are appropriated. The warehouses on the north and west sides are ten in number, with partition-walls up to, but not through, the roof; and are capable of containing 8000 hogheads of sugar each; on the south side are extensive warehouses for rum. The docks were planned and executed by William Jessop, esq. civil engineer, and the warehouses by Mr. Gwylt, surveyor and architect.

To the north-east of these are the EAST-INDIA DOCKS. The act for establishing this company passed on the 27th of July, 1803. Their original capital was 200,000*l.* divided into shares of 100*l.* each; and they were authorised to increase the capital to 300,000*l.* if it should be found necessary. In 1806 they were empowered to add 100,000*l.* more to their capital, making in the whole 400,000*l.* The dividends to be paid to the subscribers are, as in the two preceding companies, limited to 10 per cent. The concern is under the management of thirteen directors, who must be holders of at least twenty shares of the company's stock, and four of them must be directors of the East-India company. The first stone of these docks was laid in March 1805, and the first ship entered them in August 1806. The dimensions of the dock for unloading inwards are 1410 feet in length, and 560 feet in width, containing about 18½ acres; the dock for loading outwards, which was a part of Mr. Perry's dock, is 780 feet in length, and 520 feet in width, containing 9½ acres. The extent of the entrance-basoon, which connects them with the river, is 2½ acres; the length of the entrance-lock 210 feet, the width of the gates 48 feet in the clear, and the depth of water at ordinary spring-tides 24 feet. These docks are appropriated solely to the reception of East-India shipping, and the company undertake to deliver the whole of the cargoes. No cooking, fire, or residence on-board, are permitted in these docks, the gates of which are shut every afternoon at four o'clock. The distance from the East-India warehouses being about four miles, the goods are conveyed thither in caravans of a particular construction, by an excellent road, towards the formation of which 10,000*l.* was contributed by the company.

*Perry's Dock* at Blackwall, and *Greenland Dock* on the opposite side of the river, were private property, having been formed by enterprising individuals, long before any public accommodation of this kind existed in the port of London. The first now forms one of the East-India Docks; and *Greenland-Dock*, hitherto appropriated to the purposes of the whale-fishery, has likewise been purchased by a company. The Surrey Canal Company have a dock at the entrance of their canal for small vessels, and have raised a considerable capital.

It affords a striking proof of the wealth and prosperity of the city of London to find, that, in the course of about ten years, there has been expended a capital of between four and five millions in these great undertakings for providing accommodation and security to its shipping and commerce. By means of the Docks, also, a considerable space of distance, of time, and much labour, are spared, by shortening the way to the centre of business, the city, from which the imported goods are sent to all parts of the united kingdom for home-consumption, or afterwards again exported to all parts of the globe.

Leaving these stupendous works, and returning westward towards the centre of our observations, we pass by the spot where, since the fire of London in 1666, this disastrous element has made the most dreadful havoc. We mean the conflagration at Ratcliffe. (See p. 126.) The church, which belongs to this hamlet, is called St. George's in the East, to distinguish it from many others; and was built between the years 1715 and 1729. It is a massy structure, erected in a very particular taste. The floor is raised a considerable height above the level of the ground; and the principal door, which is in the west front of the tower, has an ascent to it by a double flight of steps, cut with a sweep,

and defended by a low wall of the same form. But the greatest singularity in this building is, there are four turrets over the body of the church, and one on the tower; the latter of which is in the form of a fortification, with a staff on the top, for an occasional flag. This church is a rectory, the patronage of which, like that of Stepney, is in the principal and scholars of King's-hall and Brazen-nose college, Oxford.

The only remarkable building in this parish, except the church, is Raine's hospital; which is a very handsome edifice, situated in Fowden-fields. It was erected by Mr. Henry Raine, brewer, in the year 1737, who endowed it, by a deed of gift, with a perpetual annuity of 240*l.* per annum, and added the sum of four thousand pounds, in South-sea annuities, to be laid out in a purchase. The children of this hospital, which contains forty-eight girls, are taken out of a parish-school almost contiguous to it, erected in the year 1719 by the same gentleman, at the expense of about two thousand pounds, who also endowed it with a perpetual annuity. These children are supported with all the necessaries of life, and are taught to read, write, sew, and do household work, in order to qualify them for service; to which they are put, after having been three years on the foundation. He also directed the sum of one hundred pounds to be given, every May-day and Christmas, as a marriage-portion to one of these girls, to be chosen by lot out of six.

Nicholas Gibson's school for sixty boys, erected in 1537, is a standing monument of the liberality and good sense of our ancestors; and, with others, must contribute to vindicate them from the ungrateful accusation of wishing to keep down the veil of ignorance upon the eyes of the rising generation. He was sheriff of London: and added to this little seminary fourteen almshouses for as many widows; seven from Stepney-parish, and seven of the members of the Coopers' company.

At a little distance, and on the south of Ratcliffe Highway, is the parish of St. Paul, Shadwell, which was anciently a hamlet belonging to Stepney; but, being greatly increased in the number of its inhabitants, Thomas Neale, esq. erected a church, in the year 1656, for their accommodation; and, in 1669, this district was, by act of parliament, constituted a distinct parish from that of Stepney. The church, which is but a mean edifice, built with brick, is eighty-seven feet long, and sixty-three broad; the height, to the roof, is twenty-eight feet, and that of the steeple sixty. The body has a few windows, with rustic arches, and some very mean ones in the roof. At the corners of the building are balls, placed on a kind of small pedestals. The tower is carried up without ornament, and is terminated with balls at the corners, in the same manner as the body of the church, and is crowned with a plain low turret. It is a rectory, the advowson of which is in the Dean and Chapter of St. Paul's, as ground-landlords of the whole parish.

This parish is one of the Tower-hamlets. It received the name of *Shadwell* from a spring, or well, which at this time lies buried under a pillar, near the south-west corner of the church, within the church-yard. The south part of the parish, denominated Lower Shadwell, being anciently part of Wapping-marsh, was within the course of the river Thames, till it was embanked. The streets in this parish, called Old and New Gravel-lanes, were so denominated from their being anciently ways for carts, laden with gravel, from the neighbouring fields, to pass to the Thames, where it was used in ballasting ships, before ballast was taken out of the said river.

In the north-east part of this parish, in a place now called Sun tavern-fields, a Roman cemetery was discovered, about the year 1615, wherein were found two coffins; one whereof, being of stone, contained the bones of a man; and the other of lead, beautifully embellished with scollop-shells, contained those of a woman, at whose head and feet were placed two urns, of the height of three feet each; and at the sides, divers beautiful red earthen bottles, with a number of lachrymatories, of hexagonal and octagonal form; and



and on each side of the inhumed bones were deposited two ivory sceptres, of the length of eighteen inches each; and upon the breast the figure of a small Cupid, curiously wrought, as were likewise two pieces of jet, resembling nails, of the length of two inches. The person here interred, according to the opinion of that judicious antiquary, sir Richard Cotton, who made the discovery, must have been the consort of some prince, or Roman prætor, by the decorations of the coffin, and things therein contained. At the same time were likewise discovered a great number of urns, with Roman coins, which, on one side, had this inscription, *Imp. Papienus Maximus, P. F.*

We come now into Wellclose-square, which has sometimes been called Marine-square, from the number of sea-officers who generally reside in it. It is a very neat square, though of no great extent. The principal ornament in it is the Danish church, erected in the year 1746, which is situated in the centre, in the midst of a church-yard, well planted with trees, and surrounded by a handsome wall, adorned at equal distances with iron rails. The church is a commodious and elegant structure; and, though the architect appears to have understood ornaments, he has not been too lavish in the use of them. The edifice consists of a tall and handsome body, with a tower and turret. The body is divided, by the projection of the middle part, into a fore-front in the centre, and two small fronts. Over the principal entrance is a group of figures, representing Charity, and, on each side, in niches, are figures of Faith and Hope. At the west end is the tower, and at the east it swells into the sweep of a circle. The corners of the building are faced with rustic; the windows, which are large and well-proportioned, are cased with stone, with a cherub's head at the top of the arch; and the roof is concealed by a blocking course. The tower has a considerable diminution in the upper stage, which has on each side a pediment, and is covered by a dome, from which rises an elegant turret, supported by Composite columns.

On a line with this square, but farther to the east, is another, called Prince's Square; which is neat, and also chiefly inhabited by the families of gentlemen belonging to the sea. The principal ornament of this square, is the church and church-yard belonging to the Swedes. The front of this building is carried up flat, with niches and ornaments; and on the summit is a pediment. The body is divided into a central part, projecting forwarder than the rest, and two sides. The central part has two tall windows, terminated by a pediment, in the midst of which is an oval window; but in the sides there is only a compartment below, with a circular window above. The corners of the building are wrought in a bold plain rustic. The tower rises square from the roof, and at the corners are placed urns with flames; from thence rises a turret, in the lantern form, with flaming urns at the corners; the turret is covered with a dome, crowned with a ball, supporting the vane, in the form of a rampant lion.

On the west of these squares is East Smithfield, which in the reign of Henry III. was an open field, and where for fifteen days, from Whitfun-eve to the first Sunday after Trinity, an annual fair was held in virtue of a royal grant. It is now covered with lanes, alleys, and courts. Stow has preserved a very curious record concerning this place, proving that it was from time immemorial within the liberty of the city of London; and that in this field tilts and tournaments were held with great solemnity in the reign of Canute the Dane.

Between East Smithfield and Tower-hill once stood a religious foundation, called by the several names of the New Abbey, the Abbey of Graces, and Eastminster. This house was founded by king Edward III. but was suppressed at the general dissolution of religious places in the reign of king Henry VIII. and on the site of it was erected the Victualling-office; but the commissioners having lately removed to Somerset-place, this building has now made room for the New Mint. See p. 443.

If we happen to pass the end of this street, which is

called *Rosemary-lane*, but more commonly *Rag Fair*, a name which seems to have entirely superseded in smell as well as in denomination the sweet plant by which it was anciently called, we shall have occasion to inspect one of the most curious scenes—ragged Jews selling rags. The articles of commerce by no means belie the name. There is no expressing the poverty of the goods (says Mr. Pennant), nor yet their cheapness: "A distinguished merchant, engaged with a purchaser, observing me to look on him with great attention, called out to me, as his customer was going off with his bargain, to observe that man; For, says he, I have actually clothed him for fourteen pence." It certainly requires a very considerable share of speculative calculation to apprehend how this merchant could have a profit, as well as the street-walking Israelite who bought these articles from a servant, who perhaps had also a profit in the business.—A large building on the north side of this street, opening at both ends, with two counters, is called the Clothes Exchange.

In Well-street, near the east end of Rosemary-lane, is the Royalty Theatre, built by subscription in the year 1786, with a view to the representation of plays; but, the proprietors not having had the precaution to secure a legal power for that purpose, the scheme failed, and only one performance of that description was given. After this, the theatre was closed for a short time, and re-opened with a license, obtained under the act of parliament for authorizing the magistrates to grant permission for the exhibition of interludes, pantomimes, and other species of irregular drama. Since that time, it has been in the occupation of various adventurers, but with very indifferent success, until lately, that Mr. Astley, jun. has opened it, in the winter season, upon a plan similar to his summer theatre. It is an extensive brick building, without any external decoration: the interior is, however, very commodiously and neatly fitted up.

On the north are Goodman's Fields. Stow, in his simple manner, tells, that in his time one *Trolop*, and afterward *Goodman*, were the farmers there; and that the "fields were a farme belonging to the said nunrie; at the which farme I my selfe (says he), in my youth, have fetched manye a halfe-penny-worth of milk; and never had lesse than three ale pints for a halfe-penny in the summer, nor lesse than one ale quart for a halfe-penny in the winter, alwaies hot from the kine."—The theatre in Goodman's Fields will always be remembered as the stage where Garrick first showed those powers, which, for such a number of years, astonished and charmed the public. One Odel founded the playhouse in this square, in 1728. As sir John Hawkins expresses it, "a halo of brothels" soon incircled that, as it does all theatres; and drove away the industrious inhabitants. This theatre was rebuilt, in an expensive manner, by Henry Giffard, in 1737; but was suppressed by the act for the licensing of places of dramatical entertainment. Yet it was supported a few years by an evasion; during which time, Mr. Garrick entered himself of the company. See the article GARRICK, vol. viii. p. 259.

In our second visit to the Isle of Dogs, coming back through *Poplar*, a marsh anciently so called from a considerable grove of trees of that name over shadowing the whole place, we pass through *LIMEHOUSE*, (see vol. xii. p. 722.) and, winding along *Salmon-lane*, we come to the considerable hamlet of *Stepney*. The church is dedicated to St. Dunstan. It was originally one of the largest parishes in England, as will be evident from the following parishes having been all taken out of it, viz. St. Mary, Whitechapel; St. Mary-le-Bow, Stratford; Christchurch, Spitalfields; St. Matthew, Bethnal-green; St. Anne, Limehouse; St. George, Ratcliff-highway; and St. John, Wapping. Though all these parishes have been separated from it, it still remains one of the largest within the bills of mortality; and contains the hamlets of Mile-End Old and New Town, Ratcliff, and Poplar.

It is not recorded at what period the present church was



erected; however, there was a church here so long ago as the time of the Saxons, when it was called the church of All Saints; and we read of the manor of Stepney under the reign of William the Conqueror, by the name of *Stipenhade*, or *Stiben's heath*; it does not appear when the church again changed its name, by being dedicated to St. Dunstan; but, if we consider the word *Stiben* or *Stipen* as a corruption of *Stephen* or *Stephanus*, we may conjecture, and with great plausibility, that this church passed from under the patronage of All Saints to that of a single saint, Stephen; and from him to that of one who perhaps was no saint at all, though called St. Dunstan.

From this place we deambulate through several agreeable walks, among which Stepney Green is not the least interesting; and, entering Mile End at Assembly-row, and opposite nearly to the Trinity and Bancroft's alms-houses, we direct our way back to the west.—The alms-houses of the Trinity company were founded in the year 1695 by the corporation, on a piece of ground given to them for that purpose by Capt. Henry Mudd, who was an elder brother. They are twenty-eight in number, and devoted to the residence of decayed commanders of ships, or mates or pilots, and their wives or widows, whose pensions are 18l. per annum, and a chaldron and a half of coals. In the centre of the quadrangle is the statue of Capt. Saunders, who died in 1721, having bequeathed 100l. and the reversion of an estate in Lincolnshire of 147l. per annum to these alms-houses; this reversion fell in about the year 1746, when this statue was erected. On the north side of the square is a very neat chapel, in the windows of which are some coats of arms in stained glass, which were removed from the old hall of the Trinity House at Deptford, when it was taken down in 1787, and were set up in this chapel in 1793.

A little beyond this, stands a handsome building, called Bancroft's alms-houses, in which the founder has blended the objects of providing a comfortable retirement for old age, and the instruction of young boys.—Francis Bancroft was the grandson of archbishop Bancroft; his circumstances becoming much reduced, he was engaged for many years as one of the lord-mayor's officers, during which time he acquired a fortune of 28,000l. in real and personal estate, which he bequeathed by his will, dated March 18, 1727, to the Company of Drapers, in trust, for the purchase of a piece of ground for erecting and endowing an alms-house, with convenient apartments for twenty-four alms-men, poor old members of that company, a chapel, and school-room for a hundred boys, with two dwelling-houses for the masters of the school. He directed for each alms-man 8l. with half a chaldron of coals, and a gown of baize every third year; and the school-boys to be clothed, and taught to read, write, and cast accounts, for which the masters were to receive salaries of 30l. each, in addition to their dwelling-house; he also bequeathed 20l. yearly for coals and candles, for the use of the masters and schools, besides books, paper, pens, and ink; 5l. for a dinner to the committee of the court of assistants of the Drapers' Company at their annual visitation; 3l. 10s. for two half-yearly sermons to be preached at the parish churches of St. Helen Bishopsgate, and St. Michael Cornhill, or elsewhere, in commemoration of the founder, out of which the minister to have 20s. the reader 10s. and the clerk and sexton 2s. 6d. each; at which the alms-men are to be present, and the boys also, who are to be catechised by the reader; and, when placed as apprentices, 4l. to be given with each of them; but, if they are only put to service, they are to receive 50s. for clothing. In the year 1735, the company, pursuant to their trust, erected a school at Mile End. The whole building occupies three sides of a spacious quadrangle; on the east and west sides are the habitations of the pensioners; in the centre of the north side is the chapel, which has a handsome stone portico, supported by pillars of the Ionic order; the school and the dwelling-house of the master adjoin the chapel. The company have taken such

care of the estate as to be enabled to increase their annual pensions to the alms-men from 8l. to 18l. each. Bancroft lies buried at the church of Great St. Helen's, Bishopsgate-street, in a vault, over which he erected a monument in his life-time. His body is embowelled and embalmed, and laid in a kind of chest, with a lid that lifts up and down, but not fastened; and his face is covered with a square glass, fixed in the lid.

Let us remark, with lively feelings of gratitude, how careful our ancestors were in selecting places of a salubrious and pleasing retirement for old age. Most of those houses of refuge for the decrepid and the feeble were surrounded with groves of trees; and brooks of clear water used to run across the gardens, cultivated by the aged hands of the peaceful inhabitants. But the increase of trade in the metropolis, and a contagious rage for building, have surrounded those tranquil abodes with stacks of smoky chimneys, covered the brooks with busy streets, and transformed the gardens into noisy warehouses; so that, although they were distant from London, London has built itself up to them; and, in spite of their shabby titles, Duck-lane, Dog-lane, Red-Cow-lane, &c. found plenty of inhabitants.

On our left, and nearly opposite to these charitable establishments, we meet another called the London Hospital. It is a plain neat building in brick, well adapted for the benevolent purpose to which it is devoted—the reception of sick and lame indigent persons, especially manufacturers or seamen in the merchant-service. This extensive charity is supported by voluntary contribution, and has accommodation for nearly 300 persons. At its institution, the patients were received into a large house in Prescot-street; but, that being too small for the purpose, this spacious edifice was erected in a situation which, by its airiness is conducive to the restoration of health and strength.

Looking towards the south-west, our eyes dart through Whitechapel nearly as far as the pump at the end of Aldgate, through clouds of dust raised by the carts, waggons, stages, gigs, &c. which crowd the street. On the left-hand side is a long range of butchers' shops; many of these are carcase-butchers, and not retailers: others kill meat in a peculiar manner for the Jews.—The great quantity of calves brought from Essex and other eastern counties, has probably given rise to the following anecdote: An apprentice-boy being with his master in Epping forest, employed in the cruel amusement of bird-neiting, were disturbed by the appearance of a couple of stout robbers. These fellows, (the robbers we mean,) finding their prey of little value, left them, and walked off. As soon as they were out of sight, the master says, "Jack, how did I look when they came up? I was not frightened, was I?" "No, master," said the lad, "you looked like a lion."—"A lion!" replied the praise-tickled cobbler with astonishment; "and how do you know a lion? have you ever seen one?"—"Aye, master, I have seen many cart-loads of them in Whitechapel."—Hence the joke of calling a calf a *Whitechapel lion*.

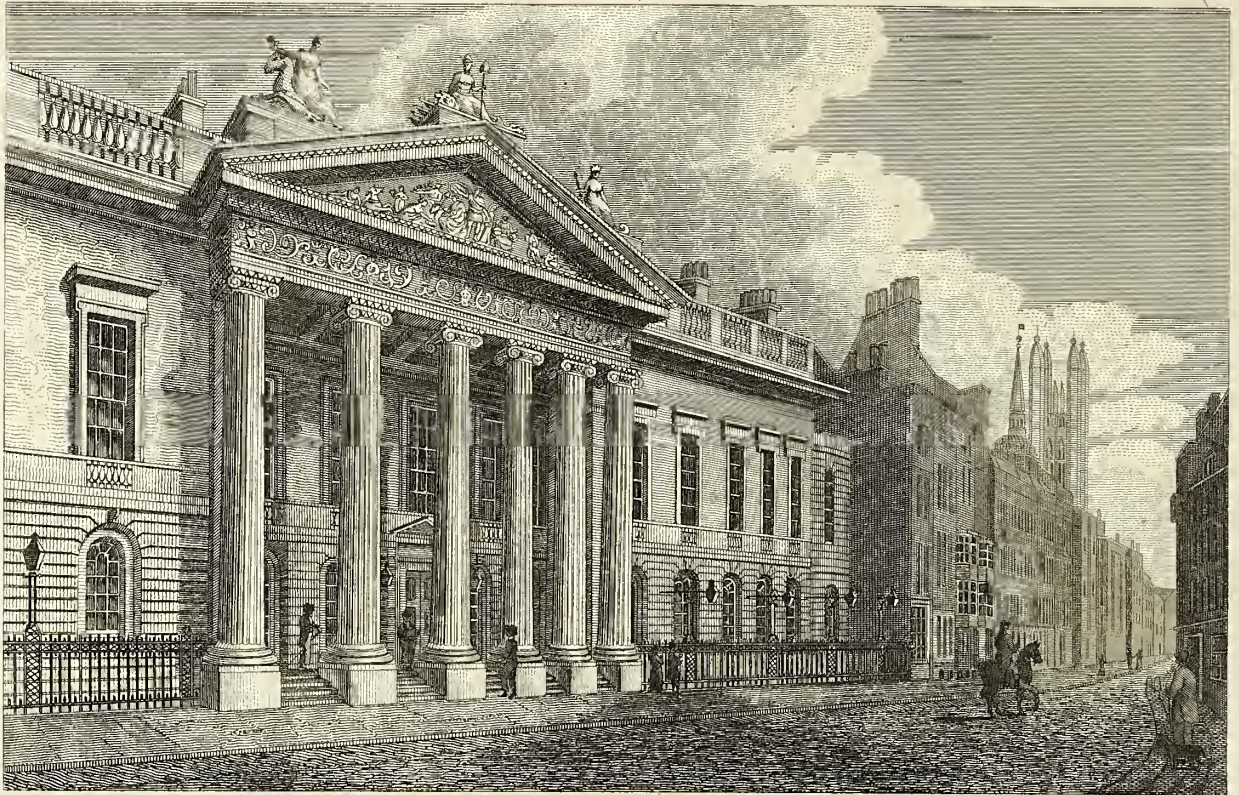
The opposite side of the way abounds with inns for travellers; and has not any other appearance but what it is, one of the suburbs of a great town. The church from which it derives its name is St. Mary Matfellow, a chapel of ease to St. Dunstan's parish, Stepney. The etymon of the appellation *Matfellow* is not easy to ascertain. Some are of opinion that it arises from a *felon* having been put to death by the women of Whitechapel for having murdered his benefactress—he was a native of Brittany. Others pretend that it means in Hebrew the fame as *puerpera* in Latin, "a woman lately delivered of a child."—The altar-piece in this church, designed to libel the dean of Peterborough, has been noticed under the article KENNEL, vol. xi. p. 667. The picture has since been replaced; but the offensive likenesses is expunged.

In this parish some of our nobility had formerly their villas, for the sake of country air. Here Cromwell earl of Essex, the short-lived minister of Henry VIII. had a house;

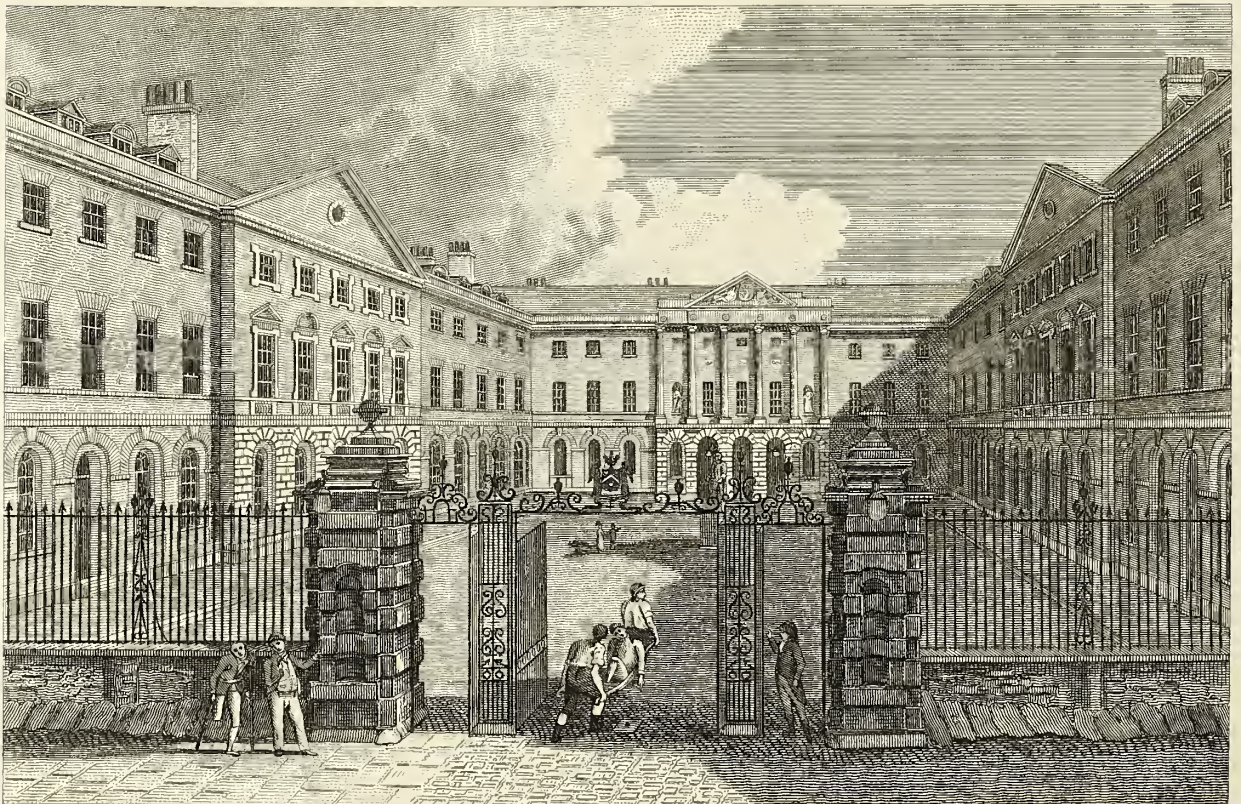








*The East-India House, in Leadenhall Street.*



*North Front of Guy's Hospital.*

*J. Poff. Sculp.*



house; and the famous Gondamor retired here, when disengaged from his bubble, James I.

We now proceed to the very spot where the old gate, the eastern entrance to the city, called *Aldgate*, originally stood; (see p. 103 of this volume, and Plate III.) At the junction of Leadenhall-street and Fenchurch-street, stands a stone pump, the water of which is reckoned most salubrious; and behind is a remarkable fruit-shop, one of the best in the eastern part of the town; it is generally well-stocked with pine-apples, grapes, and other dainties, which our good citizens love to indulge in, though at no small cost.

On our left in Leadenhall-street, we find the spot where a hardware-man, priding himself in his love for slovenliness, was known by the name of *Dirty Dick*; yet, strange to tell! people were found, and in no small quantity, who would not grudge a compliment of a few shillings, by buying some article they did not want, in order to be admitted into his filthy sanctuary, the abode of spiders and cobwebs, crickets, cockroaches, mice and rats, and the peaceful empire of undisturbed dust. To dust *Dirty Dick* is gone; yet we are told, that, for several years after death had brushed him off, the tenants of the house kept a part of these dirty premises still uncleaned, and used to show it for money: at any rate, we know that the upper rows of panes in the shop-windows were kept dirty and unattended to attract customers, till very lately. When foreigners read this passage of our survey, they must draw this conclusion—that the English are so naturally fond of cleanliness, that any thing particularly dirty appears to them a phenomenon.

Beneath a house, at the south-east corner of this street, are the remains of the parochial chapel of St. Michael, which will serve to show to what a prodigious height this part of the city has been raised; for the shafts of the pillars are buried at least sixteen feet in the ground, which, with ten feet for the present internal altitude, warrants the conclusion, that the street-pavement is, at this time, twenty-six feet higher than the level must have been when the chapel was founded. The two aisles remain, the pillars and arches of which are in fine preservation, and the keys of the arches are sculptured with well-executed masks; the walls are of square pieces of chalk, in the manner of Rochester castle, and exhibit as skilful masonry as any building in this age of refinement. The length of the chapel, from north to south, contrary to the common mode of building sacred edifices, is forty-eight feet; and, from east to west, its breadth is sixteen feet.

Stow records another proof of the increased height of this neighbourhood. He says, "Betwixt this, Belzeter's (Billiter) lane, and Lime-street, was (of later time) a frame of three fair houses, set up in the year 1590, in place where before was a large garden-plot, inclosed, from the high-street, with a brick-wall; which wall being taken down, and the ground digged deep for cellarage, there was found, right-under the said brick-wall, another wall of stone, with a gate, arched of stone, and gates of timber, to be closed in the midst, towards the street. The timber of the gates was consumed; but the hinges of yron still remained on their staples, on both the sides. Moreover, in that wall were square windows, with bars of yron, on either side the gate; this wall was underground, about two fathoms deepe, as I then esteemed it; and seemeth to bee the ruins of some house burned in the reign of king Stephen, when the fire began in the house of one Alewarde, near London-stone, and consumed east to Aldgate; whereby it appeareth how greatly the ground of this citie hath been in that place rayed."

On the right, and at the south-east corner of St. Mary Axe, stands the parish-church of St. Andrew the Apostle, better known by the name of St. Andrew Undershaft. It obtained the latter appellation from a high May-pole, or shaft, which was set up, annually, on May-day, in the middle of the street, opposite the south door of the church, and was higher than the church-steeple. After

the insurrection of the apprentices, on Evil May-day, in the year 1517, (see p. 73.) the shaft was hung upon a range of hooks, under the pent-houses of a long row of neighbouring buildings, where it remained until the third of Edward VI. when a fanatic, called sir Stephen, curate of St. Catharine Creechurch, preaching at St. Paul's Cross, declaimed against it, as being made an idol, by naming the church *under that shaft*; which so inflamed his equally-fanatic auditory, that, in the afternoon of the same day, it was, with great labour, lowered from the hooks, and sawed in pieces; each man taking for his share the portion which had lain over his door.

The church was originally founded in 1362; but it had become so ruinous, that the present one was begun to be built about the year 1502, and for the most part finished at the charge of William Fitz-Williams, who was sheriff in 1507; the north side, however, was erected by Stephen Jenyns, lord-mayor in 1508; whose arms are carved above all the pillars on that side. It was not completed until 1532. This church escaped the flames in 1666. It is a plain Gothic structure, with a square tower, terminated by battlements, with pinnacles at the corners; within which rises a turret, that contains six bells. The length of the church is ninety-six feet; its breadth fifty-four, and its height, to the roof, forty-two; the altitude of the square tower is seventy-four feet, and that of the turret seventeen. It is a rectory, in the patronage of the bishop of London. The window over the altar contains the portraits of Edward VI. Elizabeth, James I. and Charles I. and II. and is a fine specimen of the art of painting on glass in the seventeenth century.

In this church was interred the faithful and able historiographer of the city, to whom in this article we have been so much indebted—John Stow. He died on the 5th of April, 1605, and, to the shame of his time, in great poverty. His monument is still in being; he is represented sitting with a table before him, on which is an open book, with many others lying beside him. The figure has a reverend aspect, with a short white beard, the crown of the head bald, and short hair above the ears; it is of terra-cotta, or burnt earth, painted; a common practice in those days, though now considered a new invention.

The street, at the corner of which this church stands, took its name from another which stood very near, on the north side also of the street, and was dedicated to the Virgin Mary, with the addition of "at the Axe," for distinction, and from a sign which hung opposite the east end of it. In 1565, this parish was united to that of St. Andrew; the church transformed into a warehouse, and at last entirely pulled down.

On our left rises in pompous majesty the portico of the East-India House. The whole of the building has an appearance suited to the purpose, and befitting the dignity of the rulers and proprietors of a large portion of Hindoostan. It was greatly enlarged and newly fronted in the year 1799. It occupies the site of the house and gardens formerly belonging to the earls of Craven, of whom the company rented it prior to 1726, when the old East-India-house was built. The principal entrance, from Leadenhall-street, is through a portico, consisting of six fluted columns of the Ionic order, supporting a frieze decorated with antique ornaments, surmounted by a pediment, in the tympanum of which is an elegant group of emblematical figures. The principal figure in this group, represents his majesty, leaning on his sword, which is in his left hand, and extending the shield of protection, with his right arm, over Britannia, who is embracing Liberty. On one side Mercury, attended by Navigation, and followed by tritons and sea-horses, emblematical of Commerce, introduces Asia to Britannia, at whose feet she pours out her rich productions. On the other side is Order, accompanied by Religion and Justice. Behind these appears the city-berge, and other emblems of London, near which are Integrity



and Industry. The western angle is filled by the Thames, and the eastern by the Ganges; indicative of their respective positions. On the apex of this pediment is a pedestal, on which is Britannia seated by her lion, and holding in her left hand a spear with a cap of liberty upon it. Above one extremity of the portico is Europe, seated on a horse; and, above the other, Asia, on a camel.

Such is the design of this grand entrance, which is certainly one of the principal ornaments of the city; but which is not without faults. Every one is astonished at the glaring impropriety of putting the buckler of protection in the king's right hand, and the sword in his left; a mistake, which, a century or two hence, may cause the beholders to suppose, and the antiquaries of that time gravely to decide, that George III. was left-handed. It is impossible to guess where such a mistake originated, or to justify its having been allowed to remain. However, when the spectator grows too angry at the blunder, he may turn his back, and then he will find all right if he looks at the reflection of the bas-relief in the shop-window opposite to the building. We must not cavil at the introduction of *Integrity*, just by *Industry*, in this complicated group of figures; for it is meet she should be there, if nowhere else.

Under the portico is the door of the hall, from which a long passage leads to a court, surrounded by offices for different purposes. In it are two of Tippoo's long tiger-guns, the muzzles of which are moulded to represent the extended jaws of that ferocious animal; the workmanship of these pieces is worthy of admiration.

The court-room is on the right of the entrance; it is very elegantly fitted up, and well lighted by two rows of windows on the left-hand side. The chimney-piece is of fine white marble, the cornice of which is supported by two caryatides of statuary marble, on pilasters of veined marble. Above this is an emblematical design, in fine white marble, representing Britannia seated on a globe, under a rock, by the sea-side, with a trident in her left hand, and her right arm on a shield, bearing the union cross. Behind her are two boys; one leaning on a cornucopia, the other playing with its contents. Before her are three female figures: The first, representing India, offers her a casket of jewels, from which a string of diamonds is hanging down; next is Asia, holding a censer in one hand, and the bridle of a camel in the other; the third figure represents Africa, decorated with the spoils of an elephant, and one hand resting on the head of a lion. On the shore is the god of the Thames, holding a rudder in his right hand, and a cornucopia in his left. Above all are the company's arms, tastefully decorated. In this room are elegant paintings of Fort St. George, Bombay, Fort William, Tellicherry, the Cape of Good Hope, and St. Helena. There are many other good paintings in the different rooms, particularly two portraits of marquis Cornwallis and governor Hastings, in the room for the committee of correspondence, both bequeathed to the company by William Larkin, esq. In the upper story of the building is a room fitted up as a library, in which a collection of books in all the oriental languages is forming. It is already rich in specimens of Hindoostanee, Persian, and Chinese, manuscripts and printed works, and contains a complete set of the materials for printing a book in the Chinese language; consisting not only of the blocks with which each page is printed, but also of the tools for cutting them; the ink, press, &c. Here is also a museum of natural curiosities, and several specimens of antiquities, particularly the Roman pavement, lately found before the house in Leadenhall-street.—One of the principal and richest curiosities of this museum is the head of a tiger, the natural size, in massive gold. The eyes are made out of a singular precious stone, and the teeth are of the finest crystal; the tongue is moveable. This belonged to the unfortunate and ill-advised Tipoo; and used to stand in one of his most favourite apartments. It is said that, when any order was issued from his hand, the paper was placed

in the tiger's mouth as a letter-box for his slaves to take it and carry it to its address. We cannot say here, *Materia superabat opus*, ("The beauty of the workmanship surpassed the value of the materials;") for the head is coarsely and unmeaningly executed.—A singular piece of mechanism is also shown in this room. It is the representation in wood of a tiger devouring an European; a pleasing subject for the despot of Mysore's speculations; but what adds to the barbarous horror of the group, is a sort of organ concealed in the body of the animal, which, when set to play, imitates, by melancholy starts and dreadful intervals, the screams of the man and the roaring of the beast.—The colours taken at Seringapatam are also deposited here; and a great number of curious Hindoo idols deserve the attention of the visitor.

The first object worthy of our attention on the west of Lime-street, which gives a name to the ward, is Leaden-Hall, now converted into a market. It was originally a manor-house, belonging to sir Hugh Neville, in the year 1309; and was purchased by the munificent Whittington in 1408, who afterwards presented it to the city. In 1419, sir Simon Eyre erected a public granary here, built with stone, in its present form. He also built a chapel within the square, which he intended to apply to the uses of a foundation for a warden, six secular priests, six clerks, and two choristers; and also for three school-masters; and he left three thousand marks to the Drapers' Company to fulfil his intent, which was never executed; but, in 1466, there was a fraternity of sixty priests here, founded by William Rouse, and two others, some of whom celebrated divine service to the market-people daily. But this house was used for many other purposes; anciently it was the city arsenal, and, from its strength, it was considered as the chief fortress within the city, in case of popular tumults. Stow says, that in his youth, the common beam for weighing wool and other wares was in a part of the north quadrant, on the east side of the north gate; on the west side of the gate were scales to weigh meal. The other three sides were reserved, for the most part, to the making and resting of the pageants showed at Midsummer, in the watch. The remnant of the sides and quadrants were employed for the stowage of wool-sacks, but not closed up. The lofts above were partly used by painters in working for the decking of pageants and other devices; and the residue was let to merchants and to woolwinders and packers, to wind and pack their wool therein.

In its present state it is used as a market for provisions and various other articles; and is supposed to be the greatest in London for the sale of country-killed meat, and the only skin and leather-market within the bills of mortality. The whole consists of three courts or yards; the first of which is that at the north-east corner of Gracechurch, opening into Leadenhall-street. It contains a great number of stalls or standings for butchers; and, as there is but little meat sold here except beef, it is distinguished by the name of the Beef-market. On Tuesdays this yard is a market for leather; on Thursdays the waggons from Colchester and other parts come with baize, &c. and also the fellmongers with their wool; on Fridays it is a market for raw-hides; and on Saturdays, for beef.—The second market-yard is called the Green-yard, as being once a green plot of ground; afterwards it was the city's store-yard for materials for building and the like, but now a market for veal, mutton, lamb, &c. This yard has in it a hundred and forty stalls, all covered over, and of the size of those in the beef-market. In the middle of this green-yard-market, is a row of shops, with rooms over them, for fish-mongers; and also on the south side and west end are houses and shops for fish-mongers. Towards the east end of this yard is erected a market-house, standing upon columns, with vaults underneath, and rooms above, with a bell-tower and a clock; and under it are butchers' stalls. The tenements round about this yard, are, for the most part inhabited by cooks, victuallers, and such-like; and in the passages, leading out of the streets into this market,



are fish-mongers, poulterers, cheefemongers, and such-like traders.—The third market, belonging to Leadenhall, is called the Herb-market, because only herbs, roots, fruit, &c. are sold there. The west, east, and north, sides, have walks round them, covered over for shelter, and standing upon columns; in which walks there are twenty-eight stalls for gardeners, with cellars under them. Being rebuilt in the year 1730, it is now called, New Market, or Nash's Rents, and has shops in it chiefly for butchers; a passage into Lime-street, and another into Gracechurch-street; so that the whole is very extensive. There is, also, in this yard, one range of stalls, covered over, for such as sell tripe, trotters, cats'-meat, &c. And, on the south side, the tenements are taken up by victuallers, poulterers, cheefemongers, butchers, and such like. Beyond this are likewise some shops, built in the year 1730, in that part called the Old Bacon-market, which are chiefly occupied by poulterers, and such as deal in bacon. The appearance of this market at night, and most especially on a Saturday, has something uncommon in itself; it reminds the traveller of the Asiatic marts, of the bazars of Bassora and Cairo; barring the costume of the dealers, which has not that fantastic variety and elegance which the eastern markets generally display, though probably the costume of our market-people would appear not less curious to a Turk.

Fenchurch-street runs nearly parallel with Leadenhall-street, with which it communicates on one side, and with Tower-street on the other, by several streets and lanes, which are well inhabited. On the south side, we find Philpot-lane, Rood-lane, Mincing-lane, and Mark-lane, already described. On the north are Lime-street, Cullum-street, and Billiter-lane.—Near the north end of Mark-lane is the parish-church of Allhallows Staining. This church is believed to be of Saxon origin, because of the additional epithet of *Stane*, now corruptly called Staining; which our antiquaries are of opinion was given to it, on account of being built with stone, to distinguish it from some of the other churches in this city, of the same name, that were built of wood. The first authentic mention of it is in the year 1329, when Edward Camel was the incumbent. It was anciently a rectory, under the patronage of the De Walthams, and others, till about 1369, when Simon bishop of London, upon the petition of the abbot and convent of Grace, near the Tower, appropriated it to them and their successors, with power to convert the profits to their own use, and to supply the cure with either a monk or a secular priest, removable at their pleasure. This curacy devolving, with the abbey, to the crown, it was sold, on the 7th of October, 1607, by king James, to George Bingley, and others, to be held of the crown, in soccage; and, coming afterwards to lady Slany, was by her bequeathed to the company of Grocers, who have since held the advowson. This church escaped the fire in 1666; but it was in so ruinous a state, that the body of it fell down three years after; and the whole was rebuilt, at the expense of the parishioners, as it now appears. It is a very plain edifice, lighted with Gothic windows; but the front, which is of free-stone, is of the Tuscan order. It has a square tower, crowned with a small turret. The length of the church is seventy-eight feet, its breadth thirty-two, and its height twenty-four; the altitude of the tower is seventy feet.

In this parish, on the north side of Fenchurch-street, but backwards from the street, at the upper end of Culver-court, is the hall belonging to the Hudson's Bay Company. It is a very elegant brick building, adorned with pilasters, architraves, &c. In this hall is a vast pair of horns of the moose-deer, weighing fifty-six pounds; and, in another room, the picture of an elk, killed in the presence of Charles XI. of Sweden, which weighed twelve hundred and twenty-nine pounds. See COMPANY, vol. iv. p. 883.

In Lime-street, where several creditable merchants and bankers have their mansions, the chief building is Pewterers' Hall, a good and convenient edifice, well suited

for the purpose to which it is destined. In the court-room is a portrait of sir William Smallwood, who was master of the company in the reign of Henry VII. and gave them the hall, with a garden, and six tenements adjoining.

Near the south-west corner of Lime-street, behind the houses in Fenchurch-street, stands the parish-church of St. Dionis Backchurch. It owes its name to being dedicated to St. Dionis, Dionysius, or Denis, an Athenian areopagite, or judge, who, being converted to Christianity, and afterwards made bishop of Athens, travelled into France, where he suffered martyrdom, by being beheaded; and has been since adopted as the patron saint of the French nation. It was on a hill near Paris, now called *Montmartre*, that this saint lost his head; and it was reported in the legends of those times, that he picked it up from the ground, carried it in his hands, walked deliberately down the hill, and proceeded as far as the spot where the convent of St. Denis was afterwards erected; and that then, life forsaking at once both body and head, the holy martyr fell down. The *cri de guerre* of the French nation is *Mont joye St. Denis*, that is "Much joy and our patron St. Denis." The epithet Backchurch was added, from its situation behind a row of houses, to distinguish it from the church of St. Gabriel, which, before the fire in 1666, stood in the middle of Fenchurch-street; wherefore those churches were anciently known by no other appellation but those of Fore and Back church. The oldest authentic mention of this church is in the year 1288, when Reginald de Standon was rector of it. It is one of the thirteen peculiars in the city, belonging to the archbishop of Canterbury. The patronage was formerly in the prior and canons of that church; but, at the dissolution of the priory, it was conferred upon the dean and chapter. The old edifice was destroyed in 1666, and the present structure was erected in 1674, except the steeple, which was not added until ten years after. It is a plain stone building, of the Ionic order, with a tower and turret; in which are ten bells, and a set of chimes. The length of the church is sixty-six feet, its breadth fifty-nine, and the height of the roof thirty-four feet; that of the tower and turret is ninety feet.

At the south-west corner of Fenchurch-street stands the church of St. Bennet Gracechurch, or Grasschurch; so called from its vicinity to the Grass-market, which was anciently held before its west door. It is a rectory, the patronage of which appears to have been in the dean and chapter of St. Paul's ever since the year 1190. The old church was destroyed by the fire of London; since which it has been rebuilt, and made the parochial church for this parish and that of St. Leonard Eastcheap. It is built principally of stone; and is a regular, convenient, and neat, edifice, sixty feet in length, thirty in breadth, and thirty-two in height; the altitude of the spire is a hundred and forty-nine feet. It has a handsome balustrade at the top, and a very high spire, of the obelisk kind, the base of which is supported by four porticoes. The inside is wainscoted, and handsomely pewed; the pulpit well veneered, carved, and adorned with cherubs, &c. Here is also a curious font of fine carved work.

The church of St. Leonard Eastcheap, was burnt down in 1666, and never rebuilt. It was dedicated to Leonard, a French saint, and bishop of Limoges; and was sometime named St. Leonard Milk-church, from William Melker, the builder thereof. The patronage of this rectory, which was anciently in the prior and convent of Canterbury, is at present in the dean and chapter of that see; who, since its union with St. Bennet Grasschurch, present alternately with the dean and chapter of St. Paul's. The site of it is now only a burial-place for the inhabitants of this parish. It is one of the thirteen peculiars belonging to the archbishop of Canterbury.—Between Fish-street-hill and Pudding-lane, is the church-yard of the parish of St. Leonard; containing a few tombs and several trees. It is an airy opening.



Gracechurch-street has nothing remarkable in itself except the busy arrivals and settings-off of stages to the southern villages, annexed nearly, by rows of houses, to the city of London.—In White-Hart-court, consisting of neat buildings, mostly inhabited by Quakers, is a very handsome meeting-house, one of the chief of those belonging to that sect in the metropolis. White-Hart-court opens also into Lombard-street.

Turning back to the corner of Leadenhall-street and the opening into Bishopsgate-street, the sight may dart at once to nearly the distance of a mile, through one of the noblest and largest streets in this part of the metropolis.—The southern part of Bishopsgate-street, with Houndsditch, and Leadenhall-street, make a perfect triangle, the area of which is intersected by many streets and courts. In this area are particularly confined the Jews and their places of worship.

The entrance into Duke's Place, from Leadenhall-street, is by a narrow short lane, the corner of St. Catharine Cree. The gates still remaining, and which we are told are soon to be pulled down, appeared to us to merit preservation: we have therefore caused a drawing to be made, which is engraved on Plate VII<sup>b</sup>\*, fig. 3.—Here stood the Priory of the Holy Trinity, founded by queen Maud, wife to king Henry I. in the year 1108, for canons regular of the order of St. Augustine, with great endowments; among which the said king granted the port of Aldgate, and the soken thereunto belonging, &c. And, in order to establish this foundation, the four parishes of St. Mary Magdalen, St. Michael, St. Catharine, and the Blessed Trinity, were united in the one parish of “the Priory of the Holy Trinity, called Christchurch;” the prior of which was always an alderman of London, and of the ward of Port-foken; who sometimes officiated in person, and sometimes appointed a temporal deputy. The priory was built on a piece of ground upwards of three hundred feet long, in the parish of St. Catharine, towards Aldgate, near the parochial chapel of St. Michael. This priory was said to have been the richest in England, and was, probably for that reason, selected to be the first that was dissolved by Henry VIII. in the year 1531; who gave it to sir Thomas Audley, speaker of the house of commons. Sir Thomas demolished the priory, and converted it into a large mansion, where he resided after he became lord-chancellor. The only daughter of sir Thomas being married to the duke of Norfolk, this estate descended to the duke, and was from that time known by the name of the *Duke's Place*, which it has retained to this day. But, the duke of Norfolk losing his head on Tower-hill, this mansion descended to Thomas Howard, earl of Suffolk, eldest son to the said duke by Audley's daughter; who, by indenture of bargain and sale, dated 21 July, 34 Eliz. sold the same to the mayor, commonalty, and citizens, of London, to have and to hold, to them and their successors.

A short time before the priory of the Holy Trinity was dissolved, the inhabitants within its boundaries, who had been deprived of their parish-churches to make way for that religious foundation, petitioned and obtained leave, under certain conditions and restrictions, to build a chapel in the church-yard of the said priory, for their own convenience, which, escaping the fate of the religious houses at the dissolution of the priory, became the only place, after the conventual church was pulled down, for the inhabitants within that district to repair to for divine service. This, however, creating some dislike among the inhabitants of Duke's Place, they were desirous of raising a proper parish-church for themselves, on the ground within their own precinct; to effect which, they applied to the archbishop of Canterbury for his assistance; who, having obtained the king's warrant under the broad seal, for proceeding in their pious intention, prevailed with the lord-mayor, aldermen, and common-council, to build them a church with the stones of the conventual church, which then remained on the premises. This was accordingly done; and the church was consecrated and dedicated to St. James, on the second of January, 1622. It is

now known by the name of St. James, Duke's Place; and, although the parish is in the ward of Aldgate, yet it is a precinct within itself, under a minister, two constables, two headboroughs, and fifteen jurymen. The lord-mayor is entitled to hold a court leet and baron, and the city-officers can arrest for debt, and execute warrants within it; but artificers and traders are permitted to open shops and exercise their arts here, without being free of the city. The Jews settled here, principally, in the time of Oliver Cromwell.—The church, having escaped the fire in 1666, still retains its original form. The body, which was rebuilt in 1727, is well lighted; and the tower, composed of four stages, is terminated by a very singular kind of turret, in the form of a canopy. It is a curacy, the patronage of which being in the lord-mayor and commonalty of London, the parish claims a right of exemption from the bishop of London's jurisdiction in matters ecclesiastical.

A little to the north of St. James's church, in Duke's Place, is a Jews' synagogue, which has been lately so enlarged as almost to join the church. Besides this, there are three other synagogues in this ward: one near the north end of Bury-street, by London Wall; another at the end of Church-row; and a third, in a building which was formerly Bricklayers' Hall, situated behind the houses that are nearly opposite to St. Catharine Cree-church.

This church received its name from being dedicated to St. Catharine, an Egyptian virgin, and is distinguished from other churches of the same name, by the addition of *Cree*, or Christ, from its situation in the cemetery of the conventual church of the Holy Trinity, which was originally called Christ-church, as mentioned before. The present structure was erected in 1630, and the dial-post and clock in 1662. It is built of stone, in a mixed style. It has rounded battlements on the top, and a square tower, with battlements of the same kind. This tower is crowned with a square turret, over which is a dome, and from its summit rises the weathercock. The length of the church is ninety feet; the breadth fifty-one; the altitude of the roof, which is square, supported by pilasters and columns of the Composite order, is thirty-seven feet; and that of the steeple is seventy-five feet. At the west end of this church, adjoining to the steeple, stands a pillar of the old church, as it was erected. This pillar, from the base to the chapter, upon which the arch was turned, being eighteen feet high, and but three to be seen above ground, shows the height to which the floor of the new church has been raised above that of the old. This church is a curacy; and the parishioners have the privilege of choosing their own minister, who must be licensed by the bishop of London.

In the triangle above alluded to, we also find Crosby-square, so called from sir John Crosby, knt. who built a large house here in 1466. This house was the city-residence of Richard duke of Gloucester, while the measures which eventually secured him the crown were concerting. Part of this house still remains, on the north side of the entrance into the square, which is chiefly built on the garden-ground that belonged to the house. The part, improperly called Richard III's Chapel, is still very entire. It is a beautiful Gothic building, with a bow-window at one end; the roof, which is of timber, elegantly carved, is very worthy of admiration. This building is now the residence of a packer.

At a short distance north of this square, in a handsome open place, called, from the church, Great St. Helen's, stands the parish-church of St. Helen, so denominated from its dedication to Helena, the mother of Constantine the Great. The patronage of it appears to have been anciently in lay hands; for, in the reign of Henry II. one Ranulph, with his son Robert, granted it to the dean and chapter of St. Paul's, by whom it was, some time after, granted to William Fitzwilliam, who, in 1212, founded the priory of St. Helen, and conferred the advowson of the church on the priores and nuns, to whom it continued till the suppression of their convent, in 1539, when it came to the



the crown. In the year 1551, Edward VI. granted the advowson to Nicholas Ridley, bishop of London, and his successors; which grant was confirmed by queen Mary, in 1553; but it appears to have reverted to the crown afterwards; for, in 1568, queen Elizabeth granted it, by lease, to Cæsar Aldermarie and Thomas Colcel, in trust for the parishioners, for a term of twenty-one years; which lease being expired, she sold it to Michael and Edward Stanhope, to be held by them, their heirs and assigns, in fockage. It has, however, been since re-granted to the dean and chapter of St. Paul's. This church, which escaped the fire of London, in 1666, is a Gothic structure of the lighter kind, consisting of a plain body, with large windows. The length, a hundred and eleven feet; breadth, fifty; height thirty-eight; that of the tower, which was not built till 1669, is sixty-eight feet. It is adorned with rustic work at the corners, and crowned with a turret and dome, wherein are two bells.

On the left-hand side of the entrance into Great St. Helen's, are a set of alms-houses, founded by sir Andrew Judd, *knt.* as appears by a tablet in front of the building; though some of the historians of London assert, that he was only the executor of lady Hollis, the relict of sir William Hollis, lord-mayor in the year 1531, by whom the money for this foundation was devised. They are for the reception of six poor men or women; and the Skinners' Company are trustees of the charity, which has been so much increased by the contributions of other benefactors, that the houses have been rebuilt, and the pensions of the poor inhabitants, at first only 7d. per week, increased.

Immediately adjoining to Great St. Helen's, is Little St. Helen's, on the site of the priory mentioned before; the remains of which were to be seen, till lately, in Leatherfellers' Hall, now pulled down to make way for a handsome range of new building, called St. Helen's Place. This company purchased the priory of queen Elizabeth, and, with part of the materials, built the largest and most elegant hall at that time in London. Their business is now carried on in a house at the east end of the place, built by them at the same period, of which the upper panes of the windows, on the first floor, are formed of painted glass, said to have been taken from the priory. This house may be considered as a perfect specimen of the architecture of queen Elizabeth's reign. All that is now left of the priory, is in the cellars under the two old houses on the right hand of St. Helen's Place.

Near the corner of Little St. Helen's, in Bishopsgate-street, stands the church of St. Ethelburga, so called from its dedication to the first Christian princess of the Saxon race, the daughter of Ethelbert king of Kent, who embraced the Christian religion, and became the patron of Austin, the English apostle. The earliest account of this church, on record, is in 1366, when Robert Kilwardeby was rector. The advowson was in the priores and nuns of St. Helen till the suppression of their convent, in the year 1539; when, coming to the crown, it was some time after granted by queen Elizabeth to the bishop of London and his successors, who have ever since collated and inducted to the same; and in ecclesiastical matters it is subject to the archdeacon.—This church is very ancient, having escaped the fire of London. The body is irregular, and in the Gothic style, with very large windows; and the steeple is a tall spire, supported on a square tower. The length of this church is fifty-four feet, its breadth twenty-five, and its altitude thirty-one; and that of the spire is about ninety feet.

Adjoining to this church is a very handsome building, occupied by the Marine Society; a most excellent charity, begun in 1756, by a voluntary association of Jonas Hanway, the justices Fielding and Welch, and several merchants and others, for clothing and fitting out such orphan, friendless, and destitute, boys, as were willing to engage in the service of the navy. This scheme was prosecuted with such zèal, that many thousands have, through its means, been rescued from an abandoned course of life,

and rendered serviceable to their king and country. The society was incorporated on the 24th of June, 1772; and, whether we consider it as a prominent feature of well-regulated police, or as a nursery for seamen, its advantages will be strikingly evident, and entitle it to the warmest support of the benevolent. In addition to their first plan, the society have a vessel fitted for the reception of 100 boys, which lies between Deptford and Greenwich, and is provided with proper officers to instruct them in nautical and moral duties.

Though irregularly built, Bishopsgate-street, which is spacious and long, presents a great number of modern houses contrasted by some old ones which escaped the fire of London.—At the south end is a noble house, called the London Tavern, where accommodations of the most elegant kind are supplied for companies of any number, from one to many hundred. Here the solitary epicure may enjoy by himself his delightful piece of prime turbot, potted char and lampreys, his *friloin*, or whatever his taste leads him to call for—and parties are accommodated with private rooms, where they consume in friendly mirth the result of a bet, or celebrate a birth-day. Here city-feasts call their numerous convives; and patriotic dinners stimulate one of the best propensities of the British heart, public beneficence. The business of this establishment has proved so great and so profitable for many years, that a rival house has lately risen nearly opposite, and is called the City of London Tavern, to distinguish it from the other. Both these taverns are furnished in a style of elegance adapted only to the metropolis of so wealthy a nation.

The church at the corner of Threadneedle-street and Bishopsgate-street, is called St. Martin Outwich, from being dedicated to Martin bishop of Tours, in France, about the year 376, is of great antiquity. It derives its additional name of Outwich from the family of Oteswich. Stow names four of them, who were buried here, viz. Martin, Nicholas, William, and John, who were proprietors of it. In the year 1325, John de Warren, earl of Surrey, presented to this living; but, he dying without issue, and leaving his estates to the crown, the advowson was purchased, in 1387, by the above family; who, in the sixth year of the reign of Henry II. gave it, with four messuages, seventeen thops, and the appurtenances, in the said parish, to the master and wardens of the Taylors and Linen-armourers, and to their successors, to be employed for the perpetual help and relief of the poor brethren and sisters of the said company; by virtue of which grant, the company of Merchant-Taylors have ever since enjoyed the right of patronage to this church. The old church, which was built in 1540, was one of the few that escaped the fire of London; but the ravages of time, assisted by the injuries it sustained from a fire in Bishopsgate-street in 1765, had affected it so much, that it was taken down in 1795, and the present structure erected in its stead; this afforded an opportunity for enlarging the entrance into Threadneedle-street, by taking off the angle which before projected into that street. It is a plain neat building of brick, except the east end, which is of stone; above which rises a low circular tower, surmounted by a dome. It is a rectory. Over the altar is a sort of embraiture in which the ascension of our Lord is represented. It is a curious work in fresco; and was done by the late Mr. Rigaud, R. A.

One of the principal objects which next attracts the sight is the church commonly called Bishopsgate-church. It is a few steps beyond the place where the old gate stood, and therefore was out of the precincts of the city, according to the ancient limits marked by the walls. It is dedicated to St. Botolph, an Anglo-Saxon saint who lived and died in the seventh century. The ancient fabric, the original foundation of which is effectually shrouded in the mist of antiquity, it may, from the vestiges of remote ages that have been at different periods discovered beneath or near its walls, be fairly conjectured rose upon the ruins of a Roman temple. It was built in the Saxon style of architecture.



chitecture. It had a massive tower at its western end; and, as appeared from its plan, which had not been materially altered until it was taken down in the year 1726, an altar-window at its eastern.—The patron of this, and several other churches in the metropolis whose appellations are similar, was St. Botolph, also designated the Briton. He was born in Cornwall; and, as tradition states, became very famous for working miracles about the time of Lucius in this island, the first Christian king. Zealous in the propagation of the Gospel, he it is said travelled with some missionaries into Lincolnshire, where he made many converts, and founded a monastery at Icanhoe in the Holland-division of that county, and within the boundaries of Boston. In this monastery he resided until his death, and was buried in the church of his establishment. The fame of St. Botolph was so great, and the miracles that were performed even by his tomb or relics so numerous, that the town of Boston, which probably increased around his church, was for centuries after his death called *Botolph's Town*.

The present church was finished in 1729. It is massy and spacious; and has a good effect from the street. The body is built with brick, and well lighted; and the roof hid by a handsome balustrade. The steeple, though heavy, maintains an air of magnificence. In the centre of the front is a large plain arched window, decorated at a distance with pilasters of the Doric order: over this window is a festoon, and above that an angular pediment; on each side is a door, crowned with windows, and over these are others of the port-hole kind; above which rises a square tower, crowned with a dome, whose base is circular, and surrounded by a balustrade in the same form; by the side of which, on the corners of the tower, are placed urns with flames. From this part rises a series of coupled Corinthian pillars, supporting other urns like the former, and over them rises the orgive dome, crowned with a very large vase, with flames. The roof within side is arched, except over the galleries; and two rows of Corinthian columns support both the galleries and arch, which extends over the body of the church, and is neatly adorned with fret-work.

Soon after the restoration, statues of the unfortunate Charles I. began to crowd the exterior of the public buildings of the metropolis; while pictures symbolizing his person, his virtues, and his sufferings, adorned their interior. Among these, the allegorical representation in the church of St. Botolph, which still remains, is in its display of graphic excellence perhaps one of the most important. This curious piece adorns the wall of the stairs that lead to the north gallery of the edifice; and, although (which is singular) there is no trace in the minutes of the vestry, or the registers of the parish, which can lead to a discovery how it came there, yet it was particularly described in *The New View of London*, 1703; and seems, except in one instance, to have been passed by unregarded ever since; yet it merits attention, if we consider the low state of the chromatic art, in England, at the period of the restoration. We are indebted to a late number of the *European Magazine* for reminding us of its existence, and for the following general description of it. The principal object is the portrait of the king; of course, the strongest light beams on him; the other lights, which are many, and which would, were they not, as the painters say, scumbled down, be termed catching, are so managed as to harmonize with the general effect of the picture: The countenance of his majesty is composed; he appears "More in sorrow than in anger." He is kneeling before an altar covered with crimson, and embroidered. On it is an open volume inscribed, *In verbo tuo spes mea*; "My hope is in thy word." The mantle of this royal figure is of blue velvet. His right hand is spread on his breast: in his left he holds a crown. On an entwined label is written *Aspiram ad levem*. Below the cushion on which he kneels lies the crown of England: behind which, on a label, are these words; *Splendidam ad gravem*; from his right foot

proceeds another inscribed *Mundi calco*. The back ground of this picture on the right hand is illumined with a brilliant ray, which, streaming towards the monarch, displays his countenance, and, in its course, the pedestals of two broken columns; while in this aerial space, whence it emanates, is a celestial crown, inscribed *Beatam coronam*. On two other rays, darting in the same direction, are inscribed *Calum speculo* and *Clarius e tenebris*. In the distance on the left side the king is again represented, seated on the deck of a ship of war, apparently of the largest size: this vessel, abandoned by its crew, seems to be left to the mercy of the winds and the waves, and the unhappy monarch to "Bide the pelting of the pitiless storm." This allegory is a correct allusion to the ship-money, which, although in the Dutch war it enabled our navy to triumph in the Narrow Seas, was looked upon as a most odious measure. On the clouds are labelled *Immota triumphans*, and *Nescit naufragium virtus*. At the bottom, on the left, is inscribed, *Carolus I. Ων εν τῷ ἀξίως ο κόσμος*; "Of whom the world was not worthy." Heb. xi. 38 On the right, *Ecce spectaculum dignum ad quod respiciat, Deus operi suo intentus, vir fortis cum malâ fortunâ compositus*. Sen. de Provid.—This picture is in a great degree self-explanatory; it was, like many others, a commemorative tribute, and pointed to circumstances too recent to be misunderstood; it raised the character of the royal sufferer, and soothed the minds of his friends in their devotional hours; for in the ancient church it was placed in a most conspicuous situation, namely, at the altar. When the church was taken down in the year 1726, the picture was carefully preserved, and in the new edifice was put where we now see it.

On the south side of the church is a small cemetery, and a passage leading to Moorfields. At a small distance from the north side is a very narrow place called Alderman's Walk; nearly adjoining to which are a street and several courts, known by the general name of Old Bethlem. On this spot formerly stood a priory, founded in the year 1246, by Simon Fitzmary, sheriff of London, for the support of a community of brothers and sisters, and dedicated to St. Mary of Bethlehem.

On the same side of the street, and on the south of the church, are several considerable inns for stages and waggon— the Bull, the Green Dragon, the Four Swans, &c. —Of these, the Green Dragon, which seems to be a house of great and extensive business, still retains many vestiges of its antiquity; but the most correct idea of the interior of an ancient inn, will accrue from a contemplation of the yard and galleries of the Four Swans; an inn the traffic of which appears to be very considerable, and which is in its construction, like other buildings of the same nature and date, in a small degree theatrical, and consequently of the form that at certain periods, especially before actors fixed themselves in tennis-courts, was deemed the most convenient for the exhibition of dramatic pieces.

Proceeding northwards on the same side as the church, our attention will be arrested by an old house with a bow-window in the first floor, and bearing evidently the character of the architectural style belonging to the reigns of Henry VIII. Edward VI. Mary, and Elizabeth. It is supposed to have been originally the house of sir Paul Pindar; and the publican who occupies it had for a long time the head of the worthy citizen for his sign, but now the name only remains. See p. 402.

Nearly opposite to the church is Devonshire-square, on the spot where formerly was a magnificent structure erected by Jasper Fisher, one of the six clerks in chancery, whose fortune not being answerable to his house, it was called in derision, Fisher's Folly. It afterwards belonged to the earls of Oxford, and lastly to the duchess of Devonshire; whose name is still preserved in that of the street and square built on the spot. Tassel Close is at a small distance; this place was let to the cross-bow-makers, who used to practise a game called shooting at the *popinjay*— which was nothing but the likeness of a bird, made very coarsely.



coarsely in wood, with wings expanded, and set at the top of a pole. This innocent game is common on the continent. Prizes are set to the several limbs of the bird—a silver goblet perhaps for the head, a silver spoon for each wing, and a tea-spoon for the tail; but, when the whole is knocked down at once by the fortunate bolt of the skilful archer, all the prizes fall to his lot; otherwise the victor is the man who hits the last bit or splinter of the bird, and is honoured with the title of *King*, which he wears for the whole year, enjoying at the same time some particular privileges, as that of felling so many casks of wine without paying duty, and walking in an honourable place in processions. On the decline of archery, these warlike exercises fell gradually into disuse, and were retained in some few places merely as amusing sports and an unoffending way of killing time.—At that period this clove was surrounded by a brick wall, and served as an artillery-ground, where the gunners of the Tower used weekly to practise the art of gunnery. The last prior of St. Mary Spital granted this artillery-ground for thrice ninety-nine years, for the exercise of great and small artillery; and hence this ground became subject to the Tower. The Artillery-company received a charter from king Henry VIII. which was afterwards confirmed by queen Elizabeth; and, in 1622, an armory was erected in it, containing five hundred sets of arms. The company, at length, grew so numerous, that this ground was too small for them; and, when they removed to the present artillery-ground, this spot was distinguished by the name of the Old Artillery-ground. It is now converted into streets and lanes; but the name is still retained in Artillery-street.

Contiguous to this field, on the north, where Duke and Steward streets are situated, stood the priory and hospital of St. Mary Spital, which was founded in the year 1107, by Walter Brune and his wife Rosa, for canons regular. At the time of its surrender to Henry VIII. in 1539, it was valued at 478l. per annum, and contained a hundred and eighty beds for the accommodation of poor objects, who were carefully provided with all the necessaries of life.

In April 1559, queen Elizabeth visited St. Mary Spital in great state; possibly to hear a sermon given from the cross. She was attended by a thousand men in harness, with shirts of mail, corselets, and morice-pikes, carried through London; to the court, with drums and trumpets sounding, and two morice-dancers, and in a cart *two white bears*.

To this hospital also the lord-mayor, aldermen, and sheriffs, repaired annually in their formalities, attended by the governors and children of Christ's Hospital, and accompanied by many persons of distinction, to hear the sermons that were preached on Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday, in Easter-week. These sermons, which were always on the subject of the resurrection of our Saviour, were delivered by some of the most eminent of the city divines, from a pulpit-cross, situated in the church-yard, like that at St. Paul's; opposite to which was a handsome house for the reception of the mayor and his company. This custom was kept up till the year 1642; but in the grand rebellion the pulpit was broken down by the fanatics, and the preaching discontinued. It was, however, so far revived at the restoration, that the Spital-sermons have been since preached at St. Bride's in Fleet-street.

Between the church-yard of St. Botolph, and the southeast corner of Moorfields, was a long street, with several smaller ones contiguous, called Petty France, from having been first inhabited by people of that nation. On this spot now stand the elegant streets called New Broad-street and Broad-street Buildings, the residence of merchants of the first respectability.

Pursuing our way to Shoreditch, we find a regular decrease of height and elegance in the houses, so that, a little north of the turnpike, the street assumes a country look.—At the corner of a small, narrow, street on the left hand, is an old wooden statue, supposed to have re-

presented Jane Shore; but now so mutilated, that it may be almost a question whether it was meant for her or her royal lover. The appearance of the breasts alone seems to decide the point; for the plume of feathers and laurel-leaves still distinguishable in the helmet or cap, seem to appertain rather to a man, though women used sometimes to wear them in the same guise. The head-dress much resembles that of Joan of Arc in plaster by Gois the younger. See *Historic Gallery of Portraits and Paintings*, vol. ii.—That the reader may judge for himself, we have given a representation of this fragment on Plate VII b\*. fig. 4.

The melancholy story of Jane Shore's punishment is reported by Holinshed in the following *naïve* manner: "In her penance, she went in countenance and passe so demure, so womanlie, that, albeit she were out of all araie save her kirtle onlie, yet went she so faire and lovelie, namelie, while the wondering of the people cast a comelie rud in hir cheeks, (of whiche she before had most misse,) that hir great shame wan hir much praise among those that were more amorous of hir bodie than curious of hir soule. And manie good folkes that hated hir living, (and glad were to see sin corrected,) yet pitied they more hir penance than rejoiced therein, when they considered that the Protector procured it more of a corrupt intent than anie virtuous affection."—Rowe has clothed this part of her sad story in the following poetical dress; but it is far from depreciating the moving simplicity of the old historian:

Submissive, sad, and lowly, was her look;  
A burning taper in her hand she bore,  
And on her shoulders, carelessly confus'd  
With loose neglect, her lovely tresses hung;  
Upon her cheek a faintish flush was spread;  
Feeble she seem'd, and forely smit with pain,  
While, barefoot as she trod the flinty pavement,  
Her footsteps all along were mark'd with blood.  
Yet silent still she pass'd, and unrepining;  
Her streaming eyes bent ever on the earth,  
Except when, in some bitter pang of sorrow,  
To Heav'n she seem'd in fervent zeal to raise,  
And beg that mercy man deny'd her here.

The poet has adopted the story of her being denied all sustenance, and of her perishing with hunger; but that was not fact. She lived to an advanced age, but in great distress and poverty; deserted even by those to whom she had, during prosperity, done the most essential services. She dragged a wretched life to the time of Sir Thomas More, who introduces her story into his life of Edward V. The beauty of her person is spoken of in high terms; "Proper she was, and faire, (says Holinshed;) nothing in hir bodie that you would have changed; but you would have wished hir somewhat higher. Thus saie they that knew hir in hir youth. Now is she old, leane, withered, and dried up; nothing left but rived skin and hard bone; and yet, being even such, who so well advise her visage might gesse and devise which parts how filled would make it a faire face."—In a supposed original picture of this lady in the provost's lodgings, in King's College, Cambridge, her hair is raised in short curls high above her neck, and mixed with chains of jewels set in a lozenge form; her neck and body, as far beneath her arms, are naked; the first has two strings of pearls hanging loose round it: over her shoulders is a rich chain of jewels set in circles; and pendant from the middle, which hangs down her breast, is a rich lozenge of jewels, and to each link is affixed one or more pearls. In her countenance is no appearance of charms; she must have attracted the hearts of her lovers by her intellectual beauties.

Our chief reason, however, for mentioning this weak and unfortunate woman was in order to contradict the popular error of Shoreditch being named after her husband; as it appears certain, that it originated from the lord of the manor, Sir John de Sordich, a person deeply



skilled in the laws, and much trusted by Edward III. and who was sent by him, in 1343, (more than a hundred and twenty years before Jane Shore was heard of,) to pope Clement VI. with remonstrance with this holiness against his claim of presenting with English livings, and filling them with foreigners, who never resided on their cures, and drained the kingdom of its wealth. This, it may be easily supposed, the pope took much amiss; inasmuch that Sir John thought it best to make a speedy retreat. It appears likewise that this knight was a very valiant man, and served the king with his sword as well as his tongue.

Long after, Shoreditch acquired much fame from another great man, Barlo, an inhabitant of this place, and a citizen; who acquired such honour as an archer, by his success in a shooting-match at Windsor, before Henry VIII. that the king named him on the spot *Duke of Shoreditch*. For a long series of years after this, the captain of the London archers retained the title. On the 17th of September, 1583, the *Duke* (at the expense of the city) had a magnificent trial of skill; he sent a summons to all his officers, and chief nobility, with all their train of archery, in and about London, to be ready to accompany him to Smithfield. In obedience, appeared the Marquis of Barlo, and the Marquis of Clerkenwell, with hunters who wound their horns; the Marquises of Islington, Hogsdon, Pankridge, and Shacklewell, who marched with all their train fantastically habited. Nearly a thousand had gold chains; and all were gorgeously attired. The sum of archers were three thousand; their guards, with bills, four thousand; besides pages and henchmen. And the duke sallied out to meet them from Merchant-Tailors' Hall, to exhibit such a sight as was never seen before, nor ever will again; unless a combination of the modern societies of archers should treat the capital with the revival of this ancient and worthy pageantry.

The church off St. Leonard, Shoreditch, is at our left, where the road branches off eastward to Hackney. This church has an ascent by a double flight of plain steps, which lead to a portico of the angular kind, supported by four Doric columns, and bearing an angular pediment. The body of the edifice is plain, but well lighted; and the steeple light, elegant, and lofty. The tower at a proper height has a series of Ionic columns; and on their entablature are scrolls which support as many Corinthian columns on pedestals; and above is a dome, from whose crown rises a series of columns of the Composite order, on the entablature of which rests the spire, standing upon four balls, which give it an additional air of lightness; and on the top is a ball and vane. In the lowest stage of the tower is a dial, the view of which is so much intercepted by the apex of the pediment over the portico, that a person standing in front of the church can only distinguish the upper part of it; which gave occasion to the following pasquinade, which was affixed to the west front, soon after the building was completed:

To look askew upon a church, by some is deem'd a crime;  
But all must do't at Shoreditch-church, all who would  
know the time;

The figures on the dial-plate, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8,  
Being hid behind the pediment, if you look at it straight.  
The brains sure of the architect must in confusion been,  
When he five figures of the twelve prevented being seen."

To the east of this church is Bethnal Green, which is particularly inhabited by silk weavers, the descendants of the French refugees at the revocation of the edict of Nantes. It was one of the hamlets belonging to the mother church of Stibunhithe, now Stepney; and was separated by act of parliament, in the thirteenth year of his late majesty. The church, which is dedicated to St. Matthew, was erected in the year 1740. It is a neat commodious edifice, of red brick, coped and quoined with freestone. At the west-end is a low square tower, built of the same materials, and with a large vase of stone at each corner. It is a rectory, in the gift of the principal and scholars of King's-hall and Brazen-nose-college, Oxford.

The old mansion, at the south-east corner of the Green, now called Bethnal-green House, and traditionally reported to have been the residence of the celebrated Blind Beggar, was built in the reign of queen Elizabeth, by a citizen of London named Kirby, and is called, in the writings belonging to it, Kirby Castle. It has long been appropriated to the reception of insane persons.

The old Roman way, from London, led through the hamlet; and being joined, at a short distance the north-east of it, by the military way from the west, they passed on together, to the trajectus, or ferry, of the River Lea, at Old Ford.

Spitalfields was also originally a hamlet belonging to the parish of St. Dunstan, Stepney; but, from the great increase of inhabitants, it was in the year 1723 made a distinct parish; and the church is one of the fifty ordered to be built by act of parliament. This building is situated on the south side of Church-street; it was begun in 1723, and finished in 1729; and, from being dedicated to our Saviour, is called Christ-church, Middlesex. It is a very handsome edifice, built of stone, with a very high steeple, in which is a fine ring of bells. The body of the church is solid and well-proportioned: it is a hundred and eleven feet in length, and eighty-seven in breadth; the height of the roof is forty-one feet, and that of the steeple two hundred and thirty-four. It is ornamented with a Doric portico, to which there is a handsome ascent by a flight of steps; and upon these the Doric order arises, supported on pedestals. The tower, over these, rises with arched windows and niches, and, on its diminishing for the steeple, is supported by the heads of the under corners, which form a kind of buttresses; from this part rises the base of the spire, with an arcade; its corners are, in the same manner, supported with a kind of pyramidal buttresses, ending in a point; and the spire, in which are three series of square windows, crowned with pediments, is terminated by a vase and vane. This church is made a rectory, but is not to be held *in commendam*; and the patronage, like that of its mother-church, is in the principal and scholars of King's-hall and Brazen-nose-college, Oxford.—At the west end of the church is a neat brick building, in which are two charity-schools; the one for boys, the other for girls, erected in 1782, and supported by voluntary contributions.

At a very short distance is Spitalfields market, for the sale of all sorts of provisions, particularly vegetables; but it certainly is not the cleanest-looking market in the world.

In Brick-lane, we find the sign of "the Turkish Slave," a sad memento of the following fact.—The Inspector, privateer, with a crew of 183 people, sailed from the Downs in October 1745, on a cruise. When they had got as far as the Straits of Gibraltar, the ship sprung a leak, which their utmost endeavours were insufficient to keep under; and, as they found that the ship would inevitably sink, they determined, for the preservation of their lives, to run her aground in Tangier Bay; and, as the emperor of Morocco was at that time under a treaty of peace with Great Britain, they had every reason to expect friendly treatment from the Moors; but they soon found the difference; for they were stripped of every rag they had about them, and those who made the least resistance were inhumanly murdered, or driven back into the sea; those who were fortunate enough to escape with their lives were seized as slaves. Ninety-six of the ship's company had perished. The Phoenix frigate arriving soon after from Gibraltar with the British consul, the survivors were in hopes, through his interference, to get liberated; but all his endeavours proving abortive, they contrived, with him and the captain of the Phoenix, a plan of escape, by separating into three distinct parties; one of which, consisting of twenty-seven men, was so fortunate as to reach the ship; but the other two were intercepted, and forced into a dismal dungeon, where they remained three days without food; and, after a succession of cruelties and toils possible only for barbarians to invent, and being marched from place to place



place under a broiling sun, without shoes or clothing, for the space of four years, they were at length ransomed for a sum of 439*l.* including presents to the emperor, by the liberality of the king, George II. and arrived at Portsmouth in May 1749, only twenty-five persons in all, the rest having died, through disease and cruelties, in Fez. On their return, they had a benefit at Covent-garden theatre, and likewise one at Sadler's Wells. The house in Brick-lane was taken by one of the survivors, (Peter Le-beau;) but the sign is merely analogous.

This part of the town, which is not one of the most *polite*, may however boast of having given birth to a man whose abilities in the art of singing have long delighted, and we hope will long continue to delight, the most *polite* classes—Braham was born of Jewish parents in Rose-lane, or thereabouts, in Spitalfields.—Here was anciently a Roman burying-place, of which many curious particulars are mentioned by Stow; and Camden gives a brief account of another, discovered in Goodman's fields. Among the antiquities found in Spitalfields, was a great ossuary made of glass, encompassed with five parallel circles, and containing a gallon and a half; it had a handle, a very short neck, and wide mouth of a white metal. This was presented to sir Christopher Wren, who lodged it in the museum of the Royal Society. These cemeteries will in some cases determine the ancient Roman precincts of the city; it being a wife and express law of the XII Tables, *that no one should be buried within the walls.*

In the neighbourhood of Kingsland-road and Hoxton, are many alms-houses, erected at different periods, standing proofs of the humane and liberal inclinations of our ancestors.—A description, in architectural and correct style, of an ancient mansion at Hoxton, will give an idea of the manner of erecting gentlemen's houses in the beginning of the seventeenth century, and may be applied to others which we shall have occasion to mention—it was the residence of sir George Whitmore, mayor of London, 1631; and was surveyed in May 1814. The northern portions of the building appear to have been erected in the style of Elizabeth's reign; by some internal embellishments, a fitting-up was gone through in Charles I's reign; in the south front the features take the mode above hinted; as an example of alterations undertaken soon after 1683, a time in which Hoxton itself began to increase in buildings. South front, (general plan of the mansion upon a square,) or principal entrance: five divisions, made by double doric pilasters: three stories, in basement, parlour, and chief floor. The pilasters stand on plain pedestals; detached pieces of architrave rise on each capital, supporting plain double scroll blocks, breaking into the general line of cornice. In the centre division, flight of steps to the door of entrance, (door modernised,) windows for each story. On the general cornice, an amazing high dripping eaves-roof, with two stories of dormer-windows, standing regularly over the windows below: clusters of chimneys in breaks. The walls are brick, plinths and capitals stone, cornice wood. The hall has been of late partitioned into a passage, central and adjoining rooms; the grand staircase remains in part, which in the divisions of its fence has a succession of guideron-work, with festoons of fruit and flowers; windows and doors with the plain architrave devoid of mouldings; but the chimney-pieces are modernized. One of the ceilings elaborate stucco, of compartments, in square, oblong, and octangular, forms, the dividing bands full of minute and delicate foliages. The south front appears copied from the wings of the grand front of the Chateau de Rincy, in France.

South of Shoreditch-church is the small liberty, or manor, of Norton Falgate, which belonged to the cathedral of St. Paul as early as the conquest. This district being extra-parochial, the inhabitants maintain their own poor, and marry and bury where they please; but they generally make use of a chapel, built by sir George Wheeler, prebendary of Durham, for his tenants in Spitalfields. In

this liberty there are also a small workhouse, a girl's school, and a free school for boys.

In Holywell-lane, in the parish of St. Leonard, anciently stood the priory of St. John Baptist, of Benedictine nuns, founded by Robert, the son of Gelranni, prebendary of Haliwell, and confirmed by a charter of Richard I. in the year 1189. This priory, after many reparations, was re-edified by sir Thomas Lovel, in the reign of Henry VII. who, after having given considerable benefactions to the same, was interred here, in a chapel erected at his own expense; and, in commemoration of so great a benefactor, the following lines were painted on most of the windows:

All the nunes in Holy-well,  
Pray for the soul of sir Thomas Lovel.

At the general suppression of religious houses, this monastery was surrendered to Henry VIII. in the year 1539; at which time its revenues amounted to 347*l.* 1*s.* 3*d.* per annum. The ruins of this priory, which are still to be seen in King-John's-court, have been conceived by some to be the remains of king John's palace; though it does not appear that a royal mansion was ever situated in this neighbourhood.

The prebend of Haliwell, and Finsbury, took its first name from a spring, or well, which was so famed for miraculous virtues as to be dignified with the epithet of *holy*. After the reformation, these qualities vanished; and the holy-well, being neglected, was choaked up with rubbish, and, in the calamitous year 1665, the spot became a cemetery for the victims to the plague; whose bodies being heaped together, and covered with earth, gave rise to a mound, called Holywell Mount, which was levelled about the year 1777, and the site covered with streets; in one of which is a dissenting meeting-house, and a burial-ground.

We must not quit this parish without noticing, that the brewing of porter commenced in it, according to the following lines of Gutteridge, a native of Shoreditch:

Harwood, my townsman, he invented first,  
Porter, to rival wine, and quench the thirst:  
Porter, which spreads its fame half the world o'er,  
Whose reputation rises more and more.  
As long as porter shall preserve its fame,  
Let all with gratitude our parish name.

We should not conclude from this, that beer was not drunk before that time in London; the meaning obviously is, that Gutteridge added strength to the common liquors made out of hops and malt; the name of Porter seems to originate from its being a favourite drink with porters and men of hard labour, who find in it an inexhaustible supply of vigour and comfort; some coal-heavers are known to drink daily more than ten quarts of that heavy potation.

On the west of Shoreditch, we find, in our return towards the city, the parish of St. Luke, Middlesex, the church of which owes its rise to the increase of buildings in the parish of St. Giles, Cripplegate; for, notwithstanding there being a chapel of ease, and several meeting-houses, the parish-church could not contain half the inhabitants who were desirous of assembling there to attend divine worship. The commissioners for erecting the fifty new churches, taking this into consideration, purchased a piece of ground in this parish, and erected one of those churches upon it; after which, the inhabitants, applying to parliament, had the Middlesex-liberty of St. Giles's appointed for the parish; and, by the same act, 3500*l.* was granted to be laid out in fee-simple for the support of a rector; besides the profits of which, the church-wardens were to pay him annually 120*l.* to be raised by burial-fees. The church was finished in 1732, and was consecrated the next year on St. Luke's day, when the name of that saint was given as its patron. Though the building is convenient and well lighted with two rows of windows, it is a very singular structure. In the centre of the west front is the entrance, adorned with coupled Doric pilasters; and to



this door is an ascent by a straight flight of steps. Over the entrance is a round window, and on each side a small tower covered with a dome, and ornamented with two windows in front, one of the usual form, and another over it, answering to that over the door. The tower is carried up square, and behind it the roof of the church forms to the west a kind of pediment, broken by the rise of the tower, to which it joins on each side. The uppermost stage of the tower diminishes very considerably; and this, which is the base of an obelisk, supports on each side a dial. From hence rises, as a steeple, a fluted obelisk, which reaches to a great height, diminishing slowly, and being of a considerable thickness towards the top, where the upper edges are sloped off, and the whole is terminated by a ball and vane. We must confess that we cannot admire the architecture of this steeple, which, at a distance seems to be the point, or apex, of some civic or military monument, as it recedes greatly from the common style of ecclesiastical buildings. But it may be observed, in extenuation of the fault, if there be any, that, so many churches having been ordered to rise from their ashes in a given time, all plans, forms, and shapes, appeared to have been nearly exhausted; and the architect, appalled with the fear of being ranked with the common herd of imitators, was obliged to wing his fancy athwart the trodden paths to the regions of possibilities, oddities, and whimsies.

Not far from this, at the end of Old-street, rises in simple but awful majesty the solid building devoted to those unfortunate beings who suffer under mental derangement. St. Luke's Hospital was first established by voluntary contributions in the year 1751, for the reception of lunatics; and was intended not only in aid of, but as an improvement upon, Bethlem Hospital, which, at the time of this institution, was incapable of receiving and providing for the relief of all the unhappy objects for whom application was made. With this view, a house was erected on the north side of Moorfields, and called *St. Luke's Hospital*, from the name of the parish; but the utility of the institution was so evident, and benefactors increased with such rapidity, that the governors soon determined to extend its benefits to a much larger number of patients; and for that purpose purchased the piece of ground on which the present edifice (the foundation stone of which was laid the 20th of July, 1782) was erected, at an expense of forty thousand pounds. The north and south fronts of this building, which are of brick, ornamented with stone, are exactly the same. The centre and ends project a little, and are higher than the intermediate parts. The former is crowned with a triangular pediment, under which is inscribed in large letters, "Saint Luke's Hospital for Lunatics." The two latter are surmounted with an attic balustrade, which conceals the roof. The whole building is divided into three stories; and the spaces between the centre and ends are formed into long galleries; the female patients occupying the western galleries; and the male the eastern. Between the hospital and the street is a broad space, separated from the street by a wall, in the centre of which is the entrance, leading to the door by a flight of steps under a roof supported by Tuscan columns. The simple grandeur of the exterior of this building, the length of which is four hundred and ninety-three feet, produces an effect upon the mind, which is only superseded by a knowledge of the propriety, decency, and regularity, which reigns within, notwithstanding the unhappy state of its inhabitants. Behind the house are two large gardens, one for the men, the other for the women; where such of the patients as can be permitted with safety are allowed to walk and take the air. Those in a more dangerous state, who are obliged to be confined with strait waistcoats, have, with very few exceptions, the range of the galleries, in which there are fires, so protected by iron bars, reaching from the floor to the breast of the chimney, that no accident can possibly occur; and, in those cells where the most dangerous and hopeless patients are confined, every thing

which can contribute to alleviate their miserable state is attended to.

To the north of Old-street Road is a spring, formerly much celebrated, which now forms an excellent cold-bath, and is called St. Agnes-le-Clair, from the pureness of the water. Near this spot stands Aske's Hospital, more commonly called the Haberdashers' Alms-houses. Robert Aske, esq. left thirty thousand pounds towards building and endowing this spacious asylum for the aged and the young who are destitute of support. He restricted its benefits to twenty poor members of the Haberdashers' Company; and an equal number of boys, descended from parents belonging to the same body. The old men are comfortably supplied with every thing necessary; and the children are educated suitably to their condition of life. The building extends a great length, and has a piazza in front, supported by Tuscan pillars, which forms a covered walk. In the centre is a chapel, ornamented with a statue of the founder.

Another object of generosity, and a most worthy one, is the poor woman blessed with the hope of becoming a mother, but to whom Providence has not allowed, or worldly circumstances denied, the means of procuring the comforts necessary for the birth of a child. The London Lying-in-Hospital is at a short distance from the above-described place. The internal management is well regulated; and the exterior appearance of the edifice, though simple, is entitled to praise.

We pass by another hospital, or work-house, which is exclusively devoted to the poor French protestant refugees and their descendants residing in Great Britain.—It was erected in 1717, and was calculated to receive two hundred and twenty poor men and women; one hundred and forty-six of whom are on the foundation, and the other seventy-four are paid for, by their friends, at the rate of nine pounds per annum each; all of whom are plentifully supplied with all the necessaries of life, from the revenues of the hospital. This charity also extends to lunatics, for whose accommodation a large infirmary is provided. There are a chaplain, physician, surgeon, and other proper officers, belonging to this foundation.

Can we avoid lifting up our hands and eyes, but most particularly our hearts, in sincere gratitude to heaven, when we find ourselves surrounded by so many charitable establishments—most of them supported by voluntary subscriptions, a sort of fund which proves as solid as if these hospitals and alms-houses had been endowed with large properties in money or the most improving estates.

Opposite to the French Hospital, and behind St. Luke's and the London Lying-in Hospitals, is an elegant pleasure bath called *Peerless's Pool*. On the spot where this bath is situated was formerly a dangerous pond, which, from the number of persons drowned in it, had obtained the name of *Perilous Pool*. To prevent these accidents, the principal part of it was filled up; but, in the year 1743, one Mr. Kemp, an ingenious projector, converted it to the purposes it is now used, and altered its name from *Perilous* to *Peerless's Pool*. This pleasure-bath is esteemed the completest of a public nature of any in the kingdom. It is a hundred and seventy feet long, and above a hundred feet broad, having a smooth gravel bottom, five feet deep in the middle, four feet at the sides, and but three feet at one end. The descent to it is by several flights of steps, conveniently disposed round it, adjoining to which are boxes and arbours for dressing and undressing, some of them open, and others enclosed. On the south side is a neat arcade, under which is a looking-glass over a marble slab, and a small collection of books for the entertainment of the subscribers. The ground, about the pleasure-bath, is agreeably laid out, and well planted with trees. Here is also a cold bath, generally allowed to be the largest in England; it being forty feet long, and twenty feet broad, with flights of steps and dressing-rooms at each end. Besides these, there is also

a very







handsomely disposed against the walls. On each side of the principal building, at some distance backward, is a small edifice, used by the company on particular occasions. There are three entrances to this ground, by handsome iron gates; the principal of which is on the south side from Chiswell-street.

The present Artillery-ground, together with the land on the north side of it, as far as Old-street, was anciently denominated Bonhill or Bunhill Fields, part whereof was, by the mayor and citizens of London, in the year 1665, set apart and consecrated as a common cemetery, for the interment of such bodies as could not be admitted into their parochial grounds. However, it not being made use of for the purpose intended, Dr. Tindal took a lease of it, and converted it into a burial-ground for the use of the dissenters. It contains a prodigious multitude of grave-stones with inscriptions, besides a great number of raised monuments, with vaults underneath, belonging to particular families.

The west side of Finsbury-square, and the street between Moorfields and the City-Road, were begun in 1777; a considerable time elapsed before the remaining part could be carried into execution. At length, in 1789, the north side was let upon building leases, at 5s. 3d. per foot; the east side was let in 1790, and the south side in 1791. So unwilling were builders to speculate in this concern, that the whole ground-rent of the square amounts but to 125l. per annum. But it was not long before the corporation found the advantage of forming a respectable neighbourhood on this estate, fit for the residence of the wealthy. Even before the square was completed, liberal offers were made for pieces of ground in its vicinity; and nearly the whole of it is now covered with handsome streets, the present ground-rents of which amount to upwards of 7000l. per annum. The original design was to have a piece of water in the centre of the square, which might be a reservoir to the New River; but, from an apprehension that it would be a receptacle for filth, it was changed into a garden.

To the north of Finsbury-square is a large and handsome meeting-house, belonging to a congregation of dissenters, called the Foundery, from having been erected by the famous John Wesley on the site of a place of that description; and at a small distance from it is another meeting-house, called the Tabernacle, erected in 1753 by the not-lefs-famous George Whitfield. This place of worship is in a most flourishing state; for the congregation is uncommonly numerous, the pulpit resounds with the unctuous and pathetic language of true and genuine dissenting popularity, and nearly the whole neighbourhood forms a religious family. Rival to Rowland's Hill's chapel, the Tabernacle can boast of thousands of visitors on a Sunday evening; while the sacred orators and the harmonious singers of both may smile at the loneliness of our established churches.

The Temple of the Muses, or, in plain English, the bookseller's shop, close to Finsbury-square, is worthy of notice, not only on account the curious Life and Confessions of Mr. Lackington, with which he has favoured the world himself, but also for the quantity and variety of books collected there, and the particular order in which they are set within the circumference of a sort of tower, which, from a circular counter below, rises to the lantern at the top of the building, which is in itself an ornament to the place.—Mr. L. professes himself to be the son of a poor journeyman shoemaker at Wellington, in Somersetshire, to which profession he was himself educated; and it was all the education that he received. After working at his trade in various places, and being sometimes a follower of old John Wesley, and other methodistical teachers, which first gave him a taste for reading, he at length resolved to try his fortune in London. Accordingly, he removed to the metropolis, with a pious wife of the same complexion; but poverty still followed his steps; until, by the death of his grandfather, he gained a legacy of ten pounds, nearly the half of which was absorbed in the expenses of

a journey to receive it. On this capital, he hired a little shop and parlour, and commenced master-shoemaker and seller of old books; until, finding the latter half of his trade succeed the best, he converted his stock of leather into literature, and thus became a regular bookseller. This was in 1775; and his success in business must have been very rapid, for in 1791, when he published his Life, he already computed his profits at 4000l. per annum, so that he rode in his own chariot, had two town-houses, and a country-seat at Merton in Surrey! When we consider the narrow views and ideas with which an ordinary mechanic sets out, great allowances may be made for his exultation, when, after struggling through distresses, he finds himself elevated to a new rank in life. In this instance, the rank attained was that of a substantial bookseller; it was therefore in the line of his profession to proclaim his opulence, and to exhibit the portrait of so extraordinary a personage in the front of his book. Nor is this all, for in a motto above, he even triumphs over an old proverb, by inscribing *Sator ultra crepidam, feliciter ausus*. Beneath, under his name, is added—"Who a few years since began business with only five pounds; now sells one hundred thousand volumes annually." Whatever degree of vanity may be discovered in thus publishing a volume wholly written about himself and his own affairs, Mr. L. is a fly egotist, and takes industrious opportunities to point out his shop as the *only* market in London for cheap books; and attributes his great trade to his low profits.—Mr. Lackington of whom we have been speaking, has retired from business; the present head of the firm is his nephew.

Bending our way southwards to the old walls of London, we meet the place called Moorfields, the appearance of which is now very different from what it was anciently, and indeed not longer than fifteen years since, when trees of large growth were forming quincunxes, and offering a pleasant walk for the neighbours. But now it is shorn of its glory; and we understand that it is destined to bear some new buildings surrounding a square. The north and east sides are at present curiously studded with brokers and upholsterers' shops, with their usual out-door display of all sorts of goods. Broker-row in Moorfields has long been famous; and a great quantity of customers come from all parts within and without the bills of mortality to furnish their apartments out of this plentiful repository of ready-made rubbish. The south side is bounded by the well-known establishment called *Bethlehem*, corrupted into *Bedlam*. It was a noble structure, five hundred and forty feet in length, and forty feet in breadth. The middle and ends, which projected a little, were adorned with Corinthian pilasters, entablatures, foliage, &c. and, rising above the rest of the building, had each a flat roof, with a handsome balustrade of stone, in the centre of which was a handsome turret. In the middle was a clock and three dials, and on the top was a gilt ball and vane. The whole was built of brick and stone, and inclosed by a handsome wall, formed of the same materials, six hundred and eighty feet long. In the centre of this wall, which went in with a grand semicircular sweep, was a large pair of fine iron gates, supported by stone piers, on the top of which were two statues, in a reclining posture; one representing Raving, and the other Melancholy, Madness. These figures are finely expressed, and were executed by Mr. Cibber, who carved the emblematical figures on the Monument.—Pope, addressing Cibber the poet-laureat, son of this celebrated artist, called these two pieces of foundery *his brazen brothers*; and they have long been admired. A Westminster scholar composed the following hexastich expressive of the opposite character of the two figures and of the skill of the artist:

*Bethlemii ad portam se tollit dupla columna*  
 Εἰκοσι τῶν ἔκτος ἐνταδε χαλκῶς ἔχει;  
*Hic calvum ad dextram trisri caput ore reclinat;*  
*Vix illum ad lavam ferrca vincla tenent.*  
*Dissimilis furor est statuis: sed utrumque laborem*  
*Et gentum artificis monstrat uterque furor.*

Which



Which may be rendered thus :

Here, on each side, a lofty pillar stands

And statues mis'ry within doors reveal ;

This shakes the chains that bind his struggling hands ;

That feeds the grief he wishes to conceal.

Various their madnes ; yet, each in his guise

The artift's sense and skill proclaims to wond'ring eyes. Z.

The wall enclosed a range of gardens ; in the east division of which, separated by the entrance into the hospital, those of the lunatics, who were well enough to be suffered to go about, were allowed to enjoy the benefit of the fresh air. The expence of erecting this edifice amounted to 17,000*l.* The inside of the building chiefly consisted of two galleries, one over the other, a hundred and ninety-three yards long, thirteen feet high, and sixteen broad, exclusive of the cells. The galleries were divided by iron gates, in order to separate the men from the women. At the entrance between these two gates, on the right hand, was a handsome apartment for the steward, or manager ; and on the left was a spacious room, in which the committee sat to receive and discharge patients. Below-stairs were the kitchen and all necessary offices ; and at the south-east corner a bath. The accommodations were calculated for about 200 patients.—One wing of this building has been pulled down ; and the whole will be entirely levelled with the ground as soon as that most noble fabric which is rising in St. George's Fields shall be completed, and ready to receive the patients. Of that fabric we shall speak when we perambulate on the Surry side of the Thames. In the mean time we have thought it not amiss to leave upon record a few particulars of an edifice which cannot again be surveyed.

From Moorfields we return to our walk through *Broad-street* ; the name of which is derived from its being before the fire of London one of the widest within the walls of the city. It gives name to the ward. The principal object of attention is a handsome plain building of four stories in height, with an entrance through the middle of it, into a large yard, in which is another building of brick, nearly the size of the principal one. This is the EXCISE OFFICE, where immense duties are paid ; a gulph which in 1787, according to Pennant, had absorbed the sum of 5,331,114*l.* 6*s.* 10½*d.* and, in 1812, 27,492,539*l.* 0*s.* 6¾*d.* an increase the most astonishing, in that it took place during a lapse of time when the dawn of peace never appeared but for a few months in the course of more than 17 years. This is the principal office of excise in his majesty's dominions, and the business of it is conducted by nine commissioners, under whom are a great number of officers, both within and without the house. These receive the duties on beer, ale, and spirituous liquors ; on tea, coffee, and chocolate ; on malt, hops, soap, starch, candles, paper, parchment, and other exciseable commodities : for the surveying and collecting of which duties, a great number of out-door officers are employed in different districts or divisions, throughout the kingdom, to prevent frauds and losses. Before these commissioners all cases of seizure for frauds committed in the several branches of the revenue under their direction, are tried ; and from their determination there is no appeal except to the commissioners of appeal, who are part of themselves, for a re-hearing.

Where this building now stands—where busy hands receive from reluctant ones a premium upon their purchases or the result of their industry, which however is no more than a fair compensation for the security and other comforts which we all enjoy under a solid and well-supported government—where now the sound of money or the magic value of silent paper calls the attention of so many clerks—ten peaceful alms-houses once contained the poor, who, in their grateful orisons, might thank Providence for the benevolent disposition of sir Thomas Gresham, who founded them in 1575.

On the west side of *Broad-street* is the parish-church of

St. Peter-le-Poor. This church is of very ancient foundation, as appears from a register of it so far back as the year 1181. It was dedicated to St. Peter the Apostle, and is distinguished from other churches of that name by the additional epithet of *Le Poor*, which Stow conjectures was given to it from the ancient state of the parish, though, in his time, there were many fair houses in it, possessed by rich merchants and others. The old church projected a considerable distance beyond the line of the houses, and was a great obstruction to the passage of the street ; in consequence of which, an act of parliament was passed, in 1788, for taking it down and rebuilding it further back, taking in the site of a court behind. This desirable object was completed in 1791, at an expence of upwards of four thousand pounds, of which the city of London subscribed four hundred ; the remainder was raised by annuities in the parish. The west end of this new church is elegantly simple ; the door is in the centre, between doubled Ionic columns ; the ends of the front are adorned with pilasters of the same order, between which and the columns is a blank window on each side. Above the door is a moulded pediment, with a plain tympanum ; over which rises a square tower, in two stories ; the first plain, for the clock and bells, the second ornamented with double Corinthian pilasters at the corners, on each of which stands a handsome vase. The whole is surmounted with an elegant bell-shaped dome, terminated by a weathercock. It is a rectory, the advowson of which appears to have been always in the dean and chapter of St. Paul's.

The hermits of the order of St. Augustine, by corruption or abbreviation *Austyn*, who was bishop of Hippo in Africa, had a convent built for them by Humphry Bohun, earl of Hereford and Essex, a little to the west of this church. Edward VI. in the fourth year of his reign, granted all the church, except the choir and steeple, to a congregation of Germans, and other strangers, who fled here for the sake of religion, and ordered it to be called *The Temple of the Lord Jesus*. Several successive princes have confirmed it to the Dutch, by whom it is still used as a place of worship. It is a large and spacious Gothic edifice, supported by two rows of stone pillars. At the east end are several steps, leading to a large platform, on which is placed a long table, with seats against the wall, and forms round, for the use of persons receiving the holy communion ; the windows, on one side, have the words *Jesus' Temple* painted on them, in several places. At the west end is a library, that contains several valuable manuscripts ; among which are the letters of Calvin, Peter Martyr, and other foreign reformers. This place of worship, which is now called "*the Dutch Church in Austyn Friars*," is served by two ministers, who preach twice every Sunday, and once in the week. They administer the sacrament on the last Sunday in every month ; and exchange churches every first Sunday in the month with the *Walloon congregation*, for the administration of the Eucharist ; their own church in *Threadneedle-street* being too small. The ministers have good salaries, and the church provides a sufficient subsistence for their widows.

Part of the house, gardens, and cloisters, belonging to this priory, were granted to sir William Paulet, lord-treasurer to Henry VIII. who erected a stately edifice on the site, which afterwards devolved to his son, the marquis of Winchester, with the choir and steeple of the conventual church : he disposed of the pavement thereof, with all the magnificent sepulchral monuments of the nobility, for the pitiful sum of one hundred pounds ; he also stripped the roof of the lead, and converted the building into a stable. The remains of the mansion-house are still to be seen in the old *Pay-office*, at the corner of *Winchester-street*, now converted into dwelling and counting-houses for merchants. —*Winchester-street* was built on the ground of the gardens, and contains several houses worthy of the notice of the antiquary, particularly that in the south-west angle, which is supposed to be the one alluded to by *Strype*,



when he says, "Here was a great messuage, called the Spanish ambassador's house, of late inhabited by sir James Houblon, knight and alderman of London."

At the upper end of Pinner's-court, in Winchester-street, stands Pinner's or Pinmakers' Hall, a very antique building, principally used as a dissenting meeting-house. This was also a part of the Augustine priory, which was converted into a glass-house before it became the property of the Pinner's company.

Broad-street, which is inhabited by several merchants, or who at least have their counting-houses there, as being near the centre of trade and business, leads us to the eastern end of Threadneedle-street, and to several of the most interesting buildings in the city, a focus of lofty and elegant edifices, not more important to the sight by their exterior aspect, than they are momentous relatively to the business which is daily transacted there.—We mean the Royal Exchange, the Bank, the Stock Exchange, and the Mansion House; with the appendages of the Post-office, several lottery and fire offices, and a number of churches, the spires and towers of which seem to bristle above the roofs of the whole neighbourhood. There is not, perhaps, in any metropolis through the whole range of European cities, a spot so interesting as the one we have just alighted upon. We were hurried there on the wings of curiosity; and we left many interesting objects behind, which we may refuse, as a sort of rest, when we have passed, in admiration, through the bustle of the three or four places we have just enumerated.

The BANK. The aspect of this building is noble, and adapted to the purpose of giving an adequate idea, if possible, of the important and extensive business which is incessantly doing within its walls. The architecture is light on the south side; and the improvements on the northern part of the edifice, being more lofty, and upon a larger scale, add a considerable degree of majesty to the whole. This might be properly called the Temple of Plutus, the Palace of Mammon. And, if we consider the *sepulchral* ornaments crowning the more modern parts, may we not style it the "tomb" where gold and silver are buried, and sleep under ground whilst their *paper-ghosts* and *filmy simulacra* flutter about in the shape of bank-notes? This is the place wherefrom and whereto the immense and immeasurable wealth of the united kingdom—nay, of all the world—circulates; on the Herculean strength of credit, in light paper as well as in solid tokens, through the mercantile universe. The building fills a space inclosed by the four streets, Bartholomew-lane, Lothbury, Prince's-street, and Bank Buildings. The principal front is composed of a centre and two wings. The former is eighty feet in length, of the Ionic order, and raised on a rustic base: the wings are each ornamented with a colonnade of Corinthian pillars, which, though in itself beautiful, is considered as too insignificant for the structure with which it is connected. Through this front are three entrances, one larger than the other two, into a handsome square court, on the northern side of which is the Great Hall, a noble apartment, seventy-nine feet in length, and forty broad. Here was erected a fine marble statue, in honour of the founder, William the Third, with a Latin inscription, of which the following is a translation:

For restoring Efficacy to the Laws,  
Authority to the Courts of Justice, Dignity to the Parliament,  
To all his Subjects their Religion and Liberties,  
And confirming these to posterity,  
By the succession of the illustrious House of Hanover  
to the British Throne:  
To the best of princes, WILLIAM THE THIRD,  
Founder of the Bank,  
This Corporation, from a sense of gratitude,  
Has erected this statue, and dedicated it to his memory,  
in the Year of our Lord 1734.

Behind this court, new buildings of great extent have been erected: The back of the Bank is a huge wall,

strangely ornamented at top, and forming, by its heavy aspect, a contrast of strength and security with the puny elegance of the front. The gateway, however, through which the carriages that bring gold and silver enter, is handsome. A back and front view of the building is given in Plate VII.

A stranger to the business transacted at the Bank, when entering the premises for the first time, appears bewildered and at a loss to know where he is. The bustle, which is constantly kept up in the rotunda, among the buyers and sellers of stock, and those who are equally busy in transferring, presents a curious scene; it is truly interesting to see the throng, all eagerly occupied with their own affairs, and expressing their anxiety by their countenances. This apartment is crowned with a noble dome, admitting the light through an elegant cupola, supported by twelve female figures, representing the months of the year. Within the cupola is a dial, that shows the direction of the wind.

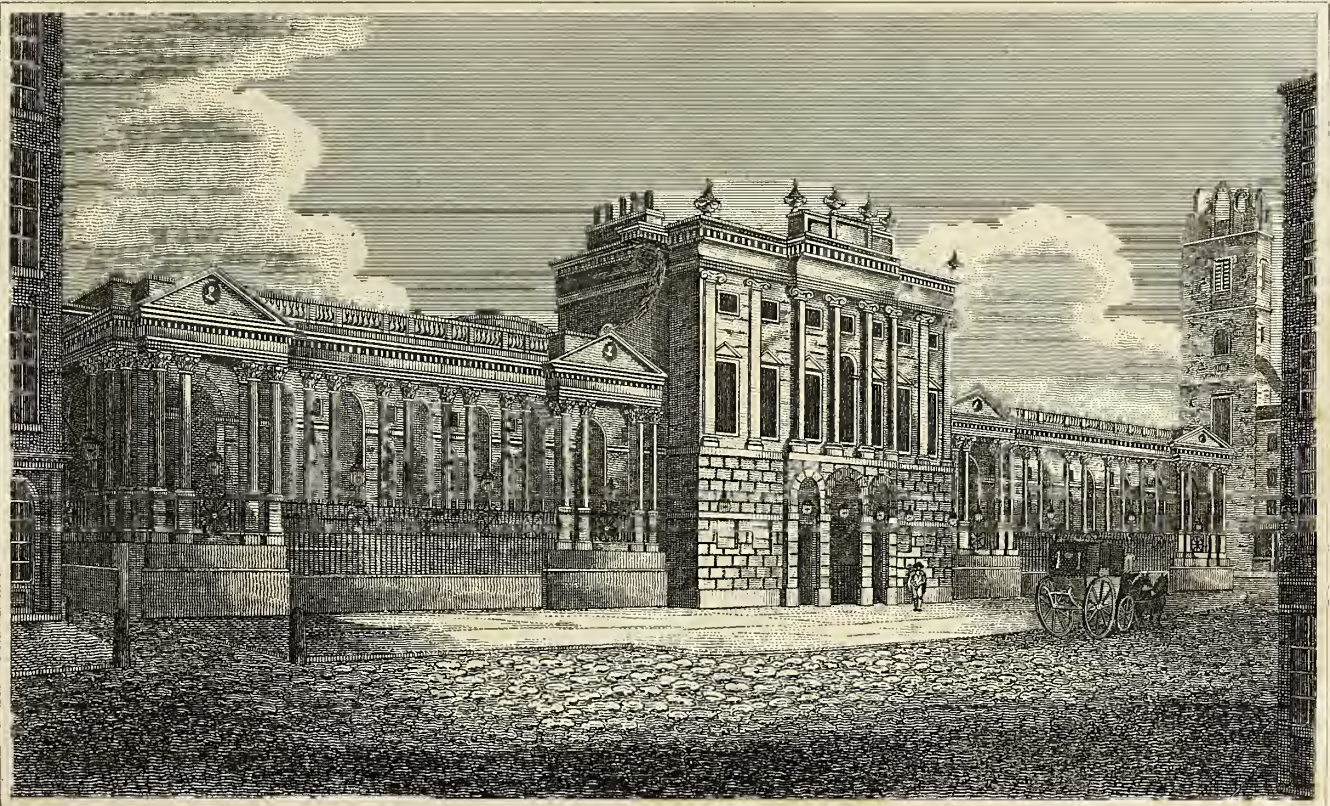
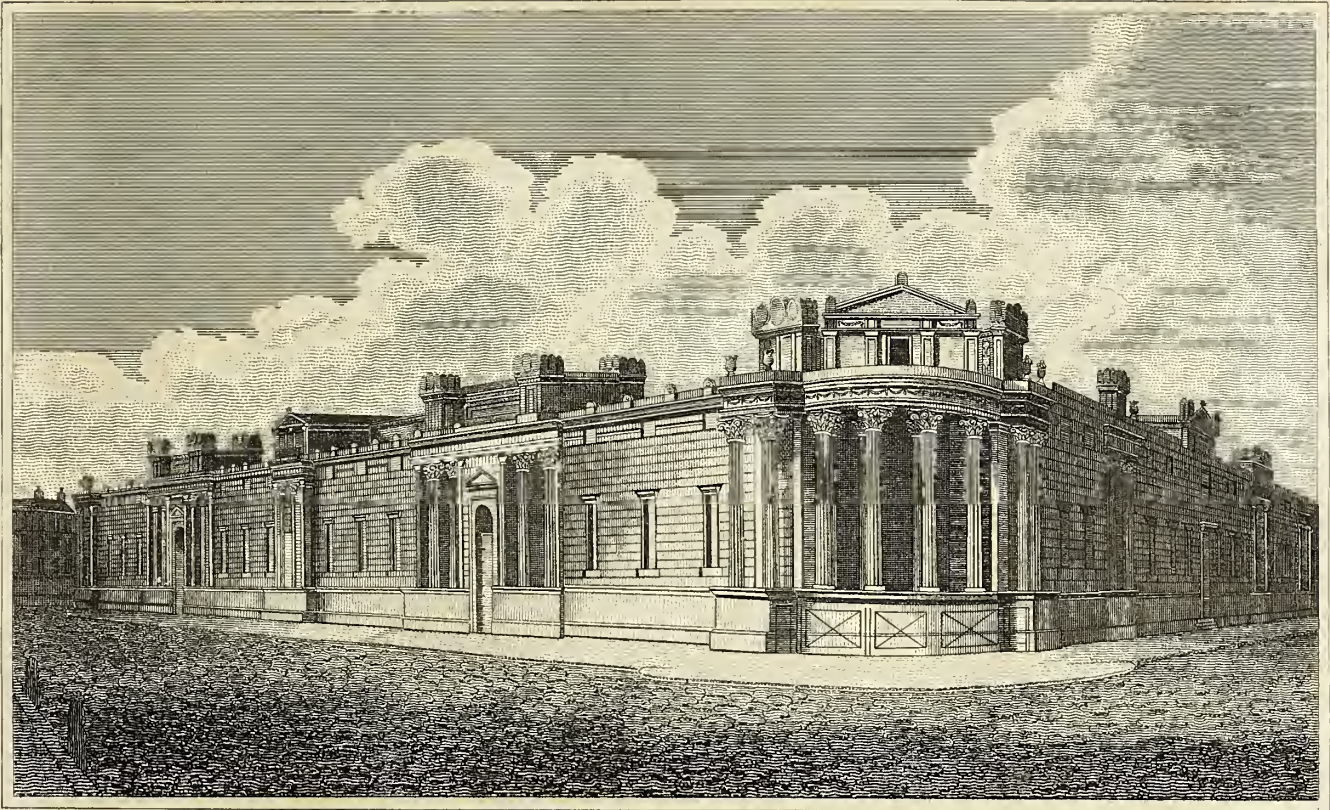
On each side of the entrance into the Bank from Bartholomew-lane, are large commodious offices; and on the door of each, the names of the funds managed in it. The apartments are heated by stoves, some of them designed with great taste. Beneath this extensive edifice are strong vaults, where the cash and bullion are deposited. In digging for the foundations, the workmen found oyster-shells so far beneath the surface as to strengthen the tradition recorded by Stowe, that the Thames once flowed as far as Bucklersbury. Such are the changes on the surface of our earth, as well as in the circumstances of those who dwell upon it. The increase of the national wealth may be estimated by the augmentation of the capital of the Bank: in 1694, when Mr. Paterfon first projected the plan, it was limited to £200,000. (see the article BANK, vol. ii. p. 672.) at present it amounts to 11,550,000. The affairs of the proprietors are managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-four directors.

Near the Bank is the Stock Exchange, which, as a building, has nothing remarkable, but is the place where not only real stock is transferred from one owner to another, by brokers, whose sole occupation it is to do this business for their principals; but also where immense nominal sums are bought and sold upon speculation. This is a most curious (our pen was ready to write *nefarious*) sort of gambling, which has wrought in a few hours sometimes the fortune, often the ruin, of individuals. This nominal game is played in the following manner: A man, who sometimes possesses not a farthing in the stocks, directs his broker to buy, for instance 100,000. for the 30th of next month, or any other fixed and agreed time at a certain price: if, by some unexpected event, stocks rise in value during that time, the difference arising in the price constitutes his profit; but, if they fall, then he loses, and thus falls with them, if he cannot pay his *differences*, as it is called, to a deserved degree of ignominy which is seldom obliterated. Those people who cannot pay their differences upon the *settling-day*, are humbly styled, *lame ducks waddling out of the alley*.—It is curious to see a landscape and one or two other paintings hanging on high in this room, where all eyes fixed down upon paper, and ready to split a shilling into ten thousand fractions, never rise to look at any thing but what can bring the most profitable interest. The painting, however, is not worth looking at; and the reason why it is there is so trifling that it deserves not to be noticed.

Cornhill, though a short street, is wide and well built; displaying two rows of fine shops. On each side of it are numerous courts, lanes, and alleys, that, notwithstanding their closeness, are, from their vicinity to the main seat of business, occupied by most respectable inhabitants in the commercial line of life. They abound also with counting-houses and coffee-houses, for the accommodation of persons who reside at a distance, and require only a temporary accommodation in this neighbourhood of mercantile activity.

The





*Back and Front View of the Bank of England.*







The most noble ornament of Cornhill is the **ROYAL EXCHANGE**. The *Bourse*, as it is called in foreign countries, or meeting-place for merchants, was anciently situated in Lombard-street; but the inconvenience of this place had occasioned frequent complaints among the merchants. At length, sir Thomas Gresham, in the years 1566 and 1567, erected a spacious and magnificent edifice for this purpose, in Cornhill; which was no sooner finished, than queen Elizabeth honoured it with the title of the Royal Exchange. See **GRESHAM**, vol. ix. p. 19. and the articles there referred to.—This stately fabric being consumed in the fire of 1666, the foundation of the present magnificent edifice was laid in year 1667, and it was completed in 1669. But, the site of the Old Royal Exchange not being capacious enough to receive the intended new fabric, the city and the Mercers' Company, the trustees under Gresham's will, purchased a piece of ground for enlarging it, at the expense of seven thousand two hundred and seventeen pounds eleven shillings, which, added to fifty-eight thousand nine hundred and sixty-two pounds, the charge of building, makes the whole expense of the Royal Exchange amount to sixty-five thousand nine hundred and seventy-nine pounds, eleven shillings.

The ground plot of this building is two hundred and three feet in length, and one hundred and seventy-one feet broad. The area in the middle contains sixty-one square perches, and is surrounded with a substantial and regular stone building, wrought in rustic, with a spacious piazza round it. In the centre of the principal fronts, which are north and south, are grand entrances into the area, under lofty and noble arches. The south front in Cornhill is the principal: on each side of the entrance are Corinthian columns, supporting a compass-pediment; and in the inter-columniation on each side, in the front next the street, is a niche, with the figures of Charles I. and Charles II. in Roman habits, well executed. Over the aperture, on the cornice between the two pediments, are the king's arms in relievo. On each side of this entrance is a range of windows between demi-columns and pilasters of the Composite order; above which the building is decorated with a balustrade. From the centre, in this front, rises a lanthorn and turret a hundred and seventy-eight feet high, on the top of which is a fanè in the form of a grass-hopper, that insect being the crest of sir Thomas Gresham's arms: this fanè is made of polished brass, and is esteemed a very curious piece of workmanship. The north front in Threadneedle-street is adorned with pilasters of the Composite order, but has neither columns nor statues on the outside; and, instead of the two compass-pediments, has a triangular one.

The inner court, as hath been already observed, is surrounded with a wide piazza, serving to shelter the merchants, who meet there, from the inclemency of the weather. Over the arches of this quadrangular piazza is an entablature standing round, and a compass-pediment in the middle of the cornice of each of the four sides. On the north side, under the pediment, are the king's arms; on the south, the city-arms; on the east, Gresham's arms; and on the west, the Mercers' arms; with their respective enrichments. There are twenty-four niches in the intercolumns, in twenty of which are the statues of the kings and queens of England, in their royal robes, and with regalia, except three, which are in Roman habits. On the south side are the statues of Edward I. Edward III. Henry V. and Henry VI. On the west side, Edward IV. Edward V. with the crown hanging over his head; Henry VII. and Henry VIII. On the north side, Edward VI. Mary, Elizabeth, James I. Charles I. Charles II. and James II. On the east side, William and Mary in one niche, queen Anne, George I. George II. and his present majesty George III. Under the piazzas, within the area, are twenty-eight niches, all vacant except that in which sir Thomas Gresham's statue is placed in the north-west angle; and that in the south-west, where the statue of sir John Barnard was placed in his life-time by his fellow-

citizens, to express their sense of his merit as a merchant, a magistrate, and a faithful representative of the city of London. In the centre of the area is erected, on a marble pedestal, about eight feet high, another statue of Charles II. in a Roman habit, executed by Gibbon, and encompassed with iron rails. On the south side of the pedestal, under an imperial crown, a sceptre, palm-branches, and other decorations, is a flattering inscription in Latin. On the west side of the pedestal, is cut in relievo, a Cupid resting his hand on a shield, containing the arms of France and England quartered, and holding in his left a rose. On the north side are the arms of Ireland on a shield, supported by a Cupid. On the east side are the arms of Scotland, with a Cupid holding a thistle. And, on the base of the pedestal, on the south, is the following inscription: "This statue was repaired and beautified by the Company of Merchant-Adventurers of England anno 1730; John Hanbury, Esq. governor."—In this area, and under the surrounding piazza, the merchants, and other persons engaged in mercantile connexions, meet every day to transact business, between the hours of twelve and three o'clock; and, for mutual convenience, those engaged in the same branches of trade assemble in distinct parts, or, as they are called, *The Walks*.

Under the north and south fronts are spacious stair-cases, which lead to a gallery that extends round the four sides of the building, and in which were formerly about two hundred shops, occupied by milliners, haberdashers, &c. but those shops have been long deserted; and the galleries are now occupied by the Royal Exchange Assurance Office, the Lord Mayor's Court Office, the Merchants' Seamen's Office, Lloyd's Subscription Coffee-houses, the rooms appropriated for the Gresham Lectures, and a number of counting-houses for merchants and underwriters. The shops in the lower part of the building are mostly used as counting-houses by stock-brokers. Under the whole are vaults, kept by the East-India company, as magazines for pepper. In the turret is a good clock, which goes with chimes at the hours of three, six, nine, and twelve; it has four dials, and is so regulated as to become a standard of time to all the mercantile parts of the town.

A little to the south-west of the Royal Exchange is the **MANSION HOUSE**, a building of considerable magnificence; though, from its confined and low situation, it has an appearance of heaviness, which on an elevated spot, in an area proportionate to its magnitude, it would be free from. It is substantially built of Portland-stone; and has a portico of six lofty columns of the Corinthian order in the front, the pilasters under the pediment, and on each side, being of the same order. The basement-story is very massy, and built in rustic. In the centre of this story is the entrance to the kitchen, cellars, and other offices; and on each side rises a flight of steps, of very considerable extent, leading up to the portico, in the middle of which is the door that opens to the apartments and offices where business is transacted. The stone balustrade of the stairs is continued along the front of the portico; and the columns, which are wrought in the proportions of Palladio, support a large angular pediment, adorned with a very noble piece of sculpture, representing the dignity and opulence of the city of London; finely designed, and well executed by Mr. Taylor. The principal figure represents the genius of the city, in the dress of the goddess Cybele, clothed with the imperial robe, alluding to her being the capital of this kingdom, with a crown of turrets on her head; holding the pratorian wand in her right hand, and leaning with her left on the city-arms. She is placed between two pillars, or columns, to express the stability of her condition; and on her right hand stands a naked boy, with the fasces and axe in one hand, and the sword, with the cap of liberty upon it, in the other; to show, that authority and justice are the true supports of liberty, and that, while the former are exerted with vigour, the latter will continue in a state of youth. At her feet lies a figure, representing Faction, as it were in agony, with snakes



twining round his head; intimating, that the exact government of this city, not only preserves herself, but retorts just punishment on such as envy her happy condition. In the group farther to the right, the chief figure represents an ancient river-god, his head crowned with flags and rushes, his beard long, a rudder in his right hand, and his left arm leaning on an urn, which pours forth a copious stream; the swan at his feet, shows this to be the Thames; the ship behind, and the anchor and cable below, him, very emphatically express the mighty tribute of riches paid by the commerce of this river to the city to which it belongs. On the left hand there appears the figure of a beautiful woman, in an humble posture, presenting an ornament of pearls with one hand, and pouring out a mixed variety of riches from a cornucopia, or horn of plenty, with the other; signifying the abundance which flows from the union of domestic industry and foreign trade. Behind her is a stork, and two naked boys, playing with each other, and holding the neck of the stork; to signify that piety, brotherly love, and mutual affection, produce and secure that vast stock of wealth, of various kinds, which appears near them in bales, bags, and hog-heads. So that every thing in this piece is not barely beautiful and ornamental, but, at the same time, instructively expressive of the happy condition of that great city, for the residence of whose chief magistrate this noble building was erected. Beneath this portico are two series of windows, which extend along the whole front; and above these is an attic story with square windows, crowned with a balustrade.—The building is much deeper than it is wide; it has an area in the middle, and at the farthest end is an Egyptian hall, which is the length of the front, very lofty, and designed for public entertainments. Near the ends at each side is a window of extraordinary height, placed between coupled Corinthian pilasters, and extending to the top of the attic story. The inside apartments and offices are exceedingly noble, and elegantly furnished. On the west side of the building is a commodious door for the admittance of private company; and on the east side is the entrance to the justice-room, where the lord-mayor in person sits every day.

The greatest inconvenience which attends this edifice arises from its being so crowded with houses, especially on the sides, that the rooms are dark; and even in the front there is not a sufficient area to enlighten the building. Notwithstanding this imperfection, it is certainly a very noble structure, and well calculated for the discharge of that business, and the dignity of that magistrate, for whom it was erected. The whole expense of building the mansion-house (including the sum of three thousand nine hundred pounds, paid for purchasing houses to be pulled down) amounted to 42,638*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.*

Stocks Market, on the site of which the mansion-house was erected, was built in the year 1282, by Henry Wallis, the mayor, on a void space to the north of St. Mary Woolchurch, where formerly had stood a pair of stocks for the punishment of offenders; and the rents of the houses were appropriated to the maintenance of London-bridge. In the year 1322, it was ordained that none should sell fish or flesh out of this and the other markets, upon pain of forfeiting the articles exposed to sale for the first offence, and of losing their freedom for the second. In this market stood the famous equestrian statue, set up in honour of Charles II. by sir Robert Vyner, lord-mayor in 1675. His lordship, in his haste to exhibit this testimony of his loyalty, found a statue of John Sobieski, king of Poland, trampling on a Turk, ready cast at a founder's; and, disregarding the incongruity of the costume, he christened the Pole by the name of Charles II. and the prostrate Turk by that of Oliver Cromwell; and thus new named it arose on this spot, in honour of his sovereign.—Encouraged and inspired by an example so authoritative, the landlord of the George and Dragon alehouse presently caused his sign to undergo a similar transformation: St.

George had his helmet altered into a wig, and the dragon beneath was metamorphosed into a prostrate Oliver Cromwell!

The view from the bottom of the Poultry, a little below St. Mildred's church, is perhaps not to be matched by any in the world. It has a most elegant and even magnificent appearance.—You have on your right the lofty building of the Mansion-house. Towards the south-east, the opening into Lombard-street, over which you catch a glimpse at several towers and spires. Then before you, and full east, you find Cornhill, displaying the front of the Royal Exchange and several other handsome buildings, crowned also with the sight of many towers and steeples. To your left, drawing toward the north-east, is a large opening, presenting a side-view of the Bank, and of the elegant and lofty edifices built opposite to, and as an ornament for, it. In the back ground rises the Tower of St. Bartholomew's church, with whimsical arches on the top, which, though they do not belong properly to any sort of pure or correct order, have a singular effect when seen at a proper distance. See Plate VII*f.* where this tower is seen in the distant back ground of the lower part of the engraving.

This church stands at the south-west corner of Bartholomew-lane, and is of very ancient date.—The old church was burnt in 1666, after which the present building was erected. It consists of a very irregular body, with a tower crowned with arches, supported by columns of the Corinthian order. The living, at the time of the reformation, being in the gift of the abbey of St. Mary of Grace, it fell, with the dissolution of that religious house, to the crown, and so has continued to the present time.

Very near this, and a little on the south-east in Threadneedle-street, we find the parish-church of St. Bennet Fink.—It is so called from its dedication to St. Benedict, an Italian saint, and founder of the order of Benedictine monks; and it received the additional name of Fink, from one Robert Fink, who rebuilt it. It is of ancient foundation; and, though at present only a curacy, yet was originally a rectory, John de Branketree being rector thereof before the year 1323. The patronage of this church, which was formerly in the family of the Nevils, falling to the crown, Edward IV. gave it to the dean and chapter of Windsor; and, the impropriation being in the said dean and chapter, it is supplied by one of the canons, who is licensed by the bishop of London. The old church being destroyed by fire in 1666, the present building was erected in 1673. The body is of an elliptical form, lighted by large arched windows, which reach to the roof. This is encompassed with a balustrade, and crowned with a lantern; a dome rises upon the whole extent of the tower, and on its top is a turret. The church-yard was given to the parishioners as a free burial-place, without any expense.

Returning along Threadneedle-street, we find near the south-west corner, on the east of Broad-street, the Walloon or French Protestant church on our left. It is nearly opposite to Finch-lane, which we suppose to have been originally Fink-lane, in unison and according to the church just mentioned. It stands upon the site of a chapel annexed to the hospital of St. Anthony. Divine service is performed here, in the French tongue, after the manner of the church of England. The old building being entirely destroyed by the fire of London, the present church was erected at the sole expense of the French protestants. It is a small but neat place of worship, with a convenient vestry at the south-east corner.

The hospital of St. Anthony was a cell to the priory of St. Anthony of Vienna, and the building was originally a synagogue, which was granted by Henry III. in the year 1231, to the monks of this fraternity. About the year 1338, they erected a free-school, on a piece of garden-ground, that was given to them, on the north-side of the hospital, which, in a short time flourished so much, as to



rival St. Paul's school; and, as an encouragement to this foundation, Henry VI. granted divers lands, in the county of Southampton, towards the maintenance of five of their scholars at the university of Oxford; each of whom was to be allowed ten pence per week. At the general suppression of the monasteries, by Henry VIII. the revenues of this hospital were valued at 5*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* per annum. Edward VI. granted it to the dean and canons of Windsor, and their successors, for ever. In the beginning of Elizabeth's reign, the foreign protestants having but one place of worship in the city, viz. the church in Austin Friars, the French, by the assistance of Grindal bishop of London, obtained a lease of the chapel, which they have occupied ever since.

The South-Sea-house stands at the north-east extremity of Threadneedle-street, (which, according to Stow, was originally called Three-needles-street, on account, most likely of its being near Pinmakers' Hall.) This house was erected upon a large extent of ground, running backward as far as Old Broad-street, facing the church of St. Peter-le-Poor. The back front was originally the Excise-office, and then the South-Sea company's office; and it is now distinguished by the name of the Old South-Sea-house. It is a substantial and handsome building of brick, ornamented with Portland stone. The front, in Threadneedle-street, is very beautiful. The entrance is a gateway, leading into a court, with a piazza formed of Doric pillars. The walls are remarkably solid, and the interior is very commodious: one room, in particular, is peculiarly lofty, spacious, and elegant.

Cornhill, the top part of Gracechurch-street, and Lombard-street, form nearly an equilateral triangle, in which we find the church of St. Michael, which is a rectory. The patronage of it appears to have been anciently in the abbot and convent of Evesham, erroneously called Coveham, who, in the year 1133, granted the same to Sparling, a priest, with all the lands thereunto belonging, except those held by Orgar le Proud, at the rent of two shillings a-year; in consideration of which grant, the said Sparling covenanted and agreed, not only to pay annually to the abbot and canons the sum of thirteen shillings and four pence, but likewise to supply the house of the said abbot (when in London) with fire, water, and salt. Some time afterwards, the rectory reverted to the convent, and they continued patrons of it until the year 1503, when, by a deed, bearing date Dec. 3, they conveyed the advowson to the Drapers' Company, in consideration of a perpetual annuity of 5*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* in addition to an ancient pension of six shillings and eight pence annually paid to the abbot and canons out of the said church; since which time, the patronage has continued in the Drapers. The old church being destroyed by the fire of London, in 1666, the present Gothic structure arose in its stead; the body of which is seventy feet long, sixty broad, thirty-five in height, and one hundred and thirty feet to the top of the tower. The lower part of the tower occupies the centre of the church; and, on each side, there is a regular extent of building. The principal door opens in the lower stage of the tower, which rises with angulated corners from the ground, forming a kind of base, terminated at the height of the body of the church. The second stage, which is plain and lofty, has two tall windows, one over the other, properly shaped for the style of the building; this is terminated with a truly Gothic cornice. The third stage is exactly in the form of the two others; only they are plain, and this is covered with ornaments; the angulated corners are fluted, and terminated by cherubs' heads, under a cornice; the plain face, between, has four windows, in two series. Above the cornice, over the uppermost of these windows, runs a battlement, on the plain faces of the tower, and from the corners are carried up four beautiful fluted turrets, cased, a part of their height, with Doric turrets; these terminate in pinnacle-heads, from within which rises a spire at each corner, crowned with a vane. The tower contains an excellent ring of bells. Here is a

lecture every Sunday morning, and on every holiday, founded by John Rayney, esq. who left houses in Gracechurch-street to the company of Drapers, charged with the payment of forty pounds per annum, for the support thereof.

Almost opposite to this church, in Cornhill, stood, anciently, the king's weigh-house, or beam, for weighing foreign merchandise; to which belonged a number of porters, and also a cart and four horses for conveying goods to and from the weigh-house.

Near the south-east corner of Cornhill, stands the church of St. Peter, Cornhill, which, if the following inscription, engraved on a tablet of brass, and hanging in the church, near the baptismal font, can be relied on, is by far the most ancient of the Christian churches in Britain. It must, however, be observed, that, independently of the general disbelief of the existence of a king named Lucius, the only authorities for which are Geoffrey of Monmouth and Joceline of Furnes, the style appears to be much too modern, and is probably a fabrication about the time of Henry VI. "Be hit known to all men, that the yeerys of our Lord God, an. CLXXIX. Lucius, the fyrst Christen king of this lond, then cally'd Brytayne, fowndyd the fyrst church in London; that is to sey, the church of Sent Peter upon Cornhyl; and he foundyd ther an archbishop's see, and made that church the metropolitan and cheef church of this kingdom, and so endury'd the space of CCCC yeerys, and more, unto the comyng of Sent Austen, an apotyl of Englonde; the which was sent into the lond by Sent Gregory, the doctour of the church, in the tyme of king Ethelbert; and then was the archbishops see and pol removed from the aforefaid church of St. Peters upon Cornhyll, unto Derebernaum, that now ys calyd Canterbury, and ther yt remedyth to this dey. And Millet Monk, which came into this lond wyth Sent Austen, was made the fyrst bishop of London, and hys see was made in Powll's church. And this Lucius, kyng, was the fyrst foundyr of Peter's church upon Cornhyl; and he reigned king, in thys lond, after Brut. MCCXLV. yeerys. And the yeerys of our Lord God a CXXIV. Lucius was crownyd kyng; and the yeers of hys reygne, LXXVII yeerys; and he was beryd, aftyr sum cronekil (chronicle) at London, and after sum cronekil he was beryd at Gloucester, at that plase wher the order of Sent Francys standyth."

Whatever credit may be given to the antiquity of this church, from the above inscription, it is certain that the church, known in ancient records by the name of St. Peter *super* Cornhill, that is, upon, or at the top of, Cornhill, is of very ancient foundation. The earliest authentic account, however, we find of this church, is, that William Kingston, before the year 1298, gave to it his tenement in Grafs-street called the Horse-mill; and that there anciently belonged to the church a public library, well furnished with books; which being privately disposed of, the building was converted into a school for the education of youth. This church is a rectory, the patronage of which appears to have been in a family of the Nevils; for the lady Alice, relict of sir Hugh Nevil, in the year 1362, made a feoffment thereof to Richard earl of Arundel and Surrey; and, passing afterwards through various hands, it was, in the year 1411, conveyed, by Richard Whittington and others, to the lord-mayor and commonalty of London; in whom the right of advowson still remains. The old edifice was totally destroyed by the fire in 1666; soon after which the present structure was erected. It is a very substantial building, eighty feet long, forty-seven broad, forty high to the roof, and one hundred and forty to the top of the steeple. The body is plain, with a single series of windows. The tower is also plain, with one window in each stage; and the dome, which supports the spire, is of the lantern kind. The spire is crowned with a ball, on which is a vane, in the form of a key, alluding to the key of St. Peter.

Lombard-street was so called, says Stow, "of the *Lombards* and other merchants, strangers of divers nations, assembling there twice every day, of what originall or continuance



fluence I have not read, more than that Edward the Second, in the twelfth of his reign, confirmed a messuage sometime belonging to Robert Turke, abutting on Lombard-street towards the south, and towards Cornhill on the north, for the merchants of Florence, which proveth that street to have had the name of Lombard-street before the reign of Edward the Second. The meeting of which merchants and others there, continued until the 22d of December in the year 1568, on which day the said merchants began to make their meetings at the Bourse, a place then new builded for that purpose, in the ward of Cornhill, and was since by her majestie queen Elizabeth named the Royall Exchange."—As to the etymology of *Lombards*, or *Longobards* as they were called formerly, we may fairly suppose that it was a sort of nickname given to the traders from the Levant, who made their appearance early in the Adriatic Sea, and probably at a time when beards happened to be out of fashion in Italy; for it is well known that in Europe this natural ornament of the chin has been subject to the whims of the bearers, and appeared or disappeared, changed its shape, its colour, its length, according to the dictates of fashion, (see the article BEARD, vol. ii. p. 827.) whilst in Asia it has been constantly worn as a badge of virility, the absence of which stigmatises the subject with the opprobrium of natural or accidental effeminacy. Therefore we take *Longobards*, contracted into *Lombards*, to have been a corruption of *longo barbati*, "long-bearded merchants." See p. 41 & 112 of this volume.

In Lombard-street we find the parish-church of Allhallows. It is a rectory, and one of the archbishop of Canterbury's peculiars. The advowson appears to have been anciently in lay hands; for Brithmer, a citizen of London, with the approbation of Stigand the archbishop, and Godric the dean, gave it, with a messuage adjoining, to the church of Canterbury in the year 1053; by virtue of which donation, the right of patronage still remains in the dean and chapter of the metropolitan church. This was the last rebuilt of the churches destroyed by the fire in 1666, not being finished until 1694. It is a neat well-proportioned building. The body is enlightened by a single series of large windows; and the tower, which is square, is terminated by a plain battlement. The length of the church is eighty-four feet, its breadth fifty-two, its height thirty, and that of the tower eighty-five.

A little to the west of this church, between George-yard and Birchin-lane, stands that of St. Edmund the king. This church received its name from being dedicated to Edmund, the Saxon king, who was murdered by the Danes in the year 870; and, though the origin of its foundation cannot be fixed with any degree of certainty, yet, from several circumstances, it is reasonable to suppose, that it was originally built during the time of the Saxon heptarchy. The old church was destroyed by the fire of London, after which the present structure was erected on its ruins. The situation of this building differs from most other churches in London; for, instead of east and west, it stands full north and south; by which the altar is placed at the north end of the church. It is sixty-nine feet long, thirty-nine broad, and thirty-two high to the roof, which is flat. At the south end is a square tower, from which projects a dial over the street; and upon the tower is a short spire, with its base fixed on a broad lantern. This church is a rectory, the patronage of which is now in the archbishop of Canterbury. In the year 1175, there was a dispute between the dean and chapter of St. Paul's, and the prior and canons of the Trinity convent, within Aldgate, concerning the patronage; which was determined, by Gilbert bishop of London, in favour of the latter. The parish is united with that of St. Nicholas Acons, the church of which, before the fire of London, stood on the west side of Nicholas-lane, and was a rectory in the gift of the crown.

Farther west, on opposite sides of the street, are the Phoenix Fire-office, and the Pelican Life-Insurance-office; both handsome modern buildings, particularly the last.—

The figures over the entrance of the Pelican merit commendation, being of no common cast: the design and execution do honour to Mr. Devaere, the sculptor. The middle figure, holding a kind of *vesillum* with the Pelican in one hand, and wreaths of roses and laurels in the other, alludes, with the two female figures on the right of the middle statue, to the improving of marriage-settlements; and the three other figures point out the advantages of life-insurance. The whole has an excellent effect.

Nearly opposite to this is the Post-office, a spacious brick building which is more remarkable for its extent and utility than for its elegance. It stands behind the houses, in Lombard-street, from which there is a passage, under an arched gateway, leading into a small paved court; there are also passages into Abchurch-lane and Sherbourne-lane. It was originally the residence of sir Robert Vyner, lord mayor in 1675, who built it on the site of a much-frequented tavern which was burnt in the great fire; a great part of it was rebuilt, with considerable improvements, in 1804; but at present there is an intention to erect a new one, upon a very grand scale, on the north-east side of Newgate-street.

The original establishment of the post-office in England is buried in obscurity. It is certain, that a species of post, though of what nature cannot be ascertained, was in existence as early as the reign of Edward III. The earliest mention of a chief post-master for England is in Camden's Annals, under the date of 1531; but what his office was, or how it was managed, does not appear clearly; and, probably, from the limited state of the correspondence of the country, it was of trifling consequence. James I. erected the first post-office for the conveyance of letters to and from foreign parts, which he placed under the controul of one Matthew de Queffer, or de l'Equester. This office was afterwards claimed by lord Stanhope; but, in 1632; was confirmed and continued to William Frizel and Thomas Witherings by king Charles I. It would appear, that, previous to this time, private persons were accustomed to convey letters to and from foreign parts; but now all such interference with the postmaster's office was expressly prohibited; and, in 1635, all private inland posts were forbidden. But the importance of this branch of the public revenue does not seem to have been much attended to by the government before the time of Cromwell; the posts being confined to a few of the principal roads. The outline of the more regular and extensive plan, which was afterwards adopted, originated with Mr. Edmund Prideaux, attorney-general to the commonwealth, who was appointed postmaster by an ordinance of both houses of parliament; in the execution of which office, he first established a *weekly* conveyance of letters into all parts of the nation. In 1653, this revenue was farmed for ten thousand pounds; and, after deducting the charges of postmasters, &c. produced a benefit of seven thousand pounds per annum to the public. At this period, the common-council of London endeavoured to set up a post-office, in opposition to Prideaux's; but they were checked by a resolution of the house of commons, declaring the office of postmaster to be in the sole power and disposal of the parliament. In 1656, a new and regular general post-office was erected by the authority of the protector and his parliament, upon nearly the same plan as has been continued ever since; and by an act of parliament, passed soon after the restoration in 1660, the wise regulations of 1656 were re-established, with some improvements, which continued, with very little alteration, until the year 1784, when a mode of conveying the mails, upon a plan suggested by Mr. John Palmer, of Bath, was carried into execution. Before the adoption of this plan, letters were conveyed in carts, or by boys on horseback, without protection from robbers, and liable to delays. Mr. Palmer's proposal was, to contract with the owners of the diligences and stage-coaches, which were established to every town of note in the kingdom, to carry the mails, with guards for their protection. This they were induced to do at a



very low rate, from the additional recommendation to passengers their carriages would thereby acquire, in point of security, regularity, and dispatch; and, notwithstanding the strong opposition to the measure in its outset, experience has shown, that this combination of interests has been alike beneficial to the revenue, the correspondent, the passenger, and the coach-malter.

Here is also the principal office of the Two-penny (originally the Penny) Post, for the speedy conveyance of letters and small parcels, not exceeding four ounces in weight, within the metropolis, and a distance of ten miles round it. Letters delivered out of town are charged threepence. See p. 92.—The present establishment of the post-office consists of two postmasters-general, a secretary, surveyor, comptroller-general, and a great number of clerks and assistants. There are fifty receiving-houses for general-post letters, and upwards of one hundred and fifty for twopenny-post letters, in different parts of the metropolis.

Adjoining to the post-office stands the parish-church of St. Mary Woolnoth. *Not* is corrupted from *neath*, signifying "near." The Woolstaple was the place for weighing wool, and stood in the church-yard of St. Mary Woolchurch Haw, to the east of Stocks Market. This church is of some antiquity, as appears from John de Norton being rector thereof in the year 1355; and, from various circumstances, it is supposed that a Roman temple, perhaps the Temple of Concord, stood originally on this spot; for, in digging the foundation for the present edifice, which is one of the fifty new churches appointed by parliament to be erected within the bills of mortality, in the year 1719, there were found a considerable number of tusks and bones of boars and goats, with several medals and pieces of metal, some tessellated work, part of an aqueduct, and a great variety of Roman earthen vessels, both for sacred and profane uses; and at the bottom was found a well, full of dirt, which being removed, a fine spring of salubrious water arose, wherein was fixed a pump. The old church was not entirely destroyed by the fire of London; the steeple escaped the flames, and the walls were repaired. But these, in length of time, falling greatly to decay, it was thought necessary to pull down the whole; in consequence of which, it was rebuilt of stone, in the year 1719. It is a very handsome structure; but the ornaments are concealed by the neighbouring buildings; and the front, which is bold and majestic, is so obscured, that it cannot be seen to advantage, nor can the tower be properly viewed, but from the tops of the opposite houses. On the north side, which fronts Lombard-street, instead of windows, there are three very large and lofty niches, adorned with Ionic columns, and surrounded with a bold rustic; and over these is a large cornice, upon which is placed a balustrade. The entrance is at the west end, by a lofty rustic arch, over which rises a broad shallow tower, ornamented with six composite columns in the front, and two on the sides; upon this are raised two small towers in front crowned with balustrades; from one end of which rises a flag-staff, with a vane. It is not easy to describe this entrance; for there is a sort of porch, or portico, before the main door, accessible only by the sides, with steps, the front arch being shut by an iron railing. It is a pity that such an immense work of curious architecture should be so concealed; the lane at the spot before the church being hardly ten feet broad. Under the church are immense vaults, a sort of crypt, part of which is already filled with coffins piled one above another like goods in a warehouse. When a division of this catacomb is quite full, a wall is raised, and the remains of mortality are there confined to moulder away in silence and unseen. The funeral service is performed in this vault, the coffin being placed upon tressels; and, when the ceremony is over, it is hoisted up upon the others, there to remain till the column or pile of mortality is complete, and then another enclosure is made. We cannot help observing that there is something indecorous in this manner of treating the last remains of human existence; and that it would be

much better to have the coffins placed in dark cells, instead of being exposed to light in these rooms, which have windows upon the lane.—This church is a rectory, the patronage of which was anciently in the priors and convent of St. Helen's in Bishopsgate-street, till, at the dissolution, it fell to the crown; when Henry VIII. granted it to sir Martin Bowes, in whose family the patronage has ever since continued. The living of this church was greatly improved by the parish of St. Mary Woolchurch Haw being annexed to it, the patronage of which is in the crown; and, from the time St. Mary Woolnoth was erected, it has been the parochial church for both parishes.

Returning towards St. Paul's, we now enter Cheap-ward; which took its name from the Saxon, *chepe*, a *market*, or *sale*, on account of a market having been anciently there. When Stocks Market was the principal in the city, the east end of Cheapside was inhabited by poulterers, from whence it received the appellation of the *Poultry*, which it still retains. Almost opposite to that market, on the course of the Wall-brook, anciently stood a slaughter-house for the killing of beasts and scalding of swine: whence it was called the *scalding-house*; but this, with all the other slaughter-houses in the city, being put down by act of parliament, the site of it was occupied by a range of buildings which retained the name of Scalding-alley for many years. It is now called St. Mildred's Court, on the west side of which is situated the parish-church of St. Mildred, Poultry.

Stow, in his curious style, pretends that the name of this, as well as of other saints, was not given out of superstition, but merely for distinction-sake; "for so was the custom of the kingdom (and yet is), in building these things for the service of God, that the founders call them by the name of some apostle, saint, martyr, or confessor, as best liked their own conceit at the present time, to distinguish them from others."—In this we do not agree with the ingenious historian. We must state fairly, that what is called now superstition, was mere religious motive, according to the belief in full force before the reformation. The church, that is, the edifice itself, and the parishioners, were placed under the invocation and special guard and protection of the saint whose name it bore; and it was piously supposed, that the preservation of that church, and the prayers offered in it, were entrusted to the said patron, who would intercede at the throne of the Almighty for the welfare of his wards. What, after this, the imagination of devout and pious people may have wrought, may be called superstition; but such was the true origin of the dedication of churches.—The same chronicler says: "Who this *Mildred* was, whether she was the eldest daughter of *Merwaldus* king of the West-Mercians, as some think, or that she was daughter of Ethelbert king of Kent, one of the founders of Paul's church, I find no record to specify; neither is it much material; but it is probable that she was some holy and devout maide, which the people of that age held to be a saint afterwards in heaven."—This church is a rectory; and appears to be of ancient foundation, for John de Asswel was collated to it in the year 1325; and in the 18th of Edward III. we find it with the chapel of Corpus Christi and St. Mary de Coneyhope annexed, which chapel stood at the end of Coneyhope-lane, or the rabbit-market, now called Grocers' Alley; but, being suppressed by Henry VIII. on account of a fraternity founded therein, it was purchased by one Thomas Hobson, a haberdasher, who turned the chapel into a warehouse. The old church, which had been rebuilt in 1450, was burnt down in 1666, after which the present structure was erected, and the parish of St. Mary Colechurch united to it. It is a plain substantial stone building, enlightened by a series of large windows, and strengthened with rustic at the corners. The tower is crowned with a plain course, without pinnacles, turrets, or any other ornament. The clock, which used to project nearly half-way over the street, has been placed against the wall, and no longer impedes or obstructs the interesting view which we have described above. The length of the fabric is sixty-six feet, the breadth forty-two,



the height of the roof thirty-six feet, and that of the tower seventy-five feet. Within it is well paved, has a handsome pulpit, an organ-loft, and a gallery. The attendance at this church is not very numerous, since most of the parishioners pass their Sundays out of town; and we are told that the clergyman sometimes reads the service to the sexton, the pew-opener, the organist and his man, without any other congregation.

St. Mary Colechurch stood at the south-west corner of the Old Jewry. The distinctive appellation of *Cole* originated from no saint, but from the name of the architect. It is reported that Thomas Becket, archbishop of Canterbury in 1162, was baptized in that church; it was a curacy in the gift of the company of mercers; it was destroyed by the fire with all the others in the neighbourhood, and never rebuilt.

Between this spot and St. Mildred's, is a gloomy opening, through which the eye is led to iron grates and other ominous objects. Here is the *Poultry Compter*, so called, it is said, as well as the prison in Giltspur-street, on account of the people confined there being obliged to *account* for the cause of their commitment before they are discharged. But this is an erroneous idea: the name originates from these having been at the beginning nothing else but common lock-up houses, where debtors, previous to their being fully committed, were detained in order to give them time to see their creditors, and settle the matter of *account* with them. The poorer sort of prisoners in these compters receive some assistance from the sheriffs, who generally go round the respective markets of the city twice a-year, to gather contributions for their support; and there are several benefactions, made by charitable persons, for the relief of those who may happen to be detained for want of being able to discharge the prison-fees.

A little to the west of the Poultry Compter is Grocers' Alley; at the upper or north end of which is Grocers' Hall, situated on a spot of ground purchased by the Grocers' Company, in the year 1411, of Robert Fitz-Walter, for three hundred and twenty marks. It is well designed and executed for the purposes of a common-hall; stately, ornamental, and so capacious, that, for many years, it served for the uses of the Bank of England, which was kept in this hall till there was an office built on purpose in Threadneedle-street. This hall contains a portrait and statue of sir John Cutler, who is said to have built the parlour and dining-room over it. The ancient stone and brick building, at the north-west corner of the garden, inhabited by the beadle of the company, is very probably part of the ancient city-mansion of the noble family of Fitz-Walter, and, consequently, the oldest building within the city-walls.

From Grocers' Alley there is a passage, called Dovecourt, which leads westward into the Old Jewry. This street was originally called The Jewry, from being the residence of the Jews in this city, prior to their banishment by Edward I. but when, on their re-admission into England, they settled near Aldgate, in a place called, from them and their then poverty, Poor Jewry-lane, this, their ancient place of abode, received the appellation of the Old Jewry.

A little farther west, is Mercers' Hall and Chapel.—This building is situated on the spot once occupied by an hospital dedicated to St. Thomas of Acors, or Acons, founded, for a master and brethren of the Augustine order, by Thomas Fitz-Theobald de Heili, and his wife Agnes, sister to Thomas-a-Becket, in the reign of Henry II. On the dissolution of religious houses, in the reign of Henry VIII. this hospital was purchased by the Mercers' Company, who had the gift of the mastership, and was opened by them, immediately, under the name of Mercers' Chapel. They were both destroyed by the fire of London; soon after which the present structure was erected.

It is with great satisfaction that we see this elegant front, which can now boast of some antiquity, thoroughly repaired and beautified at the expense of the worshipful

company to which it belongs. The front next Cheapside is very handsome, and has been designed and executed with care. The principal gate is an arch, at the key-stone of which are the arms of the Mercers' Company, being the head of a woman issuing out of clouds. In the corner are two genii, or winged boys, holding a drapery; and the posts on each side are curiously carved. Above this is a sort of cornice, or architrave, supporting a balcony, with an iron railing elegantly wrought. An arched window in the centre is accompanied by two figures, Faith and Hope, and two pilasters of the Ionic order, supporting also an architrave or cornice with a circular broken pediment, in the centre of which is the third theological virtue, Charity, represented by the figure of a woman with three children, in allusion, most probably, to the eleemosynary trusts of which this company are the patrons, particularly that of Dr. Colet's school, now called St. Paul's school. See p. 412. On each side of the niche, in which the figure of Charity is placed, there are two circular windows surrounded with wreaths. All the accounts of this curious frontispiece hitherto published being very erroneous, we can assure our readers, that the present was written after a sketch carefully taken on the spot.—The inner court is adorned with piazzas formed of columns of the Doric order. The hall-room and great parlour are wainscoted with oak, and ornamented with Ionic pilasters; and the ceiling is beautifully decorated with fret-work. The chapel is neatly wainscoted, and paved with black and white marble. The entrance into this hall, from Ironmonger-lane, is decorated with rustic stone pillars, supporting an arch, on the key-stone of which are the company's arms. The door is pannelled, and the upper compartment, on each side, is also filled with the arms carved in wood.

Farther north, on the same side of Ironmonger-lane, formerly stood the parish-church of St. Martin, Ironmonger-lane, which received its name from being dedicated to one Martin, an Hungarian, who, for strenuously opposing the rising heresy of Arius, was deemed worthy of being canonized.—This church, being destroyed by the fire of London, was not rebuilt; and the parish was annexed to that of St. Olave Jewry.

On the south side of the street runs downwards to the vale of Wallbrook, a short street called Bucklersbury; at the opening of which, at the boundary of Cheapside and the Poultry, formerly stood the great conduit, which was first erected for the reception of water conveyed hither from Paddington by leaden-pipes under ground.—The street received its name from one Buckle, lord of the manor, who resided, and kept his court, in a spacious stone building, called the Old Barge, from such a sign being in front of it. The site of his mansion is now occupied by Barge-yard; to which place, according to tradition, boats and barges came from the Thames, up the Wall-brook, when its navigation was open. Opposite to Barge-yard, on the north side of Bucklersbury, was a royal mansion, denominated Sernes or Sewete's Tower. In 1344, king Edward III. constituted this his exchange, or market-place, for bullion; and, in 1358, he granted it, with all its appurtenances, to the dean and canons of the collegiate church of St. Stephen at Westminster.

Advancing towards the centre of our perambulations, through Cheapside, we find on our right King-street; at the northern extremity of which is GUILDHALL. This building merits attention on many accounts. It is the hall in which all the affairs belonging to the corporation of London are transacted. From its size, it is well adapted for assembling the livery, for the election of members of parliament, the lord-mayor, sheriffs, and other city-officers; and in this hall the corporation give public entertainments to our kings and other great personages.

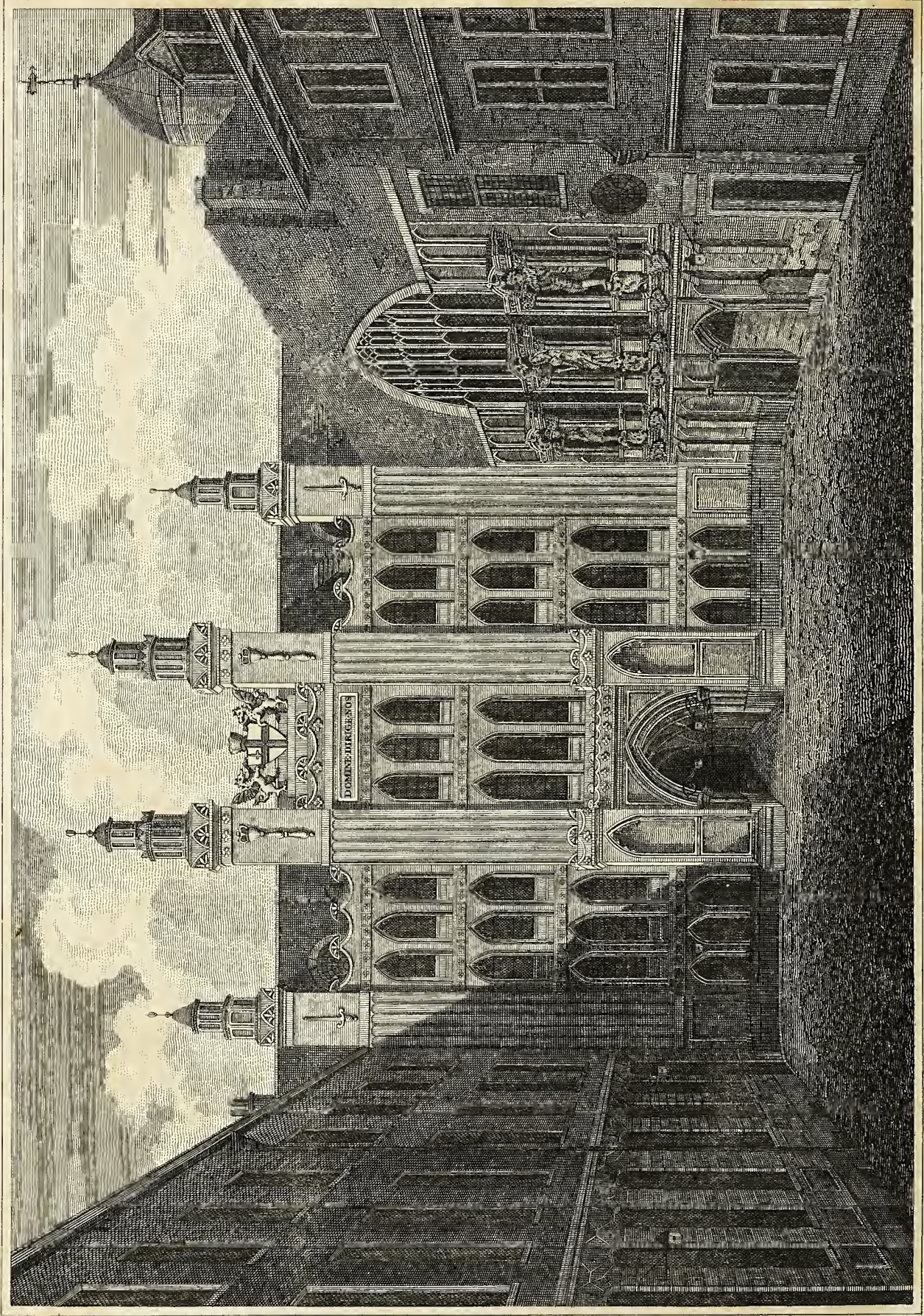
The original Guildhall stood in the street called Aldermanbury from their meeting there, and is supposed to have been built by Edward the Confessor; it being known by that name in the year 1189. Stow remembered its







LONDON.



*Guildhall.*

*Engraving published as the Act Direct, July 27, 1814, by G. Jones.*



ruins, and says, that in his days it was used as a carpenter's yard. The present building was begun in the year 1411, and completed in about ten years; towards defraying the expense of which, contributions were made by most of the city companies, and several sums were received from private benefactors. This old hall was greatly damaged by the fire of London, but was soon after repaired and beautified, at the expense of two thousand five hundred pounds.

The entrance into this building is by a large gate, under a Gothic arch. Over this rises the new front, erected in the year 1789; which consists of four fluted pilasters, between which are Gothic windows. In the space above the great door, there are two series of windows, above which is the city motto, *DOMINE DIRIGE NOS*; and the top of the building is crowned with the city-arms and supporters.—We ought to observe here, that these fabulous animals, well-known in the works of ancient poets, were supposed to be the tutelary genii of fresh-water-springs in the bosom of dark forests and enchanted rocks; but they were also the guardians of the golden apples of the Hesperides, of the golden fleece of Colchis, and in several parts of the world set as trustees to the carbuncles and other precious stones hidden at the bottom of wells and fountains. They have long been supporters to the arms of the city, as if to guard the wealth which commerce brings here from all parts of the world.—In the side compartments are four ranges of windows; and the top is terminated by reversed arches. The pilasters are higher than the other parts of the front, and are crowned with turrets, in two stages; the two centre ones are decorated with the mace, and the other two with the city sword. See the annexed engraving.—The hall is one hundred and fifty-three feet long, forty-eight broad, and fifty-five high. The roof is flat, and divided into pannels; and the sides are adorned with demi-pillars.

On the north side of the hall, nearly opposite to the entrance, is a flight of steps, leading to the respective courts and offices. On each side the steps is a small inclosure, used occasionally as offices for clerks to write in. Beneath each of these is a prison, called Little Ease, from the ceiling being so low that a confined person cannot stand upright; this is a place of punishment for disobedient apprentices, who may be committed there, at the discretion of the chamberlain. Over the steps is a balcony, supported by twelve iron pillars, in the form of palm-trees. In the front of the balcony is a clock, on the frame of which are carved the four cardinal virtues, with the figure of time on the top, and a cock on each side of him. But the most singular ornaments of this balcony are two gigantic images, which stand one on each side of it. These enormous figures are in the Roman warlike dress, and have laurel crowns on their heads. The one on the right leans on a small shield, on which is emblazoned a black eagle on a field or; and bears a long weapon, the lang-bard of the Germans, used in guarding the halls of the great in ancient times; from which the French *hallebarde*, as well as our *halbert*, took its origin. Its shape still exists in the weapon borne by the king's guards, called beef-eaters, or *butchers*. The weapon, and the arms on the shield, denote this to be intended to represent a Saxon. The other, which represents an ancient Briton, has a sword by his side, and a bow and quiver on his back. In his right hand, he holds a long pole, with a ball stuck full of spikes suspended from its top; a weapon which had been in use among our ancestors. The origin and signification of these colossal figures has given rise to many ingenious conjectures, the most reasonable of which appears to be that which considers them as types of municipal power; such statues being found in the halls of judgment in many parts of Germany, where they are called *Weichbilds*, and are set up as symbolic of the privileges of the town, and protectors of its freedom and laws; *wich* signifying a town, and *bild* a secure or privileged place. The Roman costume in which they are

bited is not easily accounted for; perhaps it was adopted by the sculptor, to show that London was a city adorned and enlarged by the Romans, and a Roman colony.—The inside gate is admired as a specimen of the purest Roman architecture; and its ogee-branches are carved with a boldness not to be surpassed.

Round the hall are fourteen demi-pillars, of the clustered Gothic kind, on the capitals of which are the royal arms, the arms of London, and those of the twelve principal city-companies. In the intercolumniations, and at the west end of the hall, are portraits of the judges who so particularly distinguished themselves in determining the differences between landlords and tenants after the fire of London, without the expense of law-suits. To these was afterwards added that of lord Camden, who, when chief justice of the court of common-pleas, obtained this mark of esteem from the city by his decision against the legality of general warrants. At the east end of the hall is the court of hustings, above which are the city arms, and portraits of their present majesties, kings George II. and I. and William III. and queens Caroline, Anne, and Mary; in the order here described, beginning at the centre.

Close to the hustings, on the north side of the hall, is the monument erected to the memory of the late earl of Chatham; which consists of a grand group of complete statues in alto relievo, designed to convey the idea of the national prosperity under the auspices of that celebrated statesman. To this end, lord Chatham is represented as the pilot of the state, resting on a rudder, with his right arm supporting Commerce, who sits by his side, attended by the four quarters of the globe, in the act of pouring the contents of a capacious cornucopia into the lap of Britannia, who is seated upon her lion. Before lord Chatham stands a female figure, representing the City of London, crowned with turrets; her right hand resting upon a shield with the city-arms thereon, and her left arm extended towards Commerce; her whole attitude seeming to bespeak that protection which the position of his arm shows him already inclined to afford her. Various emblems are introduced with great propriety in different parts of the work; such as a mariner's compass and a top-mast in the hands of Commerce, and at her feet a sail furled to the yard and an anchor. Below London is a bee-hive, symbolical of industry; and behind her shield are the insignia of the city.

On the other side of the steps is the monument erected to the memory of lord Nelson, according to a vote of the corporation, and at the expense of the city. See p. 133.

At the west end of the hall is the Sheriffs' Court; above which is a white marble statue of alderman Beckford, who died in the year 1770, during his second mayoralty. He is represented as large as life, dressed in his robes, and standing in the attitude he appeared when he made a reply to the king on his majesty's answer to the city-remonstrance, May 23, 1770. The likeness is so strong, and the attitude in which he stands so natural on such an occasion, that little more than sound is wanting to realize the representation. On each side of him is a figure sitting in a languishing posture: that on the right hand represents the City of London; and that on the left, Commerce. The head of Commerce is adorned with a crown; her right arm, which holds a cornucopia, almost empty, rests on a mariner's compass, and her left arm supports an anchor. The City of London is distinguished by resting her right arm, which supports her head, on an escutcheon containing the city-arms; in her left hand is the city-sword inverted; on her head is the cap of maintenance; and by her lies the city-mace. Beneath the statue is a large tablet of black polished marble, on which are written the words spoken by Mr. Beckford to the king on the memorable occasion alluded to. For a correct copy of this address, see the article BECKFORD, vol. ii. p. 243.

Opposite to the monument of the great lord Chatham, as—



it has been long fashionable to call him, rises with elegance and majesty that of his son the Right Honourable William Pitt, prime minister of this country for a long lapse of years; and whose system of politics, much blamed in his life-time, seems yet, by having been persevered in, to have ultimately brought about the extraordinary and fortunate changes which we have lately witnessed, and at which the whole continent seems to revive and rejoice. Mr. Pitt is represented in the costume of Chancellor of the Exchequer, and in the attitude of speaking. He stands upon a rock apparently emerging from the ocean, and intended to represent, allusively, the island of Great Britain. On his right we perceive a handsome figure of Apollo, the god who in mythological lore presides over the high sciences, and shines upon common minds with all the genuine warmth of his transcendent rays. The anatomical part of the figure is, we think, faultless; and, by throwing a mantle upon the inferior parts of the god, the artist has happily alluded to that purity of manners and chastity of conduct, which, besides his other good qualities, distinguished Mr. Pitt during the whole course of his life, a praise fully bestowed upon him by all his most strenuous political opponents, for enemies he had none. The god of eloquence is most appropriately placed on the other side, with his distinguishing attributes. Mercury, according to the fable, united to the faculty of elocution the profound knowledge of traffic; and, in both points of view, he is properly placed on the monument of one of the most profound *financiers* England ever produced. Though rather heavy, the figure has some of the *gusto* of the antique, and stands well there; were it not for its reminding us how much, whilst trade was flourishing, the private purses of individuals were pressed and squeezed by this favourite of the son of Maia.—Thus far, we have a good pyramidal group: but our Phidias wanted height: and he had nearly fulfilled his scheme, when, by a sudden but not very original stroke of genius, he eked out Britannia on a sea-horse, and placed them forward, nearly in the same way as Neptune is on the monument of Nelson. This figure is however well set, full of animation, and ready to hurl the thunderbolt against the enemies of Great Britain; and, indeed, the naval victories which have entwined the laurel with the civic oak of Pitt's administration will never be recollected without being connected with the remembrance of the name which his admirers have bestowed on him, "the Pilot who weathered the storm." Riding the submissive waves which the rules, Britannia seems to bear in her features the grand character of the whole nation: *Parcere subjectis et debellare superbis*; "To spare the vanquish'd, and subdue the proud."—This monument (like Nelson's) is spoiled by the long Cornelius-Nepos-like history of the man above, in a sort of would-be epitaph, which is as far from the concise nicety of the lapidary-style as Pamela is from a song of Anacreon Moore, or a page of biography from Piron's epitaph. Mr. Canning is the writer; and it would do him great honour any-where else.—The bare name of the man would have been enough for those who knew the history of these times; and the inscription is not the hundredth part of what those who did not know him ought to be told.—The sculptor's name is written on one side of the monument; and we think he will be gratified by our remarks, which, though somewhat exhilarated with the wholesome acid of well-motived severity, will still show that we have not been without feelings of approbation, and even of admiration, when we stood for the first time before his performance.

A place remains vacant, facing the monument of lord Nelson. Now that peace has stilled the din of war, that the sword is sheathed, and the prow of the navy is safely anchored at the shore; we may expect some great civic character to fill up the vacuum—some mighty lord-mayor, who may stem the torrent of encroachment on the ancient rights of the city; or some devoted patriot, who will, by galling speeches, teasing addresses, and other city-rockets, force the reluctant minister to put an end to the fiend called the in-

come tax.—We have noticed, however, that a statue was placed in the Royal Exchange to a living worthy, sir John Barnard; now, should such an idea again enter the minds of our patriotic citizens, it would not long be a question to whose honour a statue should be placed opposite to NELSON—we doubt not but every voice would cry out WELLINGTON!

We now face about, and ascend the steps. We presently come to the chamberlain's office, which lies to the right. In this place apprentices are bound, enrolled, and made free of the city. Here complaints between masters and their apprentices are heard and determined by the chamberlain in person; and in an inner room are preserved the duplicates of the diplomas presented by the city to those who have deserved the freedom of the first city in the world. They are most of them beautifully written by the famous calligrapher of our age, Mr. Tomkins, of Sermon-lane; and decorated by the ingenious fancy and elegant pencil of the late Mr. Sharpe, and of his son Mr. T. Sharpe, of Bennet's hill, herald-painters. They are the best specimen of this sort of enluminures; and, for beauty of colouring, nicety of touch, and versatility of invention, cannot be exceeded. The chamberlain's office is also decorated with proof prints of Hogarth's Idle and Industrious Apprentices, and some other engravings.

Fronting the steps is the lord-mayor's court, in which the petty sessions for the city, and the sittings of the court of King's Bench, are held. This room is adorned with paintings of the four cardinal virtues. On the left hand is the court of Common Pleas, over the entrance into which is a painting of the Relief of Gibraltar by Lord Howe. The court of Exchequer sits up stairs. The different apartments in this part of the hall are used occasionally by the commissioners of bankrupts. At the back of the hall is a very elegant room for the lord-mayor, aldermen, and common-council, to hold their courts in. In this chamber is a capital collection of paintings, presented to the city of London by the late alderman Boydell, among which are Mr. Copley's celebrated picture of the Siege of Gibraltar, the Death of Lord Chatham, and several allegorical paintings by the late academician Mr. Rigaud and others.

When we think of lord-mayor's day and the great doings going on there on the 9th of November, we naturally seek for the kitchen, the most essential requisite of festivity. We find it adjoining to the north-west part of the hall. It was erected by sir John Shaw, who, for the first time, gave the mayor's feast here in the year 1500; these had been formerly given at Grocers' Hall. But certainly not since that time, nor perhaps since the days of Edward III. of chivalrous and glorious memory, has this hall ever witnessed such an entertainment as was given by the corporation to the imperial and royal visitors who graced the city with their presence on the 18th of last month, (June 1814.) Since those victorious times, whether we consider the dignity of the guests, or the extraordinary circumstances which caused and attended their presence in this metropolis, the hall never resounded with more welcome shouts of heart-felt rejoicing, or blazed with a greater and more merited glory.—Long will the city boast of the honour she received from, as well as of the splendid testimonies of respectful admiration she has shown to, the monarchs and other princes, entertained at the lord-mayor's board. The hands of these illustrious foreigners were not reeking with human blood; neither came they, like the kings of Scotland and France, as prisoners in this country; but, after having wiped with the olive-branch at Paris the unavoidable spots which the general foe had forced upon them, they of their own choice alighted here, like angels of peace after having performed the orders of the Almighty. They were met by the first magistrate of the first city in the world, as the Father of the Faithful was received by the monarch of Peace, the king of Salem—but, instead of the spoils of conquered nations carried in triumph before them, they



they were preceded by the palm of perseverance, the laurel of victory, and the long-wished-for dawn of a solid peace glowing over their crowns. Oh! that the paternal heart of our venerable and beloved monarch George III. could have felt, and his eyes surveyed, the glorious scene! then the enjoyment would have been complete, and the cup of pleasure filled up to the brim. But Providence had ordained that a melancholy drawback should be laid upon the sum of our present happiness, to impress us with the awful thought that no sublunary pleasure is without an alloy of pain.

At p. 395. we expressed our expectation of a visit from the whole of the royal personages who were then at Paris, witnessing the completion of their glorious work by the restoration of the family of the Bourbons in the person of Louis XVIII. The emperor of Austria, however, thought fit to return to his own dominions; but, on the afternoon of Monday, the 6th of June, the emperor Alexander, and Frederic-William king of Prussia, landed at Dover, having been conveyed thither from Boulogne in the Impregnable man-of-war, commanded by the duke of Clarence, as admiral of the fleet. Having slept that night at Dover, the imperial and royal strangers entered London, in a private manner, on the afternoon of the 7th; the emperor lodging at the Pulteney Hotel, Piccadilly, previously occupied by his sister the duchess of Oldenburgh; (see p. 386.) and the king of Prussia, in apartments prepared for him in the Stable-yard, St. James's. On the following morning, the 8th, the emperor visited Kensington Gardens, Westminster Abbey and Hall, the British Museum, &c. and in the afternoon was presented, as was the king of Prussia, to her majesty, in full court, at the queen's palace, and splendidly entertained by the regent. On Thursday the 9th, the party visited St. Paul's, and the London Docks. In the afternoon, the emperor and the king were declared elected knights of the Garter, at Carlton-house; and the absent emperor of Austria was likewise declared elected a companion of the same order. On Friday the 10th, both sovereigns, with their suite, proceeded, by way of Richmond and Hampton Court, to Ascot races, and afterwards dined with her majesty at Frogmore. On Saturday the 11th, Alexander paid a visit to the Bank; and, in the afternoon, gave audience to lords Erskine, Grenville, Grey, Holland, and other distinguished statesmen: after which, both he and Frederic-William received addresses of congratulation from the lord-mayor and the whole corporation of London. In the evening, both parties appeared at the opera-house. On Sunday the 11th, the king of Prussia, with his family and suite, attended divine service in Westminster-abbey; as did Alexander at the chapel of his ambassador in Welbeck-street. Both sovereigns afterwards rode for a considerable time in Hyde Park, amidst at least 150,000 people. Monday the 18th was set apart for an excursion down the river to visit the dock-yard and arsenal at Woolwich, Greenwich, &c. Tuesday the 14th and Wednesday the 15th, were employed in an excursion to Oxford, Blenheim, Stowe, &c. On Thursday the 16th, the sovereigns were present in St. Paul's, at the annual assembly of 8000 charity-children of the metropolis; and, in the evening, they visited Drury-lane Theatre. On Friday the 17th, they were entertained with great magnificence by the city-merchants at Merchant-Tailors' hall; and the following day, Saturday the 18th, was fixed for the grand city-entertainment which is the occasion of this digression.

The prince-regent, to give a proper effect to the entertainment of the corporation of London, determined on going in state, with the full splendour of his court, precisely in the manner of the first visit of a king to the city after his coronation. Official orders were accordingly issued to all the attendants to be in readiness at St. James's palace, to attend his royal highness. At three o'clock his R. H. went in a private carriage from Carlton-house to St. James's, and entered by the garden from St. James's Park by the temporary entrance to the little drawing-room

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from the king's levee-room, where he was received, by his state page. His R. H. was dressed in full military uniform, wearing the English, Russian, Prussian, and French, orders. At four o'clock, the king of Prussia having arrived at the palace from Clarence-house, the royal procession began to move through the state-rooms in the same grand order as when the sovereign goes in state to the chapel-royal on Easter Sunday, except the serjeants at arms.

The line of streets from Carlton-house to Guildhall was thronged at an early hour. The shops, the windows, and roofs of the houses, were filled with spectators. Single seats were engaged at from five shillings to a guinea per head; and windows in particular situations, were disposed of so high as from twenty to thirty guineas each.

About three o'clock the streets east of Temple Bar were lined on both sides with nearly 3000 troops—regulars, militia, and volunteers, aided by detachments of cavalry. Soon after four, the cavalcade departed from Carlton-house in the following order:

The Seventh Hussars.

Seven of the Prince Regent's Carriages, in which were the Officers of his Household and Foreign Officers of distinction.

The State Carriages of the Prince of Orange, Dukes of Cambridge, Kent, and Gloucester, each drawn by six horses. These illustrious individuals were accompanied by several of the Foreign Princes.

The State Carriage of the Duke of York, who was accompanied by two Princes of Prussia.

Speaker of the House of Commons in his State Carriage. Between each of these Carriages were sections of the Oxford Blues.

Then came the Carriages of his Majesty's Ministers, including those of the Earl of Liverpool, Lord Sidmouth, Lord Melville, Earl Bathurst, Duke of Montrose, Mr. Vansittart, &c. &c. These were followed by two troops of the Horse Guards, in new uniforms.

Guards.

Carriage and Six Black Horses, occupied by the Regent's Officers of State.

Six or seven Royal Carriages, with the Suite of the King of Prussia, Foreign Noblemen, Officers, &c.

A Detachment of Hussar Cavalry. Officers of the Yeomen.

One Hundred Yeomen of the Guard, in their Ancient Costume, with Halberts on the left shoulder.

Officers of the Herald's College.

Kings of Arms.

Heralds in their Tabards.

The PRINCE REGENT, in the State Carriage, drawn by eight beautiful cream-coloured horses, with scarlet-ribbons, &c.

The King of Prussia sat on the right of the Prince.

Guards.

A vast number of other carriages containing Foreigners of Distinction, the Marquis of Wellesley, Lord and Lady Castlereagh, Prince de Wagram (Blucher), Count Plاتف, Lords Hill, Beresford, Combermere, and a long suite of persons of distinction.

A strong detachment of the Greys closed this cavalcade.

A little before five, the Prince was followed by the Emperor in the following order:

Horse Guards.

The Prince Regent's State Chariot and six white Hanoverian horses, decorated with blue ribbands.—The EMPEROR OF RUSSIA, dressed in scarlet and gold, occupied the same, with his Illustrious Sister the Grand Duchess of Oldenburgh.—His Majesty was cheered in the loudest manner by the spectators, which he returned by bowing uncovered.

Guards.

A Royal Carriage with two Russian Princesses, and many private carriages.—The 9th Regiment of Cavalry, and the Scotch Greys, brought up the rear.

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The Lord Mayor, Sheriffs, Aldermen, and City Officers, had previously arrived at Temple Bar in their state-carriages. On the approach of the procession, they mounted horses, which were decorated for the occasion with crimson ribbons. The first part of the cavalcade having advanced, the carriage of the Prince Regent drew up, when the Lord Mayor, Aldermen, and Sheriffs, advanced, and, after offering the keys of the city, they took the lead of his Royal Highness's carriage in the following order:

Sheriff's Officers, City Marshal, and Lord Mayor's Footmen.  
Band of the London Militia, playing God save the King.  
Sixteen Aldermen in their robes, bare-headed.  
The Town Crier, bearing the City Mace; and the Sword Bearer.

**THE LORD MAYOR**, bare-headed, carrying the Sword of State. He was dressed in a rich velvet robe; and was followed immediately by the carriage of the Prince Regent.

In this order the procession proceeded to Guildhall, cheered as they went by the spectators in the houses and streets.

Upon approaching Guildhall, the first object of notice was a temporary passage which had been erected from the principal seat of the hall, half-way across Guildhall-yard. This passage was lined with green cloth, and the flooring covered with matting; it was illumined by a profusion of lamps, and led to the porch of the hall, which was also lined with green cloth, and converted into a temporary arbour, in which was displayed the most costly flowering shrubs and evergreens arranged upon shelves and ornamented with moss. This arbour extended into the hall; and, being illumined with variegated lamps, had the most enchanting effect. Thus conducted into the hall, a scene of dazzling splendour burst upon the sight.

The manner in which Guildhall was fitted up for the occasion does infinite honour to the science of Mr. Dance. Let no gibe or reflection be hereafter thrown on city-taste; for this entertainment presented a model of the most perfect research, and such as no palace at the west end of the town, and no city in the universe, could equal in magnificence, chastity, and taste. The grand Gothic hall, with its two superbly-painted windows, suggested to the classical mind of the architect the appropriate decorations of the interior; and within the short space of eight days he produced what may truly be denominated a magical effect. The simplicity of the design, the magnitude of the parts, and above all the harmony of the colour, diffused a lustre over the whole upon which the eye reposed with the most satisfied delight, and with which the most cultivated eye was the most delighted. Here was no frippery, no patches, no broken nor disjointed parts; but the combination had an unity, a character of strength, a breadth and tone, the most attractive. Mr. Dance had, by an external erection, contrived to illumine the painted windows, so as to throw into the hall the rich and warm influence of the immense body of light with which all the Gothic divisions of the two windows were articulated, and which, striking on the brilliant circle of ladies in the galleries beneath, spread a glow on their faces, whilst their head-dresses sparkled with diamonds, producing an effect which no painter from Titian to the present day, and which no art, could possibly equal. The animation and brilliancy of the scene was unequalled by any thing we ever saw in any country; and lord Wellesley said it surpassed whatever he had seen of eastern magnificence.

The walls were covered with bright crimson cloth; but the two monuments of the earl of Chatham and Mr. Pitt, were, with great judgment, left uncovered. Magnificent chandeliers of cut glass (there not being time to prepare them in the antique form) were suspended from the roof; and there was a blaze of gold and silver candelabras, with wax lights on all the tables.

Arched galleries about nine feet in depth, were erected on the north and south sides, and west end, of the hall, at about fourteen feet from the floor; they were supported

by a series of arches, all ornamented with rich and tasteful draperies of crimson cloth. These galleries, which were reserved solely for the accommodation of the ladies, were subdivided into different compartments allotted to the several wards; so that the ladies of each district were placed together. The old clock and gallery, which stood in front of those celebrated images Gog and Magog, were removed, and in their room a gallery for musicians erected, which was in a more elevated situation than the other galleries; while at those ends of the galleries nearest the west end of the hall were formed small boxes for the vocal performers—Messrs. Bellamy, Taylor, Goss, Vaughan, Leete, &c.

From these objects the eye was naturally turned to the place apportioned to the allied sovereigns; and here a scene of brilliancy and magnificence was exhibited which excited the strongest feelings of astonishment and admiration. On a platform at the east end, elevated about two feet from the other part of the floor, was placed a canopy of matchless elegance, sufficiently capacious to cover the three chairs of the Prince Regent, the Emperor of Russia, and the King of Prussia. The top of this canopy was formed by a dome, covered with crimson velvet, and intersected with golden ropes; the summit of this dome was surmounted with a crown of gold, and the base formed of a cornice, carved and gilt in a style of great richness and taste. From this hung festoons and drapery of crimson velvet, trimmed with broad gold lace. The chairs destined for the three sovereigns were all alike; the seats were covered with velvet, and the backs and feet gilt in the most costly manner. On each side of these chairs were placed other chairs, fronting the hall, of which a full view was thus afforded. The table placed on this platform was calculated to accommodate twenty-five persons, all of whom were of royal blood. The decorations of this table were brilliant and appropriate. They consisted of a series of triumphal arches, bearing small banners, on which were painted the Russian, Prussian, and Austrian, eagles, the British standard, and a variety of devices applicable to the circumstances which led to the feast;—an immense profusion of plate, gold and silver, and every other requisite which was necessary to complete the whole in a princely grandeur. The platform itself was ascended by three steps, and was covered with a Turkey carpet. The remaining part of the hall was occupied by tables, which extended from the platform to the west end of the hall, an extensive division having been left open so as to form an avenue from the entrance to the steps leading to the Court of King's Bench. These tables were three in number, and were, like the prince's table, ornamented with great splendour—triumphal pillars and arches succeeding each other to the end. At the tables next the platform were placed the distinguished visitors who had been invited to the feast, while at those situated at the other end of the hall sat the principal members of the corporation. The common council were placed in the recesses which were formed by the arches supporting the galleries; and, although separated from the main tables, the arrangement for their entertainment were in unison with the magnificence displayed in every other part of the hall.

The royal personages began to arrive about five o'clock. They were severally announced as they entered; and were conducted through the hall with shouts of welcome and with appropriate music: our own princes of the blood royal with the national air of "God save the king;" the illustrious warriors with the air of "See the conquering hero comes." Of the sovereigns, the King of Prussia and his sons came first, the Prince Regent next, and last the Emperor, with the Archduchess under his arm. The other illustrious persons, princes, ambassadors, marshals, ministers, peers, judges, &c. &c. continued to arrive in quick succession; and were all received with the most cordial shouts of applause. They passed on to the Common-council and King's-Bench chambers, which were richly



fitted up as drawing-rooms for the occasion. The prince-regent and the two sovereigns, with their illustrious attendants, were conducted to the upper end of the Council-chamber, where state chairs, on a platform, were placed. The lady-mayorefs received the archduchefs and the ladies, as they entered the room. When the Prince Regent was seated, the Lord Mayor, having laid aside his velvet robes, and dressed in his embroidered robes, advanced with the Aldermen and Recorder, and made their obeisance. Then Mr. Recorder, in a short and eloquent address, begged leave to express to his R. H. the gratitude with which they welcomed him and the illustrious sovereigns, his visitors, into their hall; to felicitate themselves, in common with all his loyal subjects, on the glorious events which had procured them the high honour of this visit, an event which the energies and zeal of his affectionate citizens and subjects, co-operating with the wisdom and vigour of his counsels, and the spirit and valour of his allies, had so gloriously brought about, by forcing back peace to Europe. He trusted, that his R. H. and his illustrious visitors would accept of their humble endeavours to entertain them, with indulgence for any defect which might appear, and which, not the want of anxiety or of will, but the want of time or ability alone, might account for. His royal highness was pleased to make a gracious reply; and then, addressing himself to the lord-mayor, he said, "It has been always the custom, when the sovereign paid a visit to his faithful city of London, to confer a mark of favour on its chief magistrate. At no period could this be more properly done than on an occasion so advantageous to the country as the present; when the return of peace, so long desired, and which was the sole object of all our efforts, had been so gloriously achieved by the valour of his majesty's arms, in conjunction with that of his illustrious allies; nor could it be conferred on a person more truly worthy of it, by every public and private virtue, than his lordship; and he had great satisfaction in conferring a signal mark of the royal favour upon him." His R. H. then conferred on the lord-mayor the honour of a baronetcy, who kissed his hand. It was afterwards understood, that his R. H. had also signified to Mr. Recorder, that he should, at no distant time, confer the same honour on him, for his long and faithful services, as the first law-officer of the city.

At seven o'clock dinner was announced to be served, and the royal and illustrious company passed from the drawing-rooms into the hall, in procession, to the sound of music, the bands playing, "O the roast beef of Old England." The city-officers, the aldermen, the lord-mayor carrying the city-sword, preceded the prince-regent, who, with the emperor and archduchefs, the king of Prussia and princes of his family, followed by all the illustrious guests, walked round the centre tables, turning, as they entered the hall, to the right, and proceeding round the tables of the common council to the tables in the east. The royal princes then ascended the steps leading to the elevated platform, on which the royal table was placed; and they seated themselves in the following order:

Under the Canopy,  
THE PRINCE REGENT.

On his right.

The Emperor.  
Duke of York.  
Prince Henry of Prussia.  
Duke of Cambridge.  
Duke of Orleans.  
Duke of Saxe-Weimar.  
Prince Augustus of Prussia.  
Prince — of Prussia.  
Duke of Oldenburgh.  
Count de Meerfeldt.  
Prince of Hardenberg.  
Conde de F. Nunez,  
Duke of Montelliano. }

On his left.

King of Prussia.  
Duchefs of Oldenburgh.  
Hereditary Prince of Wirtemberg.  
Countefs of Lieven.  
Duke of Kent.  
Prince of Bavaria.  
Prince Mettermich.  
Prince de Cobourg.  
Duke of Gloucester.  
Prince William of Prussia.  
Prince of Orange.  
Princess Volchoufski.

This table was a semi-circle, and was most sumptuous in its display of gold plate. Its richness indeed was unparalleled—all the companies had sent in their most costly vessels, which filled every part of the hall, to the amount in value of 200,000. at least; but the most magnificent ornaments in candelabras, epergnes, turreens, ewers, cups, dishes, glaciers, &c. all in gold, were selected for this table, and by the body of wax-light produced a striking effect. The table being semi-circular, all the royal party had a full view of the company in the hall. The lord-mayor sir William Domville, took his stand behind the chair of his R. H. and continued there for some time, till desired to take his seat, when he retired to the right hand of the centre table, which had been appointed for him and the aldermen. The lady-mayorefs sat at the left hand of it, opposite to the lord-mayor; and at the same table lady Liverpool and lady Castlereagh were placed, the latter having the archbishop of Canterbury on her left hand. There were in all three tables reserved for the illustrious guests and aldermen; but they sat down promiscuously. At the left hand table sat, on one side, Mr. Speaker, Count Lieven, Prince Marshal Blücher, Sir Charles Stewart (now Lord Stewart), Count Platoff, &c. On the opposite side, the Earl of Liverpool, Lord Erskine, Marquis of Hertford, Duke of Montrose, &c. The Duke of Sussex sent an apology for his non-attendance on account of indisposition; and the Duke of Clarence was also absent.

The dinner was as sumptuous as expense or skill could make it. *Non nobis* was finely sung by a vocal band under the direction of Mr. Taylor, the company all standing. The lord-mayor gave a toast, "The King," which was drunk with reverential silence, not even the usual anthem was sung; after which he gave "The Prince Regent," which was drunk with three times three. The toasts then given in succession were, "The Queen—The Emperor of all the Russias—The King of Prussia—The Emperor of Austria—The King of Spain—The Archduchefs of Oldenburgh—The Sovereign Prince of the Netherlands;" all which were received with shouts of applause, and drunk with three times three. There was no music, however, at first, out of deference to the feelings of the archduchefs; but her serene highness at length privately requested that the company might not be deprived, on her account, of their usual national songs; and accordingly, after her health was drunk, the song of "God save the king" was sung with rapturous applause: after which the vocal performers sung the glee of "To Arms," altered to suit the occasion.

After the toast, given by the prince, of "The Heroes by Sea and Land, who have nobly fought for their Country," the vocal band sang "Rule Britannia;" when they came to the stanza of "Bless'd isle with matchless beauty crown'd," the *coup d'œil* of beauty that surrounded the hall struck, as by electricity, every heart in the room, and a burst of acclamation was the consequence, which the prince happily seized, and proposed a toast, "The Lady Mayorefs and the Ladies in the Hall," which was drunk with enthusiasm. The Prince Regent gave also, "The Illustrious Foreign Heroes who had contributed so much to the Glories of the War;" this produced a torrent of applause, and the heroes Blücher, Platoff, &c. rose and bowed their thanks to the company. "The City of London, and prosperity to its Trade, The Army and Navy," &c. were also drunk. "Hail Star of Brunswick," was also sung with fine effect. At half past ten, the royal party, followed by the distinguished guests, withdrew to take coffee; after which they proceeded to their carriages; but it was three in the morning before the hall was entirely cleared.

The procession returned from the city in the same order as it went; the marshal's men and all the attendants, except the coachmen and postillions, with flambeaux in their hands, which gave it a novel and brilliant appearance.

On Sunday the 19th, the illustrious party dined at Oatlands, with the duke of York and the duchefs, who is sister to the king of Prussia. The forenoon of Monday



was employed in viewing 10,000 troops, drawn up in Hyde Park to fire a *feu-de-joie*, in honour of the peace, which was proclaimed with the usual formalities in the afternoon. The evening was set apart for a most superb entertainment and ball, provided by the members of White's Club, in Burlington-house and gardens, at a cost of nearly 40,000*l.* Tuesday was employed in taking leave of the royal family, and in other preparations for departure. On Wednesday morning the 22d, both sovereigns left town (the emperor previously viewing the Tower of London) for Portsmouth, where they were entertained with a grand naval review. Thence they proceeded along the coast to Dover, where they embarked on their return to the continent.

We now return to Guildhall.—For several days after the superb entertainment, a vast concourse of people repaired thither to view the beautiful ornaments before they were removed; and at length, when they were nearly taken down, the arrival of the duke of Wellington occasioned them to be hastily restored, in consequence of his grace having accepted an invitation from the corporation to dine there on the 9th of the present month (July.) On that day, the duke was entertained by the corporation of London, in a style of magnificence and splendour equal in every respect to the luxurious display which was made on the occasion we have just noticed. There was, as before, a covered entrance from the centre of Guildhall-yard to the hall, which was lined with green cloth, and lighted with variegated lamps and silver sconces. The canopy erected over the three seats of the monarchs on the late occasion remained, but was moved nearer to the wall; and the three chairs on which the Prince Regent, the Emperor, and King, sat, were raised on a platform, and remained empty the whole evening. At the back of the throne was placed one glass, containing nearly sixty square feet of British manufacture, which had a most beautiful effect, by affording the appearance of two halls most splendidly fitted up; the glass being of that extent as to take in very nearly the whole hall at one view.

The corporation of London upon this occasion took the opportunity of inviting every person to the entertainment who had been in any way noticed in the votes of parliament for their services, either by sea or land, as well as those they had themselves noticed in votes of thanks, and given the freedom and swords, boxes, or other rewards; in addition to which were the relations and those that were connected with the duke of Wellington, his staff, and many others both naval and military, who, although they had not been noticed by name, had yet deserved well of their country for the services they had performed. The votes of parliament and the proceedings of the court of common-council were gone through from the year 1792 to the present time; and the names were severally selected for the purpose.

Prior to the dinner, at about five o'clock, the duke was presented with the freedom of the city in a gold box, and with the splendid sword which had been voted to him. On delivering the former, Mr. Chamberlain administered the oaths to his grace, and then addressed him, reciting the different occasions on which his gallant achievements had attracted the notice of the city of London, and had produced those indications of public gratitude, in the meetings of the corporation and the livery, of which he had been informed during the progress of his glorious career.—The duke, having bowed to the lord-mayor and the chamberlain, expressed his high sense of the honour conferred upon him by the city; and attributed the success of all his enterprises to the ability with which he was supported by his brother-officers, and to the valour and discipline of his majesty's forces, and those of the allies. On receiving the sword, he raised his voice and spoke with particular energy; declaring his readiness to employ it in the service of his sovereign and his country, should it unfortunately happen that the general wish of the nations of Europe for a per-

manent peace should be disappointed, and that he should be again called upon to assist in the public cause.—The duke then took off his own sword, gave it to one of his aids-du-camp, and replaced it by the city-sword. This ceremony was performed in the council-chamber, in the raised part of the room which is devoted during the sitting of the court to the lord-mayor and aldermen. All the seats were previously removed, and the apartment was elegantly decorated. At the further extremity there was raised on a pedestal the head of his grace in white marble; and the artist had happily succeeded in the resemblance; but, on account of a small imperfection in the material, we understand another bust is to be substituted.

The dukes of York, Kent, Suffex, Gloucester, Norfolk, Beaufort, and cabinet-ministers, being assembled, they next proceeded to the Great Hall in the following order:

The City Marshals.

The Officers of the Lord-mayor's Household.

Several Members of the Committee, with wands.

Officers of Guildhall according to seniority (juniors first).

Six Members of Committee, with wands.

The Sheriffs.

The Aldermen, two and two (juniors first).

The LORD MAYOR, preceded by the Sword and Mace.

The DUKE of YORK, with the DUKE of WELLINGTON on his Right Hand.

The Royal Dukes.

The Relations of the Duke of Wellington.

The Cabinet Ministers.

The Ambassadors and Foreign Ministers.

Nobility, Admirals, and General Officers—the Duke of Norfolk first.

Other Officers and Gentry.

The Members of the Common Council.

The whole procession, instead of turning to the left at the bottom of the steps leading into the great hall directly to the hustings, where the chief tables were placed, went entirely round the hall, by which means the numerous ladies who were assembled in the galleries had an opportunity of being gratified with a sight of those heroes who have so nobly supported the glory of their country both by sea and land. The band in the upper galleries played, during the procession, "See the conquering hero comes." The duke of Clarence was absent from indisposition, and the duke of Cambridge from being under the necessity of leaving town. The only cabinet-minister absent was lord Sidmouth, from indisposition. The dinner was served up in the first style, and was a most complete civic feast, consisting of turtle, venison, and every other delicacy of the season. The raised platform for the principal tables had been rendered more commodious, and a greater number of persons were accommodated upon it. The Lord-mayor sat in the centre chair, with the Duke of Wellington on his right hand; and the remaining chairs were filled by the Royal Dukes, Foreign Princes and Ambassadors, the Ministers of State, and a long list of naval and military characters of distinction. The top of the canopy was ornamented with a ducal coronet, surmounted with a dome, and on the front of the dome was a splendid sword and a marshal's baton, exquisitely ornamented. The remaining decorations of the hall in point of plate, lustres, galleries, &c. were similar to those exhibited on the former occasion. There were two military bands—and some of the most celebrated glee-fingers added continually to the general conviviality of the evening. The galleries, which were not removed, were devoted as well to gentlemen as to ladies; and the number of persons present was greater than at the former feast. Every thing was however conducted with admirable regularity, and nothing occurred to mar the harmony of the scene. Among the other viands under which the table groaned, was an excellent baron of beef; and, opposite this good old sample of English fare, stood a blue-and-white china jug, which held twenty-three gallons of brown stout,



flout, of the contents of which most of the distinguished guests partook.

After dinner *Non nobis* was sung, and the toasts were given (with an appropriate glee or song between each) by sound of trumpet, there being two trumpeters placed at the top of the hall, near the throne, who were answered by two at the bottom.

The lord-mayor, in proposing the toast of Field-marshal the Duke of Wellington, addressed him nearly in the following words: "The highly-gratifying visit of his royal highness the prince regent to this festive hall, accompanied by mighty sovereigns and renowned warriors of foreign nations, is still fresh in our recollection. Many, perhaps all of us, regretted that the British hero was not seen amidst the laurelled conquerors upon that memorable occasion. The regret was natural, but perhaps unseasonable, for who can doubt but the invincible commander of our own brave armies deserved a civic triumph to himself? It would be ingratitude not to celebrate distinctly the splendid victories achieved by our own illustrious general, which accelerated the restoration of peace; victories not bestowed by the capricious favour of fortune, but won by a noble perseverance, through adverse circumstances, and by hard-contested struggles with rival generals of consummate skill, and veteran troops of acknowledged valour; and, though every tribute of praise is due to the native bravery of our own soldiers, of what avail would it have proved if it had not been directed and raised even to enthusiasm by the military genius, the personal valour, and the indefatigable vigilance, of their great commander. His grace will allow me, in the name of my fellow-citizens, to assure him, it is not in his presence that we praise him most; and that, in the entertainment given to him this day, they do not pretend to do more than testify their gratitude for services rendered to his country, which, in their estimation, not any honour from the crown, nor any applause from the people, can more than adequately reward."—His grace, in reply, totally disclaimed any peculiar merit attaching to himself; but attributed it, under Divine Providence, to the perseverance of the nation, the wisdom of his majesty's councils, the care and attention of his royal highness the commander-in-chief, and the brave co-operating exertions of his fellows in arms, so many of whom he felt highly gratified in seeing surrounding him upon this occasion; and above all, he said, he had the honour of commanding an army of Englishmen, who lost not an atom of the spirit of their country, and behaved as Englishmen should do.

The lord-mayor, in proposing the toast of his Majesty's Ministers, took the opportunity of saying—"On this occasion it will be almost superfluous to compliment them in words: the presence of the duke of Wellington is itself a panegyric on their conduct; they wisely appreciated his character, and boldly trusted the best military energies of the nation to his uncontrouled direction. By this and similar measures they have steadily assisted the great common cause; and amidst the unexampled success which has attended their ministry, they have the candour to disclaim as presumptuous the attributing to any man, or set of men, the auspicious termination of the late arduous contest. Such liberality of sentiment and conduct at once advances their own merit, and benefits their country, by promoting a spirit of conciliation through all ranks and parties in the state; and I must request his majesty's ministers to accept our grateful thanks for the glorious, and we trust permanent, peace, which this country has lately obtained, and which we attribute in an eminent degree to their ability in negotiation, as well as to their energy in conducting the war."—The earl of Liverpool, in the name of his majesty's ministers, made a most eloquent reply, in which he paid the highest compliments to the duke of Wellington, whose successes had far outstripped all human expectation. His lordship said his majesty's ministers had to be grateful for the confidence which had been placed in them; and attributed the glo-

rious results of the late arduous contest to the steady perseverance of the nation, amongst whom none stood more conspicuous than the citizens of London.

Towards the close of the evening a temporary staircase was opened from the galleries into the body of the hall, by which the ladies descended, and passed round the whole of the tables on the hustings, and every one had the honour of shaking hands with the immortal hero and the royal dukes, and some of the younger ones were saluted by his grace. Near seven hundred ladies were in the galleries, most superbly dressed, and amongst them we noticed the females of the lord-chancellor's family, lady Ellenborough and her daughters, the lady of the speaker of the house of commons, lady Elizabeth Whitbread, and many other ladies of rank and fashion. The appearance of the ladies afforded one of the most splendid and gratifying sights that could be imagined.

The duke has been named ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary to the court of Louis XVIII. and will set off for Paris directly after the rising of parliament.

On the east side of Guildhall-yard, between Guildhall and Blackwell-hall, is Guildhall Chapel, which was a college or chapel dedicated to Mary Magdalen and All Saints, and commonly called London College. This college was founded, according to Stow, about the year 1299, by Peter Forneloe, Adam Francis, and Henry Frowike, for a custos and four chaplains. This college being old and ruinous, Henry VI. upon application to him by the mayor and citizens of London, granted them a license to rebuild and enlarge it; and the chaplains, &c. belonging to it were increased, by the founding of divers chantries, to a custos, seven chaplains, three clerks, four choristers, and seven alms-people. The mayor and chamberlain were the patrons of this foundation, and the bishop of London the ordinary; and, in 1542, bishop Bonner made statutes for its better government. This college was suppressed by Henry VIII. and, in the year 1551, Edward VI. granted it to the mayor and commonalty of London, for the sum of 456l. 13s. 4d. to be held in foggage of the manor of East Greenwich; since which time it has been called Guildhall Chapel. This edifice, which is perfectly in the Gothic taste, was defaced, but not burnt down, by the fire in 1666, and has been since repaired. In three niches are stone figures of king Edward VI. queen Elizabeth, and king Charles I. treading on a globe. The windows are spacious; there is a gallery at the west end; the walls are hung with tapestry; there is a wainscot covering over the aldermen's seats, and a particular seat for the lord-mayor, adorned with cartouches; a handsome wainscot pulpit and desk, and a neat altar-piece, inclosed with rails and banisters. Divine service used to be performed here, before the lord-mayor and aldermen, weekly, as well as on particular occasions; but this practice has been discontinued for some years; and the Court of Requests is now held here.—Considering the importance of this place all together, we have presented our readers with an engraving representing the Front of Guildhall, with Guildhall Yard and Chapel, after a drawing made on purpose.

At the south-west corner of Guildhall-yard, is the parish-church of St. Lawrence Jewry, which runs westward on the north side of Cateaton-street. It is dedicated to Lawrence, a Spanish saint, born at Huesca, in the kingdom of Arragon; who, after having undergone the most grievous tortures, in the persecution under the emperor Valerian, was cruelly broiled alive upon a gridiron, with a slow fire, till he died, for his strict adherence to Christianity; and the additional epithet of *Jewry*, from its situation among the Jews, was conferred upon it, to distinguish it from the church of St. Lawrence Pountney, now demolished. This church, which was anciently a rectory, being given, by Hugo de Wickenbroke, to Baliol college, in Oxford, anno 1294, the rectory ceased; wherefore Richard bishop of London converted it into a vicarage; the patronage of which still continues in the master and scholars of that college. The



old church being destroyed by the fire in 1666, it was rebuilt, at the expense of the parishioners, assisted by a very liberal benefaction from sir John Langham; and the parish of St. Mary Magdalen, Milk-street, was annexed to it. The present structure is eighty-one feet long, sixty-eight broad, forty high to the roof, and the altitude of the steeple is a hundred and thirty feet. The body is lighted by two series of windows; the lower ones large and uniform, and the upper small. At the east end is a pediment, with niches, supported by Corinthian columns. The lower, which is lofty, is terminated by a balustrade, with plain pinnacles; and within this balustrade rises a kind of lantern, which supports the base of the spire. A copper gridiron of 1 cwt. was put on the top of the steeple for a vane, Aug. 13, 1732.

In this neighbourhood were, before the fire of London, two parish-churches, viz. that of St. Mary Magdalen, Milk-street, belonging to Cripplegate ward; and that of Allhallows, Honey-lane, in this ward.—Honey-lane market now occupies the site of these two religious edifices, and is famous for the choice quality of the provisions brought to it. "There is nothing," as we often say proverbially, "like getting a good name;" and that has been long the case with this market, which, being in the high-feeding centre of the city, used to serve the lord-mayor and aldermen with all sorts of dainties; but, since the fashion of keeping country boxes a little way out of town, or handsome houses in town, but at the other and fashionable end of it, this market has lost a considerable part of its customers, and consequently of its fame. It is the smallest market in the city, being only a hundred and ninety-three feet from east to west, and ninety-seven from north to south. In the centre is a square market-house, standing on pillars, with rooms over it, and a bell-tower in the middle. Here are also stalls for butchers, fruiterers, &c. and the passages into the market are inhabited by poulterers, and other dealers in provisions.

St. Pancras, Soper-lane, stood on the north side of Pancras-lane, and took its name from its dedication to St. Pancras, a young Phrygian nobleman, who for his adherence to the Christian faith, suffered martyrdom at Rome, under the emperor Dioclesian; and from its vicinity to Soper-lane, now Queen-street. It is a rectory, the patronage of which was in the prior and canons of Canterbury, till they granted the advowson to Simon, the archbishop, in the year 1365: since which time, it has remained in the archbishops of that see.

On the same side of Pancras-lane, a little further to the east, stood the parish-church of St. Bennet Sherehog, which is said to derive its name from one Benedict Shorne, a fishmonger, who rebuilt it. It was originally dedicated to St. Olyth, a queen and martyr; but the ambition of the disciple of St. Peter was superior to his gallantry; he therefore ousted the female saint, and procured the tutelage of the church, by the name of St. Bennet, or Benedict, though his canonization is doubtful. The additional epithet is a corruption of his surname, which was gradually changed to Shrog, Shorehog, and at length, to Sherehog. After the fire in 1666, this parish was united to that of St. Stephen Wallbrook. It is a rectory, the patronage of which was in the prior and convent of St. Mary Overy's, in Southwark, till their dissolution, when it came to the crown; in which it still continues.

The church of St. Olave stands on the west side of the Old Jewry. It is a very ancient foundation, and was originally called St. Olave Upwell, probably from a well under the east end, where, at this time, and for many years past, has stood a pump for the use of the public; but this name afterwards gave way to that of Jewry, owing to the great number of Jews that took up their residence in this neighbourhood. This parish was a rectory, in the gift of the dean and chapter of St. Paul's, till about the year 1181; when it was transferred by them, with the chapel of St. Stephen, Coleman-street, to the prior and convent of Butley in Suffolk, and became a vicarage. At the suppression

of that convent, the impropriation was seized by the crown, in whom it has continued to the present time. When the old church was burned down, in 1666, the parish of St. Martin, Ironmonger-lane, was annexed to it; the patronage of which is also in the crown. The present structure was erected soon after the fire of London; and is built partly of brick, and partly of stone. It is seventy-eight feet long, twenty-four broad, thirty-six high to the roof, and eighty-eight to the top of the tower and pinnacles. The door is of the doric order, well proportioned, and covered with an arched pediment. The tower is very plain; on the upper part rises a cornice, supported by scrolls; and upon this a plain attic course. On the pillars, at the corners, are placed the pinnacles upon balls; and each pinnacle is terminated at the top by a ball. The body of the church is well lighted, the floor paved with Purbeck, and the walls wainscoted. The pulpit is enriched with carvings of cherubims; the floor of the altar, on which the communion-table stands, is paved with black and white marble, and in the front of the altar are the king's arms.

At the lower end of this church, over the gallery, are three curious pieces of painting, viz. 1. Queen Elizabeth, lying on a fine couch, with her regalia, under an arched canopy, on which are placed her arms. 2. King Charles I. a good likeness, and the performance not unlike the work of the great painters in the 17th century. 3. The figure of Time, with wings displayed, a scythe in his right hand, and an hour-glass in his left; at his foot is a child asleep, and under him a skeleton eight feet long. This allegory is easily understood; but at what period of time it was painted, and the name of the painter, we could not learn.—These paintings are disposed in the following manner: the allegory in the centre, the portrait of Charles on the south side of it, and the canopy of Elizabeth on the north. The walls of this church present several other moments of the dead. On one side, before the pulpit, is a group of arms upon round shields tastefully raised upon iron branches; and the centre of the church is loaded with the heavy mass of an immense cast-iron stove, more useful than ornamental. The font, placed on the north side, is of marble; small, but well cut, and adorned with cherubs' heads; the cover is of wood, and curiously carved.

It was in this parish, in the house of Robert Large, mayor of London in 1439, that William Caxton, the celebrated printer, served his apprenticeship as a mercer. His master, in the following year, left him thirty-four marks, as a testimonial of his fidelity.

At the north-west corner of the street is a public house, above which we remarked a head of Minerva placed in a round, niche, but for what reason no body could inform us. Regarding it as a curiosity, we have given a representation of it on Plate VIIb\*, at fig. 5.—A little below, also in the brick wall, we find a small but neat carving of the Cordwainers' arms.

The first Jewish synagogue erected in London stood near the north-east corner of the Old Jewry. It was destroyed in the year 1262, at which time seven hundred Jews were murdered, and their goods spoiled, by the citizens of London. The site thereof was given by queen Eleanor to the friars called De Penitentia Jesu, or De Sacca, an order of begging friars (56 Henry III.) so called from their being clothed in sackcloth. In process of time, it was converted to a private house, wherein several mayors resided, and kept their mayoralty. In the days of Stow it was a tavern, and had for its sign the Windmill. After various alterations, the place is now partly covered with a good private dwelling-house in front, and backward with a handsome capacious meeting-house of the presbyterian denomination; and with two alms-houses in Windmill-court, for nine poor widows of armourers and braziers, founded by Mr. Tindal, and endowed with six shillings per quarter, and nine bushels of coals annually; and with twenty shillings per quarter to those widows who are unable to work.—Near this spot

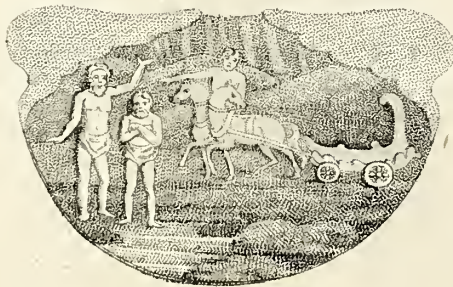
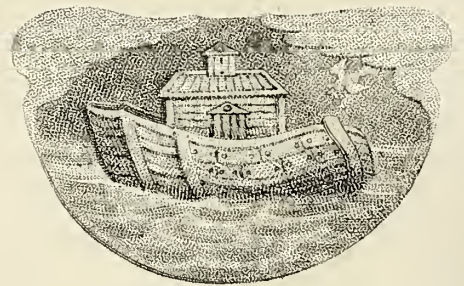








*Sculpture over the Gate of the Cemetery at St. Stephens, Coleman St.*



*Curious Font at St. Margarets Lottbury.*

*Published by G. Jones, Ave Maria Lane, March 4. 1825.*



was anciently a large stone building, called the Prince's Wardrobe; but for what use erected, or by whom, is now forgotten.

Stepping a little further to the north, we enter Coleman-street, which is spacious and broad, and inhabited by reputable merchants; but offers not any thing to the observation of the antiquary, except Armourers' Hall, an old plain brick building; and the parochial church of St. Stephen, so called from its dedication to the proto-martyr. It is of great antiquity, and was originally a chapel belonging to the dean and chapter of St. Paul's, who, between the years 1171 and 1181, granted the church of St. Olave Jewry, with this chapel as an appendage to it, to the prior and abbot of Butley in Suffolk. This chapel was made parochial in the year 1456; but continued under the patronage of the prior and canons of Butley till the suppression of that convent, when it came to the crown. However, in the year 1577, queen Elizabeth granted the patronage, together with the church and rectory, to Thomas Paskins, and others; and, in 1590, to William Daniel, serjeant at law, and other parishioners; which rectory improper, and right of advowson, have been held by the parish, in fee-farm of the crown, ever since. The old church sharing the common fate in the dreadful fire of London, the present structure was erected about four years after. It is a neat and solid building, principally of stone, strengthened with rustick at the corners, and lighted by one series of large windows, with a handsome cornice; it has a very extensive roof, without a single pillar to support it. The steeple is a square tower, crowned with a lantern, which has four faces, and encloses a bell to call the parishioners to prayers. The front is adorned with a cornice, two pine-apples, and the figure of a cock, handsomely carved. The length of this church, is seventy-five feet, its breadth thirty-five, height of the roof twenty-four, of the tower sixty-five. On the north side is the church-yard; and on the south is a large pavement, that covers a burial-vault, the whole length of the church. To this pavement there is an ascent by several steps, through a gate, over which is cut, in stone, a representation of the general resurrection; a curious piece of workmanship; and, although it bears no date, seems to have been executed in the fifteenth century. Christ, holding a flag in his right hand, appears in the centre upon the clouds which divide earth from heaven; and a quantity of naked bodies, intended to represent the awakened nations, endeavour to rise, and to be admitted in the company of the saints. Some are partly concealed under rocks, but striving to get out; unless by those places of confinement are meant the prisons of hell. This bas-relief has been so often covered with paint, that it is impossible to judge fairly of the merit due to the chisel; but the whole design tastes of the incorrectness of the times when it was executed.—At our visit, we found the church beautifully adorned with nosegays, each candlestick bearing one, whether because it was the day of Pentecost, or Whitsunday, corresponding with the Jewish feast of tabernacles, or on account of the restoration of king Charles II. which this year coincided, we did not learn; but the church added to a neat and elegant appearance a most delightful perfume. We observed several monuments, whose style proves their erection to have been at the end of the 17th or beginning of the 18th century; and two old paintings of Moses and Aaron, one of each side of the altar. The font is in a small recess contrived in the wall on the south side, and fenced by an iron wicket.

The north end of Coleman-street opens into that called London Wall, near the fourth end of Old Bedlam; and its south entrance is in Cateaton-street, the etymology of which must be curious, but which we have not been able to bring into a satisfactory shape. To the east is Lothbury, which has been lately much improved and decorated by the north front of the bank, a grand specimen of English skill in modern architecture: it appears heavy when compared to the south front, but has a majestic

mien, suitable to the repository of the wealth, or rather the credit, of a great nation. The corners, adorned with loggie and columns, do honour to the architect, Mr. Soane; and the north-east corner of Princes-street being made to correspond renders this part very interesting and worthy attention.—Speaking of Lothbury, Stow says: "This street is possessed, for the most part, by founders, who call candlesticks, chaffing-dishes, spice-mortars, and such-like copper or latten wares, and do afterwards turn them with the foot, and not with the wheel, to make them smooth and bright, which turning and scratting, as some do term it, making a loathsome noise to the by-passers, that have not been used to the like, it is therefore by them disdainfully called Lothbury."—With all the respect we bear for our favourite historian, we cannot help feeling a little reluctance at coinciding with him in this etymology; although the neighbourhood of Armourers' hall seems strongly to countenance it.

The parish-church of St. Margaret, Lothbury, is a rectory, the foundation of which is of great antiquity, as appears from John de Halingfield, who was presented to it, by the abbess and convent of Barking in Essex, on the 16th of August, in the year 1303. The patronage continued in that convent till the general suppression of religious houses, when it fell to the crown, in whom it has continued to the present time. The original church being greatly decayed by time, a new one was built in the year 1440; but, that being destroyed by the general conflagration, the present edifice was erected in its stead, and completely finished in the year 1690. It is a plain neat building, and is situated on the ancient water-course of Wall-brook. It is sixty-six feet long; fifty-four broad, thirty-six in height to the roof, and a hundred and forty to the top of the steeple. The body is well-lighted by a row of lofty windows, over which the wall is terminated by a balustrade; and the principal door is ornamented with Corinthian columns, which support an angular pediment. The tower has large windows in the uppermost stage, and is terminated a little above by a plain cornice, upon which is raised a small dome, that supports a slender spire. The inside is wainscoted, the floor neatly paved, and the altar-piece handsomely ornamented. The font for baptism is extremely beautiful, being carved with a representation of the Garden of Eden and the Fall of Man, the Salvation of Noah and his Family in the Ark; the Baptism of Jesus by John Baptist, and Philip baptizing the Eunuch. The cover is ornamented with the figure of St. Margaret, and with those of Faith, Hope, and Charity.

The ornamenting of the sacred piscina, where our original stain is supposed to be washed away in the waters of baptism, has been from remote times an object of attention for the sculptor; and the workmanship of this font has so many curious and interesting parts, that it is a very favourable specimen of performances of this kind. The compartments have been chosen with great knowledge and taste, as every one of them alludes to the sacred mystery performed on the margin of the holy pool. Were we to enter into a dissertation upon the ancient, and even pagan, custom of baptizing, bathing, or performing ablutions, still in practice at this moment with the Mahometans, the Hindoos, as well as with all Christian sects; we should be led to draw a conclusion from no later time than the deluge itself; for it seems that originally superstition hinted this ceremony as a preservative against the vindictive waters of the flood. We find remnants of the same idea, in the Eleusian mysteries, in the procession of Adonis at Alexandria; and the first volume of the Memoirs of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres, will satisfy the most curious inquirer on the subject.

A few steps to the west from this church, is Founders' Court, so called from its neighbourhood to Founders' Hall, which is a plain but convenient building, not only serving the purposes of the company it belongs to, but is also used as a place of worship by a presbyterian congregation.

At the corner of Throgmorton-street and Bartholomew-  
Lane



lane is a new building called the *Auction Mart*. The front is handsome; and the inside adorned with a curious double staircase, leading to the apartments above the hall, but so very slender and steep, that ladies have often expressed their dread of falling, when they were really actuated by the modest fear of showing their garters. The apartments on the different floors are let to brokers, underwriters, auctioneers, and other *salamanders* living in the heat of speculation and trade. A coffee-house annexed to it, and elegantly built, adds considerable comfort to the mart; and to the frequenters of the sales.

Returning by Cateaton-street, we find Basinghall-street, in the ward of Bassishaw.—This street derives its name from the mansion-house of the family of the Basings, several of whom served the chief offices in the city in the 13th and 14th centuries. It was originally called Basing's *haw*, or hall; but, descending to Mr. Thomas Bakewell, it changed its name to Bakewell's hall. It afterwards fell to the crown, and, in the year 1397, was sold by Richard II. with its gardens and appurtenances, to the mayor and commonalty of London, for fifty pounds; since which, it has been corruptedly called *Blackwell-hall*, and used as a weekly market for woollen cloths. The old hall had become so ruinous, that in 1638 it was pulled down, and rebuilt, at an expense of two thousand five hundred pounds; the principal part of which was defrayed by Richard May, of the Merchant-Tailors' company. This building being destroyed by the fire in 1666, the present structure was erected in 1672. It is a square building, with two courts in the middle, surrounded with warehouses; and has two spacious entrances for carriages; one from Basinghall-street, and the other from Guildhall-yard, where is the principal front, and a door-case, adorned with two columns of the Doric order, with their entablature, and a pediment, in which are the king's arms, and a little lower the city arms, enriched with cupids, &c. There is also an entrance to it from Cateaton-street. Within these buildings are different apartments, or warehouses, called the Devonshire, the Gloucestershire, the Worcestershire, the Kentish, the Medley, the Spanish, and the Blanket halls; in which each piece of cloth pays a penny for pitching, and a halfpenny per week for resting. The profits are applied towards the support of Christ's Hospital; the governors of which have the sole management of the warehouses. This market may be said to be the greatest woollen-cloth market in the world; and therefore it has always been the particular care of the city of London to keep it under the best regulations; for, so early as the 21st of Richard II. it was ordained, that no manner of person should sell any woollen cloths, except they were first brought, harboured, and discharged, at the common market of Blackwell-hall, upon pain of forfeiture thereof. And that ordinance was confirmed by an act of common-council, held on the 1st of August, 3 Henry VIII. with this addition, that no manner of person, being a freeman of this city, suffer any manner of person whatsoever, be he free or foreign, to buy or sell any manner of woollen cloths, harboured or lodged, contrary to the said ordinance, within his shop, chamber, or other place within his house; unless the said cloths were first brought to Blackwell-hall, and there bought and sold, under the penalty of six shillings and eightpence for every broad cloth, three shillings and fourpence for every kersey, and twenty pence for every Bridgewater and other pieces of cloth: double for a second offence, and disfranchisement for a third.

On the west side of Basinghall-street is Coopers' Hall; a stately well-built edifice of brick. The hall is a handsome room, wainscoted to the height of fourteen feet, and paved with marble. Of late years this hall has been used for the drawing of the lottery, which, for many years preceding had been drawn at Guildhall.

This small ward contains only one church, called St. Michael Bassishaw. It is a rectory, and was originally founded about the year 1140; at which time it was in the gift of the prior and canons of St. Bartholomew, Smithfield. In the 15th century it fell to the dean and chap-

ter of St. Paul's, who, from that time, have continued patrons thereof. The old church, which was very beautiful, was entirely destroyed by the fire of London; and the present structure was completed in 1679. The walls are of brick, strengthened with rustic-work at the corners; and the body is well lighted by a single series of large windows. At the east end, where the top is terminated by an arch, the light is given by three windows; one of them upright, the other two circular. The steeple consists of a stone tower, crowned with a turret, from which rises a kind of spire. The length of this church is seventy feet, the breadth fifty, the height of the roof forty-two, and that of the tower seventy-five.

The other public buildings in this ward, are, three of the companies' halls; viz. On the east side of Basinghall-street, Masons' Hall, a small but very convenient stone building, in Masons' Alley. Weavers' Hall, which is a handsome building, neatly adorned in the inside with hangings, fret-work, and a skreen of the Ionic order. Girdlers' Hall; a handsome and convenient building, finished in 1681, well wainscoted within, and with a skreen of the Composite order.

On the west is the place or street called Aldermanbury, already noticed as having contained the first *bury*, or hall, where the aldermen used to meet.—On the west side of this street, between Love-lane and Adde-street, stands the parish-church of St. Mary, Aldermanbury, which is of ancient foundation. The patronage was formerly in the dean and chapter of St. Paul's, who, in the year 1331, with the consent of Stephen bishop of London, appropriated it to the adjoining hospital of Elsing Spital; but with a proviso, that the dean and chapter should have the patronage of both, and that, upon the appointment of a custos to this church and hospital, he was to swear fealty to the dean and chapter, and to pay them an ancient pension of a mark a-year, due from this church, and six shillings and eight pence yearly, for the hospital, as granted by the founder, William de Elsing, in testimony of its subjection to the church of St. Paul. It was also agreed that the custos should find a priest to serve the cure, who was to be approved by the dean and chapter. Hence it appears, that this church was at that time a curacy, as it still continues; but, after the dissolution of the hospital, the patronage was granted to the parishioners, who have ever since presented to it. The old church being destroyed by the dreadful fire in 1666, the present structure was finished ten years after. It is built of stone, and very plain; the body is well lighted, and the corners are wrought with rustic. It is seventy-two feet long, and forty-five broad; the roof is thirty-eight feet high, and the steeple about ninety. It has a plain solid tower, constructed in the same manner as the body, the angles in the upper stage being strengthened with rustic; the cornice is supported by scrolls, and above it is a plain attic course. In this rises a turret, with a square base that supports the dial. This turret is arched; but the corners are massy, and its roof is terminated in a point, on which is placed the vane. Over the altar is a very old picture representing the Lord's Supper, which at first sight appears to have been painted by some artist of the school of Titian.

To our readers, and particularly to that class which is fond of the marvellous in matters of antiquity, we must present the following quotation from Stow.—In the cloister adjoining the church of St. Mary Aldermanbury “is hanged and fastened a shank-bone of a man (as is said), very great, and larger by three inches and a half than that which hangeth in St. Lawrence church in the Jurie— for it is in length 23 inches and a half of assise; but not so hard and steely, like as the other; for the same is light, and somewhat pory and spongy. This bone is said to be found amongst the bones of men removed from the charnel-house of Paul's, or rather from the cloister of Paul's church; of both which reports, I doubt.”—However, the curious-historian adds, “true it is that this bone, from whence



whence soever it came, being of a man, as the forms sheweth, must needs be monstrous, and more than after the proportion of five shanke bones of any man now living amongst us."—These last words of Stow are obscure; for certainly he cannot mean that this bone was longer than five common shank-bones; but most likely that the proportion of the height of a man to his shank is as five to one. A man five feet and a half high measures thirteen inches on his shank; and, following the same proportion, the bone above mentioned must have belonged to an individual eleven feet high.

On the south side of this church stood a conduit, erected by sir William Eastfield, in 1438, for supplying the neighbouring inhabitants with water from Tyburn; which, being destroyed by the fire in 1666, was soon afterwards rebuilt; but, when the plentiful supply of water by other means rendered these buildings useless, this, with those in Cheapside and without Cripplegate, were pulled down in 1730; and the stones employed in repairing the gate upon London-bridge. It was proposed in the common-council to erect a statue of king William in the room of the conduit in Cheapside; but negatived by 77 against 25. "We have been lately delivered from one nuisance," said Mr. Birch; "and now they want to annoy us with another." Free Briton and Gent. Mag. Nov. 1731.

The access to Aldermanbury from Cheapside is principally through Milk-street, a very narrow passage, till you reach the intersection of Lad-lane and Cateaton-street. At the corner of Lad-lane is the famous inn called the Swan with two Necks, the usual resort of mails and stages from and to great part of the kingdom. But we cannot help remarking how awkward and dangerous is the entrance into the yard; and we really wonder at the dexterity of our four-in-hand virtuosi and knights of the whip, who, by twittings and windings, thread the gates of the inn with as much apparent facility as a young seamstress does her needle.—On the east side of Milk-street, near the bottom, we remarked a curious head carved in stone, and fixed in the brick wall, between the first and second floor of a house. It appears to have been an old sign of some public house; and, by the wreath of flowers and dishevelled hair, we suppose it to be the head of king Lear; but the reader may judge for himself by inspecting our Plate VII<sup>b</sup>. fig. 6.

In Aldermanbury, on the east side, opens Fountain-court, which, besides the Baptist-head coffee-house, a place of great business, presents on the east side a very neat building, with a double flight of steps and iron railings: the top is ornamented with a pediment and architrave of the Doric order, and in the centre of the tympanum are two serpents entwined within a wreath, elegantly carved, probably in allusion to the original purpose of the edifice, though at present only a canvas-warehouse. This court has an opening leading to St. Lawrence Jewry, in Guildhall-yard.

Lower down on the same side of the street, is another court called Three-Nun-court, leading to St. Michael's in Basinghall-street. From this spot, crossing London Wall and Fore-street, we proceed northwards towards Tenter-street, well known, like other parts of this neighbourhood, for its livery-stables; and in a place called "Ropemakers-alley," and "The Ruins," but now well built and respectably inhabited, we find the only Roman-catholic chapel which escaped destruction or confiscation at the time of the reformation. This was owing to its having the appearance of a private house. It was however burnt down during the riots of 1780, (see p. 116.) but was soon rebuilt, and is now a large and commodious place of worship. The entrance has still the appearance of a private house. The subject of the present altar-piece is the Baptism of Christ; it is an indifferent imitation of a famous painting of Tintoretto; the one which preceded this about ten years ago represented Christ curing the Sick of the Palsy; and had much more merit. On the right side of the altar is a painting of St. Paul, and one on the left

of St. Peter; both larger than life. The congregation attending this chapel is very numerous; and the service is performed with as much pomp and solemnity as their circumstances will allow.—It is remarkable that the south side of the street, opposite to the chapel, is in the city, whilst the chapel itself is *in pomario*, out of it. We must also observe, that rope-makers generally take their walks under the northern walls of fortified towns, or in the dry ditches below them, most likely on account of the shade which is necessary for their purpose; the rays of the sun would dry up the moisture of the tow or bark too soon, and consequently put an end to its required flexibility.

In Little Moorfields we remarked an old public house, the front of which is curiously decorated with flowers; but these have been so often white-washed, that they retain little of their former elegance. On one side remains a tall isolated stalk, with a large flower at top, which had most probably a companion on the other side; but this has disappeared. The sign of the house is the King's Arms; and seems to date from the reign of James or Charles I.

At the north-west corner of Aldermanbury and London Wall stands the parish-church of St. Alphage, so called from its dedication to St. Alphege, or Elphage, a noble Anglo-Saxon saint, bishop of Winchester, and afterwards archbishop of Canterbury, who was put to death by the Danes, at Greenwich, on the 17th of April, 1014. The first church in London dedicated to this saint stood adjoining to the city-wall, near the east side of Cripplegate. But, being demolished at the suppression of religious houses by Henry VIII. and the site thereof turned into a carpenter's yard, the south aisle of the church of St. Mary Elling Spital was converted into the parish-church. The advowson of this church, which is a rectory, was anciently in the dean and canons of St. Martin's-le-Grand, in whom it continued till Henry VII. annexed it to St. Peter's, Westminster, when the abbot and convent became the patrons of it; but, that convent being dissolved, queen Mary, in the year 1553, granted the patronage thereof to Edmund bishop of London, and his successors, in whom it still remains. This church escaped the fire of London; but became so ruinous, that it was rebuilt in 1770. It is a very small but neat edifice, of brick and stone, and well lighted. It has neither tower or any other ornament on the top; but the doors of entrance, one of which is on the south side of London Wall, and two others at the north end of Aldermanbury, are very neatly ornamented; and each front is crowned with a pediment. On the sides of the front, next London Wall, are handsome stone pillars; and in the centre of the front, in Aldermanbury, is a spacious arched window, with a small port-hole window on each side, and a neat balustrade beneath it. Part of the old church remains at the north-west corner of the present one. The body of the church is entirely concealed by houses; the east front is in a sort of recess, which prevents passengers from taking notice of it; and the opening on the south side of London Wall looks like the entrance to a private house.

Adjoining the west end of this church, stands Sion College; (see the article COLLEGE, vol. iv. p. 776.) We are told that in the year 1632, the governors and clergy agreed upon having a common seal, on which was the figure of the Good Samaritan, with this inscription, *Vade et fac similiter*; "Go and do likewise." It may be asked, What has the Good Samaritan to do with the clergy of London, or indeed with any clergy? The parable is rather a sort of reproach to the ministers of the altar; and, unless the motto were a kind of humane injunction to them, which we could not approve as being needless; or a sarcasm, which we should reprove as unmerited; we cannot find the sense of it. We must therefore recur to very old times for a solution of the difficulty. The foundation of William Elsing, in 1329, was intended for the relief of a hundred blind men: the Good Samaritan would have been a very proper device for an hospital of this kind. We conclude therefore



therefore that the London clergy adopted this seal as having belonged to the ancient hospital, or at least as having a very natural and scriptural allusion to that establishment. We have known several instances wherein colleges established upon the site and out of the revenues of hospitals have kept most respectfully the seal, and even the name, of the former establishment.—The library was repaired, at the expense of the college, in the year 1800; and a neat and classical inscription, in order to record it, is engraved on a stone on the west side of the gateway. It runs thus: *Hæc Bibliotheca fronte cum tecto vetustate pene collapsis sumptibus Collegii inflaurata est. A.D. MDCCC. Joh. Moore LL.D. prædide.*

The alms-houses are built under the library on the west side of the square, ten within the college for the men, and ten without it for the women. In dividing the men's houses from those of the women, the wife and religious founder was following the ancient custom; which, notwithstanding all that romancers and poets sing or say, was constantly to separate the two sexes, in their benevolent establishments; lest busy malignity and prying calumny should give out for truth what might only have an appearance of possibility. The same attention was bestowed in all religious foundations; and we no-where find, but in the works of calumniators, that our ancestors were ever so wicked or so foolish as to suffer monks and nuns to share the same habitation. When sacrilegious fornication was committed, the guilt was not particularly invited by opportunity, but the fences of the nunnery must have clandestinely yielded to an unlawful claim or specious pretence for admittance. Four of these alms-people are nominated by the city of Bristol, where Dr. White was born; eight by the Merchant-Taylors' Company; six by the parish of St. Dunstan, where he was minister forty-nine years; and two by St. Gregory's parish, where he had lived about twenty years.

Westward from Sion College, and beyond Philip-lane, is Curriers' court, at the upper end of which is a neat convenient hall belonging to the company of Curriers, whose arms are over the entrance of the court.

Passing through Cripplegate Buildings, the place where the old gate (see p. 105.) anciently stood, we again enter Fore-street, so called because it was *before* the wall; and on our left we find the church St. Giles, Cripplegate, which has been lately repaired, as appears by an inscription placed on the side of the watch-house, intimating that the watch and quest house, with the large building between the two doors of the church, were erected in 1811. This church is so called from being dedicated to a saint of that name, born at Athens, who was abbot of Nismes, in France. It was founded about the year 1090, by Alfune, the first master of St. Bartholomew's Hospital. The old church was destroyed by fire in the year 1545; after which the present structure was erected, and is one of the few that fortunately escaped the dreadful conflagration in 1666. It may very properly be numbered amongst the best of our Gothic buildings. It is a hundred and fourteen feet in length, sixty-three in breadth, thirty-two high to the roof, and a hundred and twenty-two to the top of the turret. The body of the church is well lighted by two rows of windows, which are truly of the gothic order, and the spaces between have buttresses for the support of the wall. The tower is well proportioned; the corners of it are supported by a kind of buttress-work, and at each corner is a small turret. The principal turret, in the centre, is light and open; it is strengthened by buttresses, and crowned with a dome, from whence rises the vane. Over the south-east door of the church is a beautiful figure of Time, with a scythe in one hand, and an hour-glass in the other. The patronage of this church was originally in private hands, till it descended to one Alemund, a priest, who granted the same (after his death, and that of Hugh, his only son) to the dean and chapter of St. Paul's, whereby they became not only ordinaries of the parish, but likewise patrons of the vicarage, from that time to the present. There are several endowments

belonging to this church, for the performance of divine service, at different times in the year, particularly six sermons to be preached in Lent, and a gift-sermon on All-Saints' day; when the donations, left by several benefactors to be given on that day, are distributed to the poor, at the discretion of the vicar and churchwardens.

The site of this parish was anciently a fen, or moor; and the houses or gardens thereupon were accounted a village without the wall of London, called *Mora*; which, in process of time, increased greatly in number of buildings, and was constituted a prebend of St. Paul's cathedral, of that appellation. And now this village is totally covered by London; and the prebendary of *Mora*, or "Mora without the Wall of London," has the ninth stall on the right side of the choir in St. Paul's cathedral; of which, it is said, Nigellus Medicus was the first prebendary. Part of the old wall of the city remains on the south and east sides of the church-yard, particularly one of the bastions, which is close against the back part of Barbers' Hall. This church has received the remains of several eminent writers, among whom may be named Speed, the celebrated English historian and topographer; Fox, the martyrologist; Glover, an indefatigable antiquarian; and the immortal Milton, who was buried in the chancel, and whose remains were lately discovered in making some alterations in that part of the church.

At the south-east angle of Aldermanbury-postern, is a very handsome meeting-house, built of brick; and there is another, equally handsome, at the corner of Coleman-street.

Leaving the northern part of Fore-street for another walk, we return to St. Paul's by Wood-street, which opens a little to the west of Philip-lane and Curriers' Hall. The communication to this street is multifarious, which makes it more busy, more alive. On the west we pass Hart-street and Fell-street; on the right we have Addle-street, which by a gentle winding, leads to the north side of St. Mary Aldermanbury. Silver-street on the right, and Goldsmiths-street on the same side, denote that wealth did always harbour in this neighbourhood; and indeed in ancient times this part of the city (though very respectable indeed in our time) was, as to local property in silver, gold, and jewels, the most important spot in the metropolis. At the entrance of the street last-mentioned, at the east corner of the first house, is a good carving of the company's arms, set in the brick-wall. See Plate VIII.—Then we have the curiously-named Huggin-lane, formerly *Hugon-lane*, on our left; and, nearly opposite, Lad-lane, corrupted, says Stow, from *Ladle-lane*. But, having found here, in spite of etymologists, *Lad-lane*, on one side, and *Maiden-lane* on the other, no wonder if we meet with *Love-lane*, and *Little Love-lane*, and *Huggin-lane*, all conspiring to impress us with the idea that Wood-street was once a favourite walk of the impures, or a place particularly consigned to them, according to some of those severe laws by which our ancestors thought proper to bereave unmarried women guilty of fornication of the right of being buried in consecrated ground, and had therefore assigned a proper place for their unclean remains to rest and rot till the day of judgment, when a milder Judge must decide between weakness and wickedness. See Matth. viii. 10, 11. ix. 13. John viii. 11.

On the east side of this street is the church of St. Alban, Wood-street. It is a rectory; but its origin is involved in obscurity. It is supposed to have been founded by Alfred, when he restored the city, in 886, after it had been ravaged by the Danes. Others, however, imagine, from the church being built of the same materials as a square tower remaining at the north corner of Love-lane so late as the year 1632, and which was believed to have been part of king Athelstan's palace, that its foundation is to be attributed to that monarch. Whichever of these opinions be true, the original building remained till 1634, when it was taken down, and a new church erected on the same spot; which was destroyed thirty-two years after by the fire of London. The present church was built upon the same model as the former; and is sixty-six feet in length, fifty-nine in breadth,



and thirty-three in height to the roof. It is a Gothic structure, with a plain body and large windows; and the wall is crowned with a square battlement. It has a handsome tower, ninety-six feet in height, divided into four stages supported by gothic pilasters, each crowned with its own cornice. In the lower stage, one window occupies the middle of the space, both in front and on the sides, the bars forming a double series of gothic arches; the pilasters are carried up straight at the sides, the remainder of the space being left plain. The second stage is lighted by port-hole windows; and the other two stages have long gothic windows. The summit of the tower is edged with battlement-work, plain and clove, and its verge is crowned with handsome pinnacles, one at each corner and one in the middle of each face. The patronage of this church was originally in the abbot and convent of St. Alban's, in Hertfordshire, from whom it passed into the hands of the master, brethren, and sisters, of the hospital of St. James, at Westminster. How long they possessed it does not appear; but Henry VI. granted it to the provost and fellows of Eton college, which was founded by him; and it has remained in them ever since.

When this church was re-erected after the fire of London, the parish of St. Olave, Silver-street, the church of which was also burnt, was annexed to it. The parish of St. Olave, Silver-street, is a rectory, the church whereof stood at the south-west corner of Silver-street. It was a small church, the patronage of which was always in the dean and chapter of St. Paul's, who, since the fire, have presented alternately with the provost and fellows of Eton college. The site of the church is now a burying-place for the parishioners.

Farther south, on the west of Wood-street, stands the parish church of St. Michael, Wood-street. This church is of some antiquity, as appears by John de Eppewell being rector thereof in the year 1328. The old church being destroyed by the fire of London in 1666, the present structure was finished a few years after, and the parish of St. Mary Staining annexed to it. The east end of this building is ornamented with four Ionic columns, raised upon a continued pedestal, with arches between, and supporting a handsome pediment, in the middle of which is a circular window. Between the columns are three upright arched windows that fill the whole space. The rest of the body is plain; and the windows are so high, that the doors open under them. The tower consists of three plain stages, with large windows, from the uppermost of which rises a small square course, the foundation of the base of the turret. The base is cut away from the breadth of the tower, gradually to the diameter of the turret, which is plain but handsome; and from its top rises a ball that supports the vane. It is sixty-three feet long, forty-two broad, thirty-one high, to the roof, and the altitude of the tower is ninety feet. The patronage of this rectory was anciently in the abbot and convent of St. Alban's, in whom it continued till the suppression of their monastery, when, coming to the crown, it was sold, with the appurtenances, by Henry VIII. in the year 1544, to William Barwell, who, in the year 1588, conveyed the same to John Marsh and others, in trust for the parish, in which it still continues.

On the west side of Wood-street is Maiden-lane; on the south side of which is Wax-chandlers' Hall, a handsome modern brick building, well fitted up for the use of the company. Over the centre window, on the north side, are the arms of the company; and, over the two end windows, a bee-hive, carved in stone.

Addle-street, which is on the east side of Wood-street, is supposed to have taken its name from the Saxon word *adel*, "noble," on account of its vicinity to Athelstan or Adelstan Palace, just noticed; but we can hardly assent to this etymology, as we have Noble-street itself not far off. We are therefore inclined to refer to the original sense of the word—"vain, empty," an allusion perhaps to the wealth which the other streets contained.

Halls are plentiful hereabouts.—At the corner of Staining-lane stands Haberdashers' Hall, a very handsome and ancient brick building, spacious and lofty, and paved with marble and Purbeck stone. At the west end a screen beautifully ornamented with Corinthian pilasters deserves the attention of the curious.—Not far from this is Plasterers' Hall; and on the west side of the street is the hall belonging to the company of Parish Clerks, with the arms neatly carved and painted over the door.

On the north side of Silver-street, directly opposite the cemetery of St. Olave's parish, is Monkwell-street, which took its name from being the residence of the monks of St. James's hermitage, and from a well belonging to them.—On the west side of this street, near the centre, is Barbers' Hall. This building was designed by that great architect Inigo Jones; and, though of a simple construction, is very elegant, and considered as one of his master-pieces. The grand entrance from Monkwell-street is enriched with the company's arms, large fruit, and other decorations. The court-room has a fret-work ceiling, and is adorned with several beautiful paintings, particularly a very handsome piece, by Hans Holbein, of king Henry VIII. uniting the barbers and surgeons into one company; it contains portraits of eighteen of the most eminent members of the company at that time. The theatre belonging to the hall, at the time these companies were united, contained some chirological curiosities; but, since the barbers and surgeons have been made separate bodies, the latter have taken those curiosities away, and the theatre has ever since been shut up and deserted.

Nearly opposite to this hall are the alms-houses, founded in the year 1575, by sir Ambrose Nicholas, knight, lord-mayor and father, for twelve widows of members of that company—an excellent institution, which, however, is but one among a great number of establishments of that humane and benevolent kind.

Lamb's Chapel, in a court of that name at the north corner of Monkwell-street, was founded as early as the time of king Edward I. when it was dedicated to St. James, and distinguished by the name of St. James's Chapel, or the Hermitage on the Wall, from its being situated so near to London Wall. This hermitage belonged to the abbot and convent of Gerondon, in Leicestershire, who kept two Cistercian monks of their own order in this place. At the general dissolution of religious houses, it was granted by Henry VIII. to William Lamb, a gentleman of his chapel, and afterwards a clothworker of this city; who bequeathed it, with his house and appurtenances, to the value of thirty pounds per annum, to the Clothworkers' Company, for paying a minister to read divine service in this chapel, on Sundays, Wednesdays, and Fridays, and to relieve a certain number of poor people at different times throughout the year. The company of Clothworkers have four sermons preached to them annually, in this chapel, on four principal festivals in the year, viz. the Annunciation of the Blessed Virgin, the feast of St. John Baptist, of St. Michael the Archangel, and of St. Thomas the Apostle. On these days, they relieve twelve poor men, and as many women, with one shilling each, in money; and, at Michaelmas, they give to each of them a gown, a shift, and a pair of shoes. Hence this chapel has acquired the appellation of Lamb's Chapel.

Opposite to Lamb's-chapel-court is a small street, called Hart-street, on the north side of which is a charitable foundation, by Mr. Robert Rogers, leather-feller and merchant-adventurer, for six ancient couple, who have each two rooms, and receive four pounds per annum in money.

In Wood-street are three very considerable inns for stages and waggons—the Castle, the Bell, and Cross Keys. At the west corner of Wood-street and Cheapside, there remain four old houses, particularly remarkable for being much lower than the others on the same side, and for several ornaments in stone, among which we remark two curious old masks over the windows in the centre. Be-



hind these houses is a small church-yard, but without any tombs or grave-stones: it is separated from the street by an iron railing; and a couple of lime-trees wave in melancholy silence over the long-forgotten ashes of some of our ancestors. It belonged anciently to the parish-church of St. Peter, which stood where these four houses now are, and was a rectory, the patronage of which was anciently in the abbot and convent of St. Alban's; in whom it continued till the suppression of their monastery, when Henry VIII. granted it to the earl of Southampton: it is now in the gift of private persons. The church, being destroyed by the fire in 1666, was not rebuilt; and the parish was united to that of St. Matthew, Friday-street. In the year 1401, a license was granted to the inhabitants of this parish, to erect a shed or shop, before their church in Cheapside, for which they were to pay, annually, to the chamber of London, the sum of thirty shillings and four pence; but, this ground-rent proving too high, it was reduced to thirteen shillings and four pence. On the site of this building, which was called the Long Shop, the four shops above mentioned were afterwards erected with rooms over them.

From this part of Cheapside, which appears of a noble breadth, and great extent, we may form an idea of our metropolis, and of its business which, alive every-where, is particularly remarkable in this large artery, leading to the heart of the city. We have also a good view of that handsome church, St. Mary-le-Bow, one of the best conceptions of sir Christopher Wren. It is a magnificent pile, and one of the greatest ornaments of the neighbourhood. The steeple claims peculiar admiration for its lightness, elegance, and proportions; being built of Portland stone, of several stages, adorned with columns, and of the height of two hundred and twenty-five feet. The last object at top is the vane, in the shape of a dragon, chosen as a compliment to the city, to whose arms this fabulous being is the well-known supporter.

If we leave this church on the east, we find, in our return to St. Paul's, Friday-street, at the north end of which stands the parish-church of St. Matthew the evangelist. The patronage of this church, which is a rectory, was in the abbot and convent of Westminster, till their suppression; when, the conventual church being converted into a cathedral, Henry VIII. conferred it upon the bishop. But, the new bishopric being dissolved soon after, Edward VI. in the year 1551, granted the advowson of this church to the bishop of London and his successors, in whom it still continues. The old church was destroyed by the fire of London, and the present structure erected upon its ruins. It is a plain stone building, with one series of large arched windows; and at the east end is the steeple, which consists of a square brick tower, wholly devoid of ornament. The length of this church is sixty feet, its breadth thirty-three, the height of the roof thirty-one, and that of the tower seventy-four feet.

Old Change, the next street to this westward, is a slight momento of the King's Exchange, or office for receiving bullion in exchange for coin, once standing there. This was farmed to the citizens of London, who received the old coining-irons, and delivered new ones to all the mints in England. The street is dark, being highly built and narrow. The eastern part of Colet's school occupies the west side of it; the east side consists of respectable warehouses. It crosses Watling-street at right angles, and goes with a gentle slope and serpentine winding down to Old Fish-street.

At the intersection of Watling-street with Old Change, stands the parish-church of St. Austin, called, in old records, *Ecclesia Sancti Augustini ad Portam*, because it stood fast by the gate leading out of St. Paul's-church-yard into Watling-street. It is a rectory, the patronage of which appears to have been always in the dean and chapter of St. Paul's; for it is mentioned in their books in the year 1181, when Ralph de Diceto was dean. The old church was destroyed by the fire of London, on the ruins of which

the present edifice was erected. It is a substantial structure, built with stone, and well pewed and wainscoted within: the pulpit is finely embellished; the altar-piece is spacious and beautiful, with a very handsome pediment in the front, supported by pillars in imitation of porphyry; and on the top of the pediment are the king's arms. The length of this church is fifty-one feet, the breadth forty-five, the height of the roof thirty, of the steeple a hundred and forty-five.

After the fire of London, this church was made parochial for the parish of St. Austin and that of St. Faith, which was united to it.—The church of St. Faith was originally a distinct building from St. Paul's, at the east end of it; but was demolished between the years 1251 and 1256, to make way for the enlargement of that cathedral; and, in lieu of it, a place of worship was given to the parishioners in *cryptis* (corruptly the *crowds*), or western part of the vault, under the choir of the cathedral, which, being dedicated to St. Faith, acquired the appellation of *Ecclesia Sancta Fidei in Cryptis*. Here the inhabitants continued to perform their religious duties until the year 1551, when the Chapel of Jesus, at the east end of the vault, was suppressed; which being much larger, and better lighted, they were permitted to remove into that, and continued to occupy it until the cathedral was destroyed by the fire in 1666; after which, this parish being united to St. Austin's, the parishioners were no longer in want of a church. It is a rectory, and one of the peculiars belonging to the dean and chapter of St. Paul's, where they are both patrons and ordinaries. Part of the church-yard belonging to St. Faith's parish was taken to enlarge the street at the east end of St. Paul's church-yard; the remainder lies within the inclosure, and serves for a burying-place for the parishioners of St. Faith.

On the other side of Cheapside, and westward from Wood-street, Sadlers' Hall has its opening, with an elegant front and the arms of the company boldly and expressively carved over the gate. On the same side opens Gutter-lane—"so called of Guthurun, sometime owner thereof; the inhabitants of this lane (of old time) were gold-beaters, as does appear by records in the exchequer. For the Easterling money was appointed to be made of fine silver, such as men made into *foyle* ('feuille,' leaf;) and was commonly called *silver of Guthurun's-lane*."—Hence arose the word *sterling*, used to denote pure and genuine money, and in general every thing of undoubted value.

A little farther in the same direction is Foster-lane; on the east side of which stands the parochial church of St. Vedast, alias Foster. This church, which is a rectory, is so denominated from being dedicated to St. Vedast, bishop of Arras. Stowe calls St. *Foster* a corruption perhaps of the name as pronounced at Arras and other places, St. *Vaast*—the letter V being often changed into an F in transition from one tongue to another.—The first mention made of this church, is, that Walter de London was presented thereto in the year 1308. The patronage of this church was anciently in, and continued with, the prior and convent of Canterbury, till the year 1352, when it was transferred to the archbishop. It is one of the thirteen peculiars in this city belonging to the archiepiscopal see. Though this church was not entirely destroyed by the dreadful conflagration in 1666, yet it received very considerable damage; and was afterwards repaired, for the most part, upon the old walls. The steeple stood till the year 1694, when it was found in such a weak condition, that the parishioners had it taken down and rebuilt, at their own charge, entirely of stone. It is sixty-nine feet long, fifty-one feet broad, and thirty-six feet high, to the roof, and is well lighted by a range of windows, placed so high, that the doors open under them. The tower of this church is one of sir Christopher Wren's happiest efforts.

To this parish was annexed, after the fire of London, the churchless parish of St. Michael le Querne, anciently called *Sanctus Michael ad Bladum*, in French *St. Michel au Bled*,



or "St. Michael at the Corn," which has been corrupted into *Querne*. But the word *Cornu*, in French *Corne*, in Spanish *Querno*, might afford a few hours of discussion to etymologists—for it *might* have been originally called St. Michael *ad Cornu*, at the corner, or *horn*, of the street, as well as at *Bladum*; for surely, when the church was built, no arable lands were inclosed within the wall of the city; and yet on the other hand, as the revenue of this church might have been paid in kind, *in blado*, or corn, the church *might* have taken its distinctive appellation from that circumstance.—We beg to observe, by the bye, that the Latin word *Bladum*, and French *Bled*, arise undoubtedly from the much-older word *blade*, which was anciently used to describe grass, or sward, from which the shape of a sword took its name. Did we not hold ourselves already excused for giving the reader some respite from more serious and uniform matter, we might here claim indulgence on the plea of the Greek axiom: "Pour down knowledge as you like, and catch the shower who can." Some other antiquaries have found that near this church was a corn-market, reaching westward to the shambles, from which situation it was sometimes called *St. Michael de Macello*; so that this discussion might still be extended, were we still inclined to trespass on the reader's patience.

The church of St. Michael le Querne stood at the west end of Cheap-side, fronting the street; but, not being rebuilt, its site was laid into the street, in pursuance of the act for re-building the city. The earliest account we find of it is in the year 1181, when it appears to have been only a chapel, and so it continued many years after. It was not made a rectory, till possessed by Thomas Newton, who was buried in the choir in the year 1461.

At the east end of this church stood the Old Cross, in Westcheap, which was taken down in the year 1320, to make way for the enlarging of the church, and for the erection of a little conduit, at the north-east gate of St. Paul's church-yard: which appears to have been the place where Walter Stapleton, bishop of Exeter, was decolated by the populace, in 1326. The Great Cross was one of the crosses erected by Edward I. in token of his affection for his deceased queen Eleanor, at every place where her body rested in its way to interment, in the year 1290. It had originally the statue of the queen; but, falling to decay, was rebuilt in 1442, by John Hatherley, mayor of the city, and several of the citizens, when it was ornamented with images of the Resurrection, the Virgin, Edward the Confessor, and some others. After the Reformation, these images gave great offence, and were frequently mutilated; for which reason, the goddess Diana was substituted for the virgin Mary. At length, in 1643, the puritanic bigotry of the parliament occasioned a resolution for taking down all crosses, and demolishing all popish paintings; and the destruction of this cross being committed to sir Robert Harlow, he went on the service with true zeal, attended by a troop of horse, and two companies of foot, and executed his orders most effectually.

At the north-east corner of Foster-lane stands the hall belonging to the company of Goldsmiths. This spacious building supplies the place of one which was originally erected by Drew Berentin about the year 1407, but was destroyed by the fire of London. It is an irregular structure, built with brick, and the corners wrought in rustic of stone. The door is large, arched, and decorated with Doric columns, which support a pediment of the arched kind, but open for a shield, in which are the arms of the company. The hall-room is spacious, and both that and the other rooms are all well lighted. In the court-room is a fine portrait of sir Hugh Myddelton, with the words *Fontes Fodinae* on the picture, to signify his double attention to his mines and the New River. Here are also some other good paintings, particularly a portrait of sir Martin Bowes, lord-mayor in 1545, in the costume of his office. The date on the picture is 1566.

On the west side of Foster-lane stood the parochial

church of St. Leonard, Foster-lane, which was founded about the year 1236, by William Kirkham, dean of St. Martin's le Grand, in the court-yard of the collegiate church, for the use of the inhabitants of the sanctuary. It derived its name from its dedication to a French saint, and its situation was added, to distinguish it from another church, dedicated to the same saint, in Eastcheap. It is a rectory; the patronage was anciently in the dean and canons of St. Martin's le Grand; in whom it continued till that deanery was annexed to the abbey of Westminster; the dean and chapter of which still possess it; but, the church being destroyed by the fire of London, and the parish united to that of Christ-church, Newgate-street, they present alternately with the governors of St. Bartholomew's hospital.

The church of St. Mary Staining, or Stone-church, before the fire of London, stood on the north side of Oat-lane. The reason why it received the additional epithet of Staining, is very uncertain; some imagining it to be derived from the Painter Stainers, who might probably live near it, while others suppose the reason to be that already assigned at p. 453. This church not being rebuilt after the fire, the parish was united to that of St. Michael, Wood-street; but, in consideration of the small endowment of this parish, it was provided, by the act which united them, that the patrons of St. Michael's should present twice in three times. The advowson of this rectory was anciently in the priores and convent of Clerkenwell, in whom it continued till their suppression by Henry VIII. when it came to the crown, in whom it still remains. The site of this church is now used as a burial-place for the parishioners, who hold a general vestry, and have two churchwardens and four overseers, though there are only forty-seven houses in the parish.

Near the north end of Noble-street stands a convenient hall, originally built by the company of Scriveners; who, being reduced to low circumstances, sold it to the company of Coachmakers, to whom it still belongs.

The end of Cheap-side presents three openings to the view.—An oblique one on the left of the beholder into St. Paul's church-yard; with an "*échappée de vue*," a glimpse of the church, through the branchings of the old tree mentioned at page 410. The next opening is in Pater-noster-row, the seat of disposable learning, which flies hence to the other parts of the united kingdom; a place which once was chiefly inhabited, as we hinted at p. 52, by Pater-noster-makers; but which now exhibits every kind and species of literature, sacred and profane, from the Bible itself down to the blasphemies of Daniel Isaac Eaton and Joanna Southcott. The other opening is the great thoroughfare from the north-east part of the town; we mean Newgate-street, which took its name from the gate formerly standing at the west end of it. See p. 105, 6.

Again arrived at the centre of our perambulations, St. Paul's, we shall take a second flight, which will be northwards through St. Martin's le Grand, the first opening on our right in Newgate Street.—St. Martin le Grand is a distinct liberty, subject to the dean and chapter of Westminster. It was originally a college, founded in the year 700, by Wythred king of Kent; but was rebuilt and endowed, about the year 1056, by a noble Saxon named Ingelric, and his brother Edward, for a dean and secular canons, or priests, and was dedicated to St. Martin: the epithet *le Grand* was afterwards added on account of the great and extraordinary privileges, particularly the dangerous one of sanctuary, granted to it by different monarchs. William the Conqueror confirmed the endowment of this house, and the possession of the lands given by the founders, to which he added all the moor-land without Cripplegate; and freed it and its canons from all disturbance and exaction of any bishops, archdeacons, or their ministers, and from all regal services. He likewise granted them sac and soc, toll and team, and a long etcetera of Saxon liberties, in the fullest manner that any



church in England possessed them. His charter, which bears date in 1068, and is sanctioned by John and Peter, the pope's legates, concludes thus: "If any person whatsoever shall presume to alter any thing hereby granted, let him be punished with Judas the traitor." It is astonishing what care, and what sort of means, our ancestors took to secure their grants to posterity. We have seen deeds at the end of which the mightiest imprecations were thundered against infractors or prevaricators: their heads were to be boiled in coppers full of brimstone, their bowels made into ruffs for the devil's neck, and so forth; thus binding, by fears of punishments beyond the grave, the faith of men on this side of it.—The charter was confirmed by Henry III. who granted the dean of the monastery and church more ample privileges. And it was again confirmed by Edward II. with an additional privilege, that no inhabitant within this jurisdiction should be sued out of their own court, except before the king, or his chief justice. By the charter of Edward III. it was ordained, that all inquisitions, to be taken by the justices, and other the ministers of the men of the city of London, should be taken at Great St. Martin's, in London, and not elsewhere: except inquisitions to be taken in circuits of the Tower of London, and for the gaol-delivery of Newgate. But Henry VIII. in the year 1519, revoked that charter, and removed the sessions of the peace from St. Martin's to Guildhall.

King Henry VI. confirmed the foregoing charters; but he established certain articles concerning its sanctuary, in cases of debt, felony, and treason; by which it appears, that St. Martin's was, at that time, a sanctuary for great disorders, and a shelter for the loosest sort of people; and that every excess of vice and irreligion, fraud, oppression, and breach of the laws, was exercised within its liberty. To so great a height of licentiousness was this sanctuary grown, that, in the reign of Henry VII. the sheriffs of London venturing to take from thence, by violence, a person who had been guilty of murder, the abbot of Westminster exhibited a bill to the king against them; upon which the cause was heard in the Star-chamber, and the sheriff severely fined.

This place was occasionally the residence of the kings of England; as appears from a writ of Edward I. being dated here on the 20th of October, in the first year of his reign. And, in the same reign, the king's court appears to have been held here; for, in 1293, a cause was removed from the Court of Hustings, to be tried before Gilbert de Thornville, and others, at St. Martin's the Great, in London; and the custos and sheriffs were commanded to bring the record, and process, and all things pertaining to it, before them. The deans were also among the greatest men in the nation; for, in the reign of Edward III. William Mulse, who held that office, was chief chamberlain of the exchequer, and receiver and keeper of the king's treasure and jewels; and, in the preceding reign, Petrus de Sabaudia was promoted to the archiepiscopal see of Lyons, in France.

The church of St. Martin's le Grand was anciently in the donation of the king; as appears by Edward I. having, in the 8th year of his reign, granted the deanery to Galsfridus de Newband. In the Bishop of London's Register of Old Wills, it is called a *parish*; and a curfew-bell was rung here, as at Bow-church, &c. to give the citizens warning of the time of night, and to keep within doors.

This college was surrendered to king Edward VI. in the year 1548; and, in the same year, the college church was pulled down, and many tenements erected on its site, which were immediately taken at high rents, by non-freemen, in consequence of being exempt from the jurisdiction of the city. In the year 1585, a great number of foreign tradesmen and artificers planted themselves on this spot; among whom were John James and Anthony Emerick, subjects of Philip king of Spain, who were said to have been the first silk-throwers in London, and to have brought that trade into England.

St. Martin's le Grand leads from the north-east end of Newgate-street, formerly called Blowbladder-street, from being a place where bladders were sold, (on account of the shambles being near at hand,) to the spot where Alders-gate stood; but the liberty extends only as far as Angel-street and Bell-square, near St. Anne's lane; the remainder being in the freedom of the city. This part of the street, with the courts and alleys adjoining, is considered as part of the liberty of Westminster; and the inhabitants are governed, and vote accordingly, and carry on their trades, without being free of the city of London. It has also a court of record within itself, subject to the dean and chapter of Westminster, held every Wednesday, for the trial of all personal actions, of what nature soever. In this court, the leading process is a *capias* against the body, or an attachment against the goods; so that a man's goods may be seized in his own house, upon the first process, if he himself be not taken. We understand that the whole of this liberty is in the parish of St. Paul's, Covent-garden.

This little street, though called le Grand, may be considered as a narrow neck to the large body of Aldersgate-street. Here are several alleys and passages, which have nothing remarkable in themselves, but they are useful in shortening the way to the adjacent streets. One of those communicates under ground, to Bagnio-court, Newgate-street.

On the west side of Aldersgate-street, the first opening is a street called *Bull-and-Mouth*, by corruption of the words *Boulogne Mouth*, or *Harbour*, the sign of an inn standing in it, and which was either kept by some person from Boulogne, or on account of its immediate correspondence with France through Boulogne.—There is still on the south side a very large and noted inn for stages and wagons, under the same title; but its daily interest seems to point towards the western counties in general, and especially towards Plymouth and Exeter.—Opposite to Dean's-court on the east, we find Angel-street, with an inn of that name.

Farther on is a place well known by the name of Little Britain, or *Bretagne-street*, so called from the mansion of the duke of Bretagne, which stood near Aldersgate-church, but has been many years destroyed. This street was also the residence of several of our own nobility; the earl of Peterborough's house stood at the corner, where the south part of Bartholomew's Hospital now stands; and the whole east side of the street was occupied by a stately mansion, belonging to lord Montague; the name of which is still preserved in Montague-court.

This street forms an angle at about half its length, and opposite the bend some old houses are pulling down to improve the approach to Christ's Hospital. This part of Little Britain then communicates with Smithfield through Duke-street and St. Bartholomew's Hospital.—On the south corner of Little Britain, stands the parish-church of St. Botolph, Aldersgate. This church received its name from being dedicated to St. Botolph, a Saxon monk, and its vicinity to the gate. It was anciently a rectory, the patronage of which was in the dean and canons of St. Martin's le Grand; but it continued unappropriated until the year 1399, when Richard II. by his letters patent, dated May the 21st, at Pembroke, gave license to Thomas Stanley, dean of St. Martin's le Grand, to appropriate the income, at that time not exceeding five marks per annum, to his collegiate church, for the celebration of a perpetual anniversary for his deceased consort Anne, upon the day of her death, during his life; but, after his demise, the anniversary to be solemnized upon his obit *for ever*. In consequence of this license, the church of St. Botolph was appropriated to that of St. Martin's le Grand, by a commission from the bishop of London to his official, the dean and canons being bound to provide a sufficient maintenance for a chaplain to serve the cure; since which time it has continued a donative or curacy. When Henry VII. in the year 1493, annexed



the collegiate church of St. Martin's le Grand to the convent of St. Peter, Westminster, this church also became subject to that abbey; but at the suppression of monasteries was granted, by Henry VIII. to his new bishop of Westminster. That bishopric, however, being dissolved on the accession of queen Mary, and the abbot and monks restored to their convent, this church reverted to its old masters; and when the monks were finally expelled, and the convent converted into a collegiate church, by authority of parliament, in the reign of queen Elizabeth, she granted the curacy to the dean and chapter, who still retain it; it is, however, subject to the bishop and archdeacon of London, to whom it pays procuration. The antiquity of this church may be collected from the parish-records; from which it appears, that a house, anciently given to the parishioners, was, in the year 1319, demised by them, upon lease, to Richard Rothing. It escaped the fire of London in 1666; but became so ruinous, that it has been since rebuilt. It is a plain brick edifice, with a wooden tower crowned with an open turret. There is one large arched window, at the east end; but the light is principally derived from sky-lights in the roof.

On the same side of the street, a little farther to the north, stood a palace, that was the residence of the marquis of Dorchester, and afterwards that of lord Petre, of whom it was purchased, after the restoration, for the city-mansion of the bishop of London; from which time it was known by the name of London House. It was a large commodious brick building, and had a neat chapel belonging to it; but, being at length deserted by the prelates, it was let out into several tenements and warehouses. This ancient edifice was destroyed by fire, since which new buildings have been erected in its stead; the principal of which is that occupied by Mr. Seddon, and still called London House.

A little to the south of London House, formerly stood the fine mansion of the earls of Westmoreland; but this, being also deserted by its noble possessors, was let out in tenements, and to mechanical uses, and at length became so decayed, that, about forty years ago, it was entirely taken down; the site is now occupied by Westmoreland-buildings, and the adjacent houses. To the north of London House is the old building, formerly the Half-moon Tavern, celebrated as the place of resort of the most noted wits of the sixteenth century. It is at present let in separate tenements; but the old front, ornamented with foliage and grotesque figures, has suffered very little alteration.

On the east side of the street, nearly opposite to these buildings, is Shaftesbury house, or, as it is sometimes called, Thanet-house. This edifice, which is by the masterly hand of Inigo Jones, is built with brick, and ornamented with stone in a very elegant taste. The front is adorned with Ionic pilasters, from the volutes of which hang garlands of foliage. These pilasters are doubled on each side of the centre window, over which is an arched pediment, opened for the reception of a shield. The door is arched, and from each side of it springs an elegant scroll, for the support of a balcony. This structure had been let out for mechanical uses, and was going fast to decay, when, in the year 1750, the London Lying-in Hospital was instituted: the promoters of that charity, having hired this house, repaired it thoroughly, and preserved it, for a time, from the fate of its opposite neighbours. The increase of that institution having rendered a larger building necessary, they quitted Shaftesbury-house in 1771, and were succeeded by the General Dispensary, which still occupies the back part of it. The front is divided into tenements, and let to respectable shopkeepers.

Falcon-square at the east side, and the famous inn called the Castle and Falcon, are the only remarkable objects at this point; but, if the perambulator, when at the corner of Angel-street, will turn round, he will have, through the narrow entrance of St. Martin's le Grand, and above the houses of Newgate-street, a curious and most interesting view of the dome of St. Paul's, that seems as if rising

in majesty above his head. The circumstance of the body of the church being screened by a vast mass of edifices from the eye of the spectator, allows the imagination, at the sight of the noble cupola, to fancy a still greater monument of architecture than the cathedral even is in reality.

On the north side of St. Anne's-lane is the parish-church of that name, on account of its having been dedicated to the mother of the virgin Mary—and the circumstance of its being distinguished from others of the same dedication by the addition of "in the willows," is an indubitable proof that its origin is anterior to this part of the city being regularly built, and when it still retained, in its bosom and among the houses, rope-walks and willows, their usual ornaments. In the time of Stow the willows were gone, but several tall ash-trees were growing in the church-yard.—The old church contained several curious epitaphs, most of which Stow has preserved in his Survey, and which, by their conceits, show the style of ancient times. On a table of stone, in the north aisle of the chancel, was the following curious distich:

Quos anguis tristi diro cum vulnere stravit,  
Hos sanguis Christi mirotum munere lavit.

reading thus:

Quos anguis tristi diro cum vulnere stravit,  
Hos sanguis Christi mirotum munere lavit.

In English, "Those, whom Satan felled with a cruel wound, the blood of Christ, by an admirable gift, has healed."—This curious sort of inscription was often seen about ancient churches; and there is one near the cathedral of Winchester which runs thus:

Sacrificis illachoro.  
Serva fit ift f oro.

united it makes:

Sacra fit illa choro;  
Serva fit ista foro.

Meaning that one way leads to church, the other to market.

The foundation of this church (St. Anne in the Willows) cannot be traced; but it appears to be of some antiquity, by John de Chimerby being collated thereto on the 5th of July, 1322. It is a rectory, the patronage of which was in the dean and canons of St. Martin's le Grand, until that church, with its appurtenances, was annexed to the abbey of Westminster; by virtue of which, the abbot and convent, and after them the bishop of Westminster, became the patrons; but on the suppression of the bishopric of Westminster, queen Mary granted the advowson to the bishop of London, and his successors; in whom it still remains. The old church shared the common fate in the great fire of 1666; soon after which, the present one was erected in its stead, and the parish of St. John Zachary united to it. It is a very plain edifice, lighted by a few large windows, cased with rustic. The tower is square, consisting of two stages above the roof, and crowned with a wooden turret. The body of the church is fifty-three feet square; the altitude of the roof, which is supported by four handsome Corinthian pillars, is thirty-five feet, and that of the tower and turret eighty-four feet.

The parish of St. John Zachary, is also a rectory, the church of which stood at the north-west corner of Maiden-lane. The patronage of this church appears to have continued in the dean and chapter of St. Paul's, from its foundation; for it was rated to pay an annual sum to the canons of St. Paul's as early as the year 1181, at which time it was denominated St. John Baptist. The site of it is now a cemetery for the use of the parishioners. Part of the walls of the old church is still remaining in the church-yard, and foundations of the adjacent buildings.

Here Aldersgate-street widens considerably, and assumes a good appearance; but we are sorry to say that the houses in general do not correspond, by their size or elegance, to the wide display of this great egress towards the northern counties. The Doric entrance of the *Albion*, however, must be distinguished to the credit of the architect who conceived and executed the portico; it favours most classically



sically of the taste of ancient times, when Grecian orders were employed to decorate the fanes of the gods, the palaces of emperors, public edifices, and the private abodes of the rich. The Albion is a very respectable tavern for the accommodation of clubs, parties, &c.

Barbican, on the left, calls our attention. Its name rouses ideas of ancient fortifications, and connects topography with history by an interesting alliance. The etymology of the name is still enveloped in obscurity: Stow derives it from *Burgh-Kenning*, a sort of watch-tower, or vedette; *specula* from which, through loop-holes, the besieged could see, without being seen, the approach of the enemy. Some have thought fit to derive *Barbican* from two Latin words, *Barba* and *cana*, "grey-beard," a ludicrous appellation, which might have originated from the hoary visages of the old watchmen appearing through the loop-holes. For the security of Cripplegate, this Barbican stood as an advanced post. We ought to remark here, that these barbicans were considered of such importance, that the custody of them was always intrusted to some person of consequence in the state. This tower, being granted by Edward III. to the earl of Suffolk, became his city residence. It afterwards descended to lord Willoughby de Parham, and acquired the name of Willoughby-house. Adjoining to the Barbican, on the east, was another stately edifice, called the Garter-house, which was erected by sir Thomas Wriothesley, Garter king of arms, uncle to the first earl of Southampton. On the top of this building was a chapel, called by the name of *Sanctissime Trinitatis in alto*. The site is now occupied by Garter-place. But the present Garter claims no sort of right to this place.

At a short distance to the north-west is Bridgewater-square, a small neat quadrangle of plain but handsome houses, with a grass-plot and gravel-walk surrounded with iron-rails. This square is built on the site of the house and gardens belonging to the earls of Bridgewater.

From the east end of Barbican runs Beech-lane, which Strype conjectures was named from Nicholas de la Beech, lieutenant of the Tower of London, dismissed from that office in the 13th of Edward III. In this street, a part of the stately mansion-house of the abbot of Ramsey in Huntingdonshire is still remaining, the rooms whereof are very spacious and lofty; and, judging by the dimensions of the kitchen, it must have been built for the use of a numerous family. In the time of Charles II. this was the residence of prince Rupert. It afterwards came into the possession of sir Drew Drewrie, and obtained the name of Drewrie-house. It is now let out in tenements. At the north-east end of Beech-lane is a set of alms-houses, built in the year 1540, pursuant to the will of lady Anne Askew, widow of sir Christopher Askew, lord-mayor of London in the year 1533, for eight poor widows of the Drapers' company, with an allowance of three pounds per annum, and half a chaldron of coals; which endowment was left in trust to the company of Drapers. On the south side of Beech-lane is Glovers' Court, in which stands Glovers' Hall, a very old building, which has been some time deserted by the company, who now transact their business at the George-and-Vulture Tavern, Lombard-street.

At the east end of Barbican we enter Redcross-street, which, if we follow it to the south, will bring us back to Cripplegate-church.—This street is well built; and on the east side, near the middle, is a library, founded by Daniel Williams, D. D. a Presbyterian minister, for the use of the dissenting ministers of the Presbyterian, Independent, and Baptist, persuasions. This gentleman, in 1711, bequeathed his valuable collection of books and manuscripts, for this purpose, with a handsome salary for a librarian and a housekeeper; and, in pursuance of his will, a neat building was erected in Redcross-street, with a genteel apartment for the librarian, &c. and a room, capable of containing forty thousand volumes. In this library is a register, in which dissenters may record the births of their children. This foundation, which has been greatly aug-

mented since its first institution, is under the direction of twenty-three trustees, viz. fourteen ministers and nine laymen, who must be all Presbyterians, under whom there is a secretary and a steward. Here are likewise some curiosities; as, an Egyptian mummy, and a glass basin which held the water wherewith queen Elizabeth was baptized. This last is kept in a bag, whereon is fixed a paper, that explains how the basin came into the possession of the managers of the library. This and Whitecross-street derived their names from a red and white cross, which stood in Beech-lane.

Eastward we find the celebrated Grub-street; but it retains no sign of its having been once the residence of wit and learning, of Apollo and his court. It afterwards became noted as the residence of needy and inferior writers; so that, if a production is mean and illiberal, it is almost proverbial to say it comes out of Grub-street. (See *Gent. Mag.* vol. i.) The different artificers employed in archery, such as bowyers, bowstring-makers, &c. inhabited in old times Grub-street, the last street, in this part of the town, in being about the time of Aggas's Map of London; all beyond, as far as Bishopsgate Without, were gardens, fields, or morafs. Grub-street, however, had been very long built, as its existence, by the same name, is identified in charters as far back as the year of Edward II. —In Hanover-square, on the east side of this street, is the house formerly occupied by general Monk, who was created duke of Albemarle for his services in restoring Charles II.—Farther to the north is Sun-alley, which forms the boundary of the city on this side.

Proceeding westward, the next street is Whitecross-street, which is of considerable length. In this street was an hospital of St. Giles, founded in the reign of Edward I. but, being a cell to a French priory, it was suppressed, among other foreign foundations, by Henry V. who soon afterwards re-founded it for a domestic fraternity of St. Giles, and reserved the appointment of a custos to himself and his successors. This street, with Grub-street, Golden-lane, and Chiswell-street, in Cripplegate parish, remained unpaved until the 35th of Henry VIII. when they were become almost impassable; in consequence of which an act of parliament was passed for paving them. According to Penant, a certain row of houses on this spot had been used as a nursery for the children of Henry VIII. The building was afterwards converted into a play-house; and was rebuilt in 1599 by Alleyn the player, founder of Dulwich-college. It was called the Fortune Theatre, and had a figure of the goddess in front. "The present structure in Golden-lane," says Howes's Chron. "having in front the figures of Hope and Charity, appears to have been built about the year 1621, the old one having shared the common fate of theatres, in being destroyed by fire." Golden-lane Brewery was built on this site in 1805.

If we turn back to Whitecross-street, we shall have to notice the progress of a large edifice now building there, and intended to be a city and county prison for debtors only. The walls and their buttresses are in the new style; that is, instead of having the wall straight and perpendicular and the buttresses sloping, these are perfectly vertical and the gentle slope is put upon the walls. The top of the buttresses is adorned with a pediment in stone; and the whole, according to the plan, will have a great and imposing appearance.—This prison, which is built for the purpose of distinguishing the confinement of debtors from that of criminals in the crowded prisons of Newgate and the Compters, had its origin in the observations published by sir Richard Phillips in his Letter to the Livery of London, which were ably supported by a committee of the corporation of London, appointed to report on them. The first stone was laid by Mr. Alderman Wood in July 1813; and the part intended for city debtors is finished. It is to be regretted that the high price of ground has too much limited the areas for exercise; and that there is at present no entrance from Redcross-street for the city-side, which is kept distinct from the country-side,



side, the only entrance being a common and remote one from Whitecross-street. The accommodations will however far exceed those hitherto possessed by this unhappy class of persons, while the site, being a little more than a quarter of a mile from St. Paul's, does not remove the incarcerated from the vortex of humanity, and the attention of their friends. The architect is Mr. Montague, the city-surveyor; and the building and ground will cost not less than 80,000l.

On the north side of the town-ditch, and at the west end of St. Giles's church-yard, was a pond of water, fed by a considerable spring; but, the former being filled up, the latter was arched over, about the year 1440, at the expense of sir Richard Whittington, and preserved by the name of Crowder's Well, which still remains, and is worthy the attention of the curious antiquary. Crowder's-Well-alley, which took its name from the well, is now converted into a handsome modern-built street, called Well-street.

From the south end of Redcross-street runs Jewin-street, of old time called the Jews' Garden, as being the only place appointed them, in England, for the interment of their dead, before the year 1177, when, after long suit to the king and parliament at Oxford, they were permitted to have a place assigned to them in every quarter where they dwelt. This piece of ground was retained by the Jews till the time of their total banishment from England; after which it was converted into garden-plats and summer-houses. This place, with the appurtenances, was anciently called Leyreflowe, which Edward I. granted to William de Monte Forte, dean of St. Paul's, London; "being a place (as it is expressed in a record) without Cripple-gate, and the suburbs of London, called Leyreflowe, and which was the burying-place of the Jews of London;" which was valued at forty shillings per annum.

Aldergate-street, which we have left for some time, and to which we now return, changes its name, a little beyond the eastern walls of the Charterhouse gardens, into Goswell-street. This large thoroughfare meets the City Road at its approach to Islington, and not far from the Angel inn.—This part is exceedingly interesting on several accounts. The great opening towards the north, which, though every day more and more blocked up by new buildings, still affords a wide prospect into the adjoining country. The elegant private houses lately erected about this spot; the windings, and successive disappearings and reappearings, of the New River; the busy aspect of the road, which, were it planted with trees on each side, would surpass the Parisian *Boulevards* in beauty—all contribute to give the entrance into Goswell-street an airy, lively, and delightful, appearance. The slope of Islington hill towards the west has a pleasing resemblance to an Italian landscape—the knoll covered with lowing cattle, the flat-roofed houses at a distance, the still pleasant vale where Bagnigge Wells, now shorn of its honours, displayed its verdure on the winding bank of the purling brook; all these increase the beauty of the scenery, and would furnish subjects for the pencil of a Rosa di Tivoli, or a Berchem. ISLINGTON has been fully described at vol. xi. p. 437.

In Goswell-street-road, we omitted to notice the Quakers' Workhouse or School.—The house was erected about the year 1786, on a large square of ground belonging to the Brewers' Company, which is held by the institution for 50l. at a rent of 16l. a-year for the first ninety years, and the remainder subject to an increase of 34l. a year. It is used as a meeting, which is held monthly on a Friday morning, and for the purpose of a charity-school. Apartments are provided in a neat house facing it for twelve men and twelve women, being poor and of the Society of Friends. The number of boys and girls is not limited. Six different meetings in London, together with some legacies and voluntary contributions, support the charity, and provide rewards for those females who preserve the places obtained for them, which are 30s. for the first, and

40s. for the second and third years; if they behave with propriety, they are allowed 40l. as a marriage-portion, and the boys 20l. The institution gives 10l. and the meeting who sends the boy 15l. as apprentice-fees. The house, meeting, school, apartments, and stairs, are as white and clean as brushes and industry can make them. The ceilings are remarkably high, and the windows large; consequently the rooms are perfectly dry and well aired; the outside has the appearance of a villa, surrounded as it is by pleasure-grounds, gardens, and trees.

The Dyers' alms-houses, on the south side of the City Road, were erected in the year 1776, for sixteen decayed members, with their wives or widows; the building consists of three sides of a quadrangle, containing eight houses of two rooms each, which, with the cellaring, are appropriated to the sixteen alms-folks; they receive an annual pension and coals. The company have also another alms-house, for ten decayed members, in St. John-street, near Brick-lane, Spitalfields; so that twenty-six persons or families are thus maintained with comfortable lodging.

We now return towards the city, through St. John Street and Clerkenwell. St. John Street, at the north end, has not so good an appearance as might be expected for the northern entrance into a great city; and perhaps, at a future time, a triumphal arch, in commemoration of some great event, will decorate the opening in this street.

Clerkenwell derives its name from a spring of pure and most-salubrious water filtered from the dews and showers of heaven through the grassy hills and clay-fastened grounds of Pentonville and Islington. The parish-clerks of the city of London used to meet there annually in order to exhibit dramatic representations, commonly called *mysteries*, because the subjects were taken from the scriptures. To these, several allusions have been made by ancient authors, and particularly by Shakespeare, but the point of which is now too obscure to be easily understood.—The water of this well was suffered to run waste for many years; but at length the parishioners caused it to be walled in, and a pump erected upon it for the use of the neighbouring inhabitants, on the front of which is an inscription, relating its history. It stands in Ray-street, nearly opposite to Mutton-hill.

The parish-church of St. James, Clerkenwell, is situated on the north side of Clerkenwell-green. On the spot where this church stands, was anciently a priory, founded by Jordan Briset, a wealthy baron, who, about the year 1100, gave to his chaplain fourteen acres of land, in a field adjoining to Clerks', or Clerken, well, whereon he built a monastery, which was no sooner erected, and dedicated to the honour of God and the Assumption of the Virgin Mary, than he placed therein a certain number of black nuns of the order of St. Benedict, in whom, and their successors, it continued till it was suppressed by Henry VIII. in the year 1539. Some time after the dissolution of the convent, the ground came to the inheritance of sir William Cavendish, who, being created duke of Newcastle, built a large brick mansion on the north-west side of the church, which for many years was called Newcastle House; but this has been long deserted, and the site of it is now occupied by modern buildings. The church belonging to the old priory not only served the nuns, but also the neighbouring inhabitants as a place of worship, and was made parochial on the dissolution of the nunnery, when it appears to have been dedicated to St. James the Less; whereas in the old records it is styled *Ecclesia Beatae Mariae de Fonte Clericorum*. In 1623, the steeple of the church being greatly decayed, a part of it fell down, whereupon the parish contracted to rebuild it. The new work was raised upon the old foundation; but, before it was entirely finished, it fell down, and destroyed a part of the church; both of which were, however, soon after rebuilt. The old church was a very heavy structure, partly Gothic, which was the original form, and partly Tuscan. It was taken down in the year 1788, and the old materials sold for eight hundred and twenty-five pounds; after



which the present edifice was, in pursuance of an act of parliament obtained for that purpose, erected in its stead. It is a lofty brick building, strengthened at the corners with rustic quoins of stone, and lighted by two series of windows. The tower is of stone, and erected upon the west end of the church, which is faced with stone, in order to give it a corresponding appearance: the two first stages above the roof are square, and contain the bells; above these are two open octangular towers, with pilasters of the Doric order at each corner, and from the uppermost rises a ball and vane. It is a curacy, in the gift of the parishioners at large.

The old priory-clofe still retains the name of Clerkenwell Clofe; on the left-side of it is a lofty brick-house, remarkable for being the reputed dwelling of Oliver Cromwell, and one of the places where meetings were held for the purpose of consulting on the measures which terminated in the dethronement and death of Charles I. The fact of Cromwell's residence here is however not clearly ascertained, and in all probability will ever remain in doubt; since the parish-books of that period are, by some unaccountable accident, lost; although those prior to it, as well as those which succeeded it, are preserved.

A little to the south-east of Clerkenwell Priory, where St. John's Square is now situated, stood the priory or hospital of St. John of Jerusalem. What a change! now private and not inelegant houses occupy the place of cloisters, cells, and chapels; and carriages thunder on the pavement which has taken the place of the brass-inlaid tomb-stones of cross-legged knights and monks on the floor of silent and awful cloisters! For the history of the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, see our article **KNIGHTHOOD**, vol. xi.

This house was founded by Jordan Briset and Muriel his wife, who purchased of the prioress and nuns of Clerkenwell ten acres of land, on which he erected the said hospital about the year 1110; but the church belonging to it was not dedicated to St. John till the year 1185. This foundation became the chief seat of the Knights Hospitalers in England. See p. 106. All that remains of it now is the old gate of the priory, still called St. John's Gate; the ornaments of which we at first depaired of rendering interesting or intelligible to the reader. By subsequent exertions, however, some remains have been saved from oblivion. See Plate VII. where fig. 1, 2, 3, represent the key-stones of the gate at the meeting of the groins.—The lamb and flag resting on the book of judgment, as mentioned in the Revelations, alluded to St. John. The cross was the arms of the priory, the same as that of St. George, and of London without the dagger. The other arms, a chevron between three roundels, with the cross in chief, are those of Thomas Docwra, prior in 1502-23, who built the gate. These are still extant, but nearly obliterated by the nibbling fingers of time and the merciless brush of workmen, who have painted them red, blue, or green, as their fancies prompted them, and who, like picture-cleaners, destroy the beauties they wish to bring out. Fig. 4. represents a small doorway leading to the top of the gate and the towers; the sweep of the arch is elegant, and has on each side the arms as above, which are also on each side of the southern front of the gate. Fig. 5. represents a door lately discovered under the great gate, in making apartments for the watch-house. It was carved in oak, and appeared as perfect as when first made. The great gate, which has the appearance of a stone building, is only casd with stone, the interior being composed of hard red brick.—St.-John's-lane continues from the gate southwards to the end of Cow Cross. In a parlour of a public house called the Baptist's Head, a curious old chimney-piece is still existing; see fig. 6. It is a frieze ornamented with fruit and flowers; in the centre are the arms of the owner, and at each end probably his crests. The arms are impaled. The side belonging to the gentleman is quarterly: first and fourth a chevron between three bugle-horns for Duncan; second and third

a bend for Radcliffe. The impalement for the wife, is a bend indented for Radcliffe, with a crescent for difference. The crest on the right is a stag statant; on the left, a talbot's head erased and collared.—This curious piece of workmanship is in the parlour of the house; and, had it not been for the rage of white-washing, would still exhibit proofs of a skilful chisel. The frieze is supported by two pilasters in the same style; and above there is a panneling of a curious kind, of which we give a specimen at fig. 7. It seems as if anciently the house had been wainscoted all over with this sort of ornament, a large piece of which serves now as a partition in a passage from the bar to the yard.—This lane has still a solitary and religious appearance, on account of the gate which terminates it, and still seems to be the *sacrum limen*, the awful entrance to those venerable and religious abodes where piety and silence ought to have dwelt, but where the vices opposite to them (not without other causes) brought on the ruin and dissolution of houses, the original purpose and intention of which had been so laudable. Under the gateway we find, on the left the watch-house, and on the other a wine-vault.

Turning the corner of Cow Cross, we are led to *Turnmill-street*, so called from the various mills which were put in motion by the river Wells; which used to pass through it. The river *Wells* had its name from the numerous wells in the neighbourhood, whose springs at length formed the river; it still runs under ground, and disembogues itself into the Thames on the west side of Blackfriars-bridge by Chatham Place. It is not even now a very inconsiderable stream; and, at low water, it is seen rushing down and finding its way through the pebbles and sands on the bank to the Thames. But, according to Stow, it was once so large a river, that it used to be navigable.—“In a faire book of parliament-records,” says he, “it appeareth, that, a parliament being holden at Carlisle in the year 1307, Henry Lacy earl of Lincoln complained, that whereas in times past the course of water running at London under Oldborne-bridge and Fleet-bridge into the Thames, had bene of such bredth and depth that ten or twelve ships were wont to come to the foresaid bridge of Fleet, and some of them unto Oldborne-bridge; now the same course, by filth of the tanners and others, was fore decayed; also by raising of wharves; but especially by a diversion of the water made by them of the New Temple for their milles standing without Baynard's Castle in the first years of king John, &c. so as the said ships could not enter as they were wont, and as they ought. Wherefore he desired that the mayor of London, with the sheriffes and other discreet aldermen, might be appointed to view the said course of the said water; and that, by the oathes of good men, all the foresaid hindrances might be removed, and it to be made as it was wont of old.” Roger le Barbacon, constable of the Tower, and the lord-mayor and sheriffs, were appointed, with others; and the river was cleaned, the mills and other hindrances removed; but they could not sink the bed to its former depth; upon which the river lost its title to the name, and was called simply *Turnmill* or *Tremill-brooke*, down to Oldborne-bridge, and hence, on account of its rushing on faster upon the declivity towards the Thames, it assumed the name of *Fleet*. It was cleaned several times, and great expenses bestowed upon it; till at last it was entirely built over, as we mentioned above. We may remark, however, that before the left bank of the vale, in the bosom of which the brook halted its course, was covered with houses, the slope was intersected with penfolds where sheep and cattle were kept against market-day.

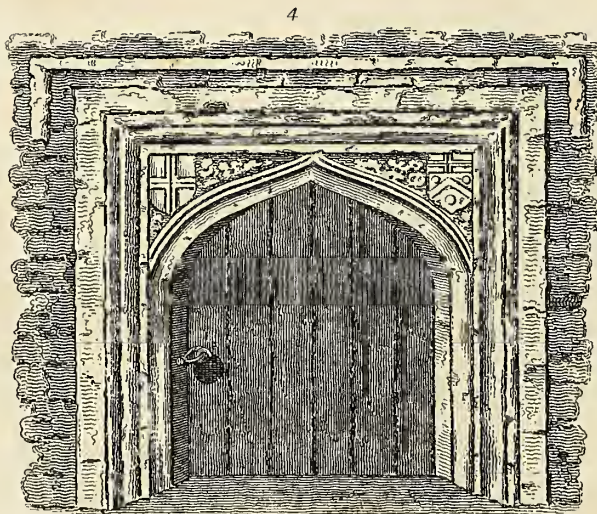
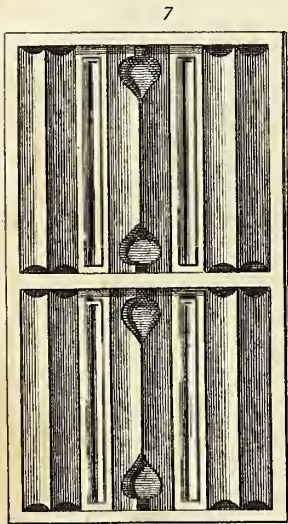
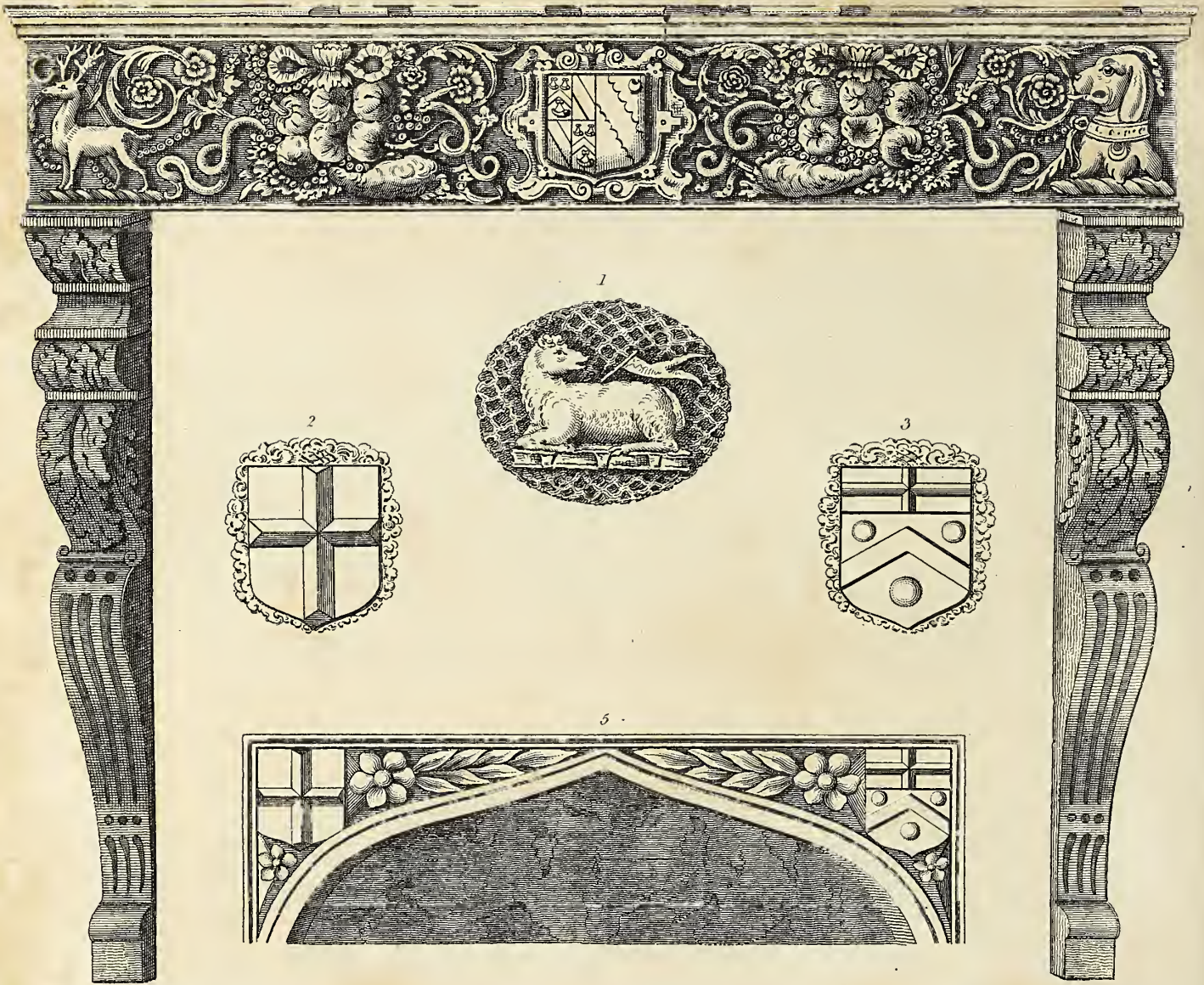
At the north end of Turnmill-street, and west of Clerkenwell, we find the Sessions-house for the county of Middlesex. The former sessions-house was situated in St. John Street, at the opening of St. Peter's lane; where an inscription on a neat stone tablet is put up in the wall, and begins with these words—“Opposite this place Hicks's Hall formerly stood, &c. &c.” This hall was so denomi-







6



*Fragments of Architecture, N<sup>o</sup> 3.*



nated from its founder, sir Baptist Hicks, by whom it was erected in the year 1611, and given for the perpetual use of the magistrates of the county. This building having become very ruinous, and being also extremely inconvenient, an act of parliament was obtained, in the year 1779, for erecting a new one; and a convenient spot of ground having been purchased on Clerkenwell-green, the first stone of the present edifice was laid on the 20th of August in that year, and it was opened for business in 1782. The east and principal front of it, towards Clerkenwell-green, is composed of four three-quarter columns, and two pilasters, of the Ionic order, supported by a rustic basement. The county-arms are placed in the tympanum of the pediment. Under the entablature are two medallions, which represent Justice and Mercy. In the former, Justice holds the scales and sword; and, in the latter, Mercy grasps the blunted sword, and the sceptre surmounted with the British crown, on which, as emblematic of the mildness of the British laws, rests a dove, with an olive-branch in her mouth. In the centre, between Justice and Mercy, is his majesty's profile, in a medallion, decorated with festoons of laurel and oak-leaves, the emblems of strength and valour. At each extremity are the Roman fasces and sword, the insignia of authority and punishment. The extent of this building is a hundred and ten feet from east to west, and seventy-eight from north to south. The hall is thirty-four feet square, and terminates at the top in a circular dome lighted by six circular windows, each four feet eleven inches in diameter. This dome is pannelled in stucco, and the spandrels under it are decorated with shields and oak-leaves. The sides of the hall are finished with pilasters of the Composite order, crowned with an entablature, the frieze of which is ornamented with foliage, and the caduceus of Mercury and the Roman fasces in medallions. From the hall, a double flight of steps leads up to the court, which is in the semicircular form of a Roman amphitheatre, thirty-four feet by thirty, and twenty-six feet high, with spacious galleries on the sides, for the auditors. The rooms on each side of the entrance are appropriated to the meetings of the magistrates. In one of them is the original portrait of sir B. Hicks, which was brought from the old sessions-house, with the arms and ornaments which decorated the chimney of the dining-room there; and in the other is a good copy of the picture.

The idea of a court of justice is commonly associated with that of a prison; and brings us to notice three places of confinement which stand in this parish. Two of them, adjoining to each other, have lately been repaired and enlarged. The one is a prison of ease to Newgate, for the county of Middlesex, called the New Prison; and the other, a house of correction for disorderly persons, called Clerkenwell Bridewell, which was built in the year 1615, for the punishment and employment of rogues and vagabonds belonging to the county, who had formerly been taken into Bridewell in the city, but were now refused, both because the place was unable to contain and employ them, and because it was thought an infringement of the privileges of the citizens, who, however, contributed five hundred pounds towards the erection of this New Bridewell, the whole expense of which amounted to two thousand five hundred pounds.

At some distance from these prisons is a place called Cold-Bath Fields, which consists of several small streets that surround a square, in the centre of which is a low old building, with a garden and a cold bath; the latter of which gave name to the place. The site and appearance of these baths are really picturesque, being surrounded with trees and houses, clad with ivy, jessamine, passifloras, and other creeping plants, which give a country air to the square.

Cold-Bath-Fields Prison, the house of correction for the county of Middlesex, which has long been stamped with the name of the "New Bastille," is on the north side of the square. This prison was erected in pursuance of an act

of parliament passed in the twenty-sixth year of the reign of his present majesty, "for enabling the justices of the peace for the county of Middlesex to raise money for building a house of correction within the said county." But it is also used as a penitentiary-house. The spot on which this edifice is erected having been a swamp on the declivity of a hill, it was found necessary to lay the foundation so deep, and to pile it so securely, that it is supposed there are as many bricks laid under ground as appear in sight. The building, with few deviations from uniformity, is laid out and divided into separate and distinct cells, or *single apartments*, as well on the ground-floor as on the upper stories, each cell being eight feet three inches long, and six feet three inches wide. To each cell are two apertures or windows for light and ventilation, each two feet six inches wide by two feet high; the one over the door, the other at the height of seven feet from the floor in the opposite direction: these apertures are closed or opened by means of wooden shutters, acting at the will of the person confined. The cells on the ground-floor are built on arches, and are raised twenty-one inches from the pavement of the yards; those of the upper floors rest on the arches of those below; and, as the use of combustible matter is by this means excluded, they are all fire-proof. The whole number of solitary cells is two hundred and eighteen; sixteen of these, which have no other light but from the apertures over the doors, are used for the occasional confinement of refractory prisoners. In addition to these, in each of six of the yards belonging to the building, there are two apartments containing the space of two single cells, and intended for lodging two prisoners. Some larger apartments are formed, by throwing together the space of several cells; these are used for various purposes connected with the institution, such as an infirmary, work-rooms for the male convicts, a spinning room for the female convicts, day-rooms with fire-places, used by the prisoners in winter; (the solitary cells of course have no fire-places;) a laundry, store-rooms, &c. There are eight large yards, to which the prisoners of different classes have occasional access, where they can be sheltered from the weather by pent-houses, which extend the whole length of them; there are also eight other airing grounds, to which the offenders of the least criminality have free access. Water is brought into all these yards by pipes, for the use of the prisoners, either to drink or to wash themselves, which they are obliged to do every morning before they receive their breakfasts, and again in the evening before being locked up. Communicating with the centre gallery there is a building of three stories, with two rooms in each story. Three of these are let to such prisoners as choose to pay ten shillings and sixpence per week for their hire; the other three are occupied by the servants of the house, or as store-rooms. At the entrance of the prison is a committee-room, and over it two lodging-rooms occupied by servants belonging to the prison; and in the centre of the building is a neat and airy chapel, sufficiently spacious to contain the whole number of prisoners which can be accommodated in the cells. The keeper's house is a distinct building on the east side of the entrance, and is an addition to the original plan, as are also several commodious shops, suited to the various trades and manufactures in which the prisoners are occasionally employed; particularly for carpenters, turners, sawyers, tailors, and shoemakers, with an extensive stage for drying oakum. The whole of this building is surrounded with a high brick wall, strengthened on the outside with stone buttresses.

To return to our walk; we may take a round through Saffron-hill and Chick-lane towards Smithfield; but it will not be of much interest either to us or to our readers, unless just to remark the manner in which the ground has been tormented there by some ancient convulsion of the earth. The channel in which the little brook winds its way along is even now easily traced in the hollow shape



of the streets from Cold-bath-square down to Holborn-bridge on the east of Saffron-hill; and at the bottom of Chick-lane, close to Saffron-hill, it is still visible to the eye. At this end of Saffron-hill we come to that narrow and dangerous passage called Field-lane, the common repair of pickpockets, to sell their booty there, or acquire new spoils from the late or unwary passenger. It is astonishing, that, while we witness so many most useful improvements, this scandalous lane has been allowed to remain as it is, and that a proper opening from Holborn to Saffron-hill has not been yet contrived for the security of the public, and to facilitate the trade of the inhabitants of the adjoining streets. The name of *Saffron-hill* evinces the anciently of this neighbourhood, not as an inhabited place, but as the slope of a hill covered with a plant useful to dye the garments of our ancestors, who, like the Picts their neighbours, were, by custom or religion, very fond of colouring their skins with various dyes extracted from vegetables.

After these transitory observations, we shall return once more to St. John-street, near the spot where we left that neighbourhood.—Pardon-passage, on the south-east side of that street, is the ancient entrance into Pardon church-yard, the ground purchased by Ralph Stratford, bishop of London, for a cemetery during the pestilence which raged in the year 1348. It was situated to the east of St. John-street, between the north wall of the Charter-house garden and Sutton-street; where now is Wildernews-row, leading from St. John-street to Goswell-street. At the foundation of the Carthusian monastery adjoining, now the CHARTER-HOUSE, this piece of ground became their property: but, says Stow, (edit. 1603,) “remained till our time, by the name of Pardon church-yard, and served for burying such as desperately ended their lives, or were executed for felonies, who were fetched thither, usually, in a close cart, bayled over, and covered with blacke, having a plaine white crosse thwarting, and, at the fore end, a Saint-John’s crosse without, and within a bell ringing by shaking of the cart, whereby the same might be heard when it passed: and this was called the Fraerie cart, which belonged to St. John’s, and had the privilege of sanctuarie.”—Hence it appears, that in those times there were here, as in Italy down to our days, fraternities or fellowships of religious men attending the funerals of those who had died by the hands of justice, or had fallen in duels; for suicide was then not only very rare, but, when committed, the horror it excited prevented even the most humane from giving a public funeral to the body. Here superstition, as it is called, produced some good; for the unfortunate man who was tired of his life, being afraid lest he should be deprived of sepulture in consecrated ground, and punished in another world by tormenting demons, if he were to leave his post in this life without the will or order of his Creator, would suffer the utmost pressure of misery before he would attempt his own life; and therefore contrive to become useful to society, in spite of all the frowns and reverses of fortune.

The Spittle-croft, adjoining to Pardon church-yard, was, in the following year, purchased, and converted to the same use, by sir Walter Manny, who, in the year 1370, founded a Carthusian monastery upon the site of both. Sir Walter’s charter of donation is dated on the 28th of March, in the forty-fifth year of Edward III. and is still preserved, and perfectly legible, in the Evidence-house of the Charter-house. In this charter, after the usual salutation, sir Walter Manny recites his original donation of thirteen acres and a rod for a burial-ground, and gives them, and the buildings thereon, for a convent of Carthusian Friars, to be called the House of the Salutation of the Mother of God; and appoints John Lustote, with the consent of the chief prior of the order, to be the first prior of this convent; he likewise gives three acres adjoining, consecrated for a burial-ground by bishop Stratford, and of which he appears to have a grant; and concludes with ordering the monks to pray for the good estate of the

king, of himself, of lady Margaret his wife, and of the bishop of London, for the time being; as likewise for the soul of Alice de Henault, and for the souls of all those that had died by his hands, (he having been a great warrior;) and for the souls of all his benefactors, especially for the soul of Michael de Northburgh, late bishop of London; and for the souls of all that lay buried in that ground.

This convent was surrendered to Henry VIII. in the year 1538; and, on the 12th of June, 1542, was granted to John Bridges and Thomas Hale, for their joint lives, in consideration of the safe-keeping of the king’s tents and pavilions, &c. which had been some time there; and on the 14th of April, 1545, it was given in perpetuity to sir Edward North, chancellor of the court of augmentations, and valued in the grant at fifty pounds per annum. The annual revenues, at the dissolution, amounted to 642l. 4s. 6d. Sir Edward North fold it to Thomas duke Norfolk, for two thousand five hundred pounds; and in 1611 it was purchased of his son, the earl of Suffolk, by Mr. Thomas Sutton, for thirteen thousand pounds, in order to establish it as a charitable foundation for pensioners and scholars; for which he obtained letters patent from the king, that were afterwards confirmed by parliament. The expense of fitting up this house, amounted to seven thousand pounds; and he endowed the hospital and school with fifteen manors and other lands, to the annual value of 4493l. but the estates have been since considerably improved.

This charitable foundation was instituted for the maintenance of a master, a preacher, a head school-master, a second master, and eighty pensioners, consisting of decayed gentlemen, merchants, or others, reduced by misfortunes, who are provided with handsome apartments, and all the necessaries of life except clothes; instead of which, each of them is allowed a cloak and fourteen pounds per annum. There are also forty-four boys supported in the house, where they have good lodgings, and are instructed in classical learning. From among these, are chosen twenty-nine students at the universities, who are each allowed twenty pounds per annum for eight years; others, who are judged more fit for trades, are put out apprentices, and the sum of forty pounds is given with each of them. As a farther encouragement to the scholars brought up in this foundation, there are nine ecclesiastical preferments in the patronage of the governors, who, according to the constitution of the charity, are to confer them upon those who receive their education in that school. The pensioners and scholars are taken in at the recommendation of the governors, who appoint in rotation.

The Charter-house is situated between St. John’s-street on the west, Goswell-street on the east, Long-lane on the south, and Wildernews-row on the north. There is scarcely any vestige of the conventual building, which is said to have stood where the garden now is. The present buildings were erected by Thomas duke of Norfolk; they are very irregular, and have little to recommend them but their convenience and situation. The rooms are well disposed; and the court within, though small, is very neat. In one corner of this court is a handsome chapel, in which, among others, is a very superb monument erected to the memory of Mr. Thomas Sutton, the founder; on which is his effigy, habited in a gown, and in a recumbent posture. On each side is a man in armour, standing upright; and above a preacher in the act of addressing a full congregation. In the front of these buildings is a very handsome square; and behind a large garden; which at once contribute to the health and to the pleasure of those who receive the benefit of so valuable a foundation. These gardens are opened generally on a summer evening to decent people who wish to enjoy a walk under the lofty trees arching most elegantly over the heads of the visitors, or in the kitchen-department of the same spot, where all sorts of useful vegetables seem to grow plentifully and most luxuriantly for the use of the school.

We now arrive at Smithfield Bars, so called from the bars dividing



dividing the city liberty from the county.—It appears that Smithfield took its name from a smith's shop originally upon the spot; some authors derive it from the circumstance of the plain being there particularly *smooth*. There was formerly a pond in the middle; "for that men watered horses there, and was a great water. In the sixth of Henry the Fifth, a new building was made in the west of Smithfield betwixt the said poole and the river Wells, in a place then called the *Elmes*, for that there grew many elm-trees." It seems that many encroachments had been made upon the place before the time of Stow, who observes, "that whereby remaineth but a small portion for the old uses, to wit for markets of horses and cattell; neither for military exercises, as joustings, turnings, and great triumphs which have been there performed before the princes and nobility both of this realme and foraine countries." Then the chronicler relates several jousts, among which the following is not the least singular: "The 43 of Edw. III. Dame Alice Perrers, or Pierce, (the king's concubine,) as Lady of the Sunne, rode from the Tower of London through Cheape, accompanied of many lords and ladies, every lady leading a lord by his horse-bridle, till they came into West Smithfield, and then began a great joust which endured seven days after." This place was not paved all over before the year 1614, just two hundred years ago; the paving cost six hundred pounds.

Having said thus much upon the ancient appearance of this place, we must now consider it as it is. The west side is, as it was anciently, well furnished with inns for the accommodation of drovers, horse-dealers, and others, whom the cattle-market, which is held every Monday and Friday, calls to the place. The Ram, which is on the north side, is mostly frequented by the highest class of dealers. The form of this market is very irregular; but the access to it is multifarious.—St.-John-street and Giltspur-street, at the opposite sides, are the most considerable; but Cock-lane, Hosier-lane, Long-lane, Cow-lane, Duke-street, and Chick-lane, pour every Sunday and Thursday night immense flocks and droves, from all parts of the kingdom. The area of the place is intersected by standing pen-folds, where numbers of sheep are divided into parcels for sale, and wherein the butchers or salemen are admitted in order to examine and feel the flesh they intend to purchase; whilst cows, oxen, and bulls, their heads bent to the surrounding posts, and their horns nearly close to the ground, are tied up, or rather down, for inspection. It is hardly possible to convey an idea of the bustle and agitation of the whole market on Monday and Friday mornings—the bleating of sheep on the west, the squeaking of pigs on the east, the lowing of cows and oxen in the centre; the rattlings of butchers' carts, the barkings of dogs, the chatterings of pie-men, the bawlings of salemen, carmen, drovers, and waiters of public houses bringing "a drop of the creature" to horse-mongers, butchers, porkmen, and all the rest; besides the dust rising in clouds over the scene on fine days, and, in dirty weather, the mud splashing in every direction;—all these and more than these would hardly sketch on the mind of the reader a faint image of West Smithfield on a market-day.

Smithfield is the only public market, within the bills of mortality, for the sale of live-cattle—the number of which now sent to market is more, by 30,000, than it was twenty-five years ago; and of sheep 150,000. And, as it is a matter of general notoriety, that the cattle and sheep of England have also been gradually and progressively increasing in their individual weight, owing partly to the attention paid of late years to the improvement of the breed, and partly to their being much better fed now than formerly, and indeed much better than they could possibly have been before the introduction of turnips and clover; it is not perhaps an unreasonable or unfounded conjecture, to suppose that the increase, in point of weight, has kept pace with the advance in respect to numbers, during the aforesaid period. If so, it will follow, that, including number and weight, the annual increase in forty-five

years is, in neat cattle, upwards of 72 per cent. and in sheep near 53. Upon the whole, we may safely affirm, that including all the other supplies of animal food, and considering that they also, as well as cattle and sheep, come to market much better fed, and consequently much increased in weight, above what they were forty-five years ago, the consumption of the metropolis is at this time full one-half more than it was then. And, since this last period, the increase has gone on in a progressive manner.

It is a general opinion among butchers, that they can buy live cattle in Smithfield cheaper than at any other place. But it must be observed, that the cattle exposed for sale at this market have been driven until they are empty, weary, wasted, and foot-sore, and consequently show to a great disadvantage; so much so, that graziers who have followed their cattle, especially sheep, to Smithfield, frequently do not know their own flock; and, when they have been shown to them, they were shocked at their deteriorated appearance. If they should not then be sold and slaughtered, the wasting would continue so much, that it would require several weeks of rich food to raise them to their former fatness! The bullocks and sheep driven to these markets are not only over-heated by the journey, but they are also often most cruelly beaten with bludgeons, goaded with darts, and hocked about the legs in the market during perhaps ten hours, and then driven to the slaughter-house (if they have the good luck to escape thieves in the character of bullock-hunters), and knocked down while their blood is yet in that inflamed state, and their flesh bruised. Such meat must, it is conceived, be very detrimental to the health of man. Much better is that which is killed in the country without driving, when the animal is in full health, and sent to Newgate and Leadenhall in clean and cool packages. If this could be done by all, it would remove a great nuisance from London, would probably improve the health of its inhabitants, and certainly prevent many, and sometimes fatal, accidents.

Several attempts have been made to remove this market, but all hitherto ineffectual. A few years ago, a bill was brought into parliament for erecting a market at or near Illington, where there is still some open ground very fit for the purpose; but the measure was petitioned against by both parties; i. e. by many housekeepers in and about Smithfield, as well as by those near whom the market was proposed to be removed; and the bill was of course thrown out. More recently a bill was brought in for enlarging the market; but that was thrown out by the wisdom of parliament, from a thorough conviction that no improvement would answer the purpose, and that the parties interested ought to be induced, by every means, to remove the nuisance altogether.

The market on Friday is not in general so crowded with horned cattle as that on Monday; but on the former day is added, *en revanche*, the intolerable and dangerous nuisance of a horse-market. None but those whose business leads them to cross (or endeavour to cross) Smithfield on that day, can have an idea of it.—There is also a market for hay on Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Saturdays; to this we have no objection; the smell of hay is at all times pleasant, especially in a crowded city, where the odours are not all of the sweetest kind.

But the time when Smithfield is, or seems to be, at the height of its glory, is when Bartholomew Fair sets every thing in motion, from the large swinging-boat to the half-penny rattle; and assumes the appearance of the temple of madness.—Compared to this, the market-day, which we have been lamenting as a nuisance, is but a silent melancholy scene. But, as the pencil of the ablest artist could give but a faint idea of what the votaries of the goddess of Folly achieve there, it is not to be expected that the pen of the historian can be in any degree adequate to the task. Suffice it to say, that, if ever posterity is allowed by Providence to be wiser than we are, they will



smile to think that their ancestors could have endured so long such preposterous sort of entertainment!

King Henry II. granted to the priory of St. Bartholomew the privilege of a fair to be kept annually at Bartholomew-tide, on the eve, the day, and the morrow, to which the clothiers in England and the drapers of London repaired, and had their booths and standings in the church-yard within the priory, which was separated from Smithfield by walls and gates that were locked every night, and watched, for the safety of the goods deposited there; and the narrow street or lane afterwards built where the cloth was sold still retains the name of ClothFair.

Fairs of this description originated in Roman-catholic countries on account of "pilgrims and other devout men" coming to do homage to the shrine of a saint on the day of his commemoration, which was called *the feast*. Their number being generally very considerable, and their coming from a certain distance out of the country making them need refreshment previous to entering the church, the object of their journey, or at any rate previous to their return home, —hence many people came with stalls lining the avenues to the sacred spot, and offering gingerbread, pasties, &c. for travellers and others, besides toys for the children, and small images and books for the more religious among them. What a spirit of religion had suggested was soon adopted and extended by a spirit of trade; and, under proper regulations, produced the most beneficial effects; as to which, see the article FAIR, vol. vii. p. 165. But fairs are not now of that utility or necessity that they were in former days; and therefore Bartholomew-fair, which was chartered for three days, but had extended by sufferance to a fortnight or more, was again reduced to three days by an order of council in the year 1708.—The ceremony of proclaiming the fair, by the lord-mayor in person, takes place on the eve of St. Bartholomew's day, old style; that is, on the 3d of September, new style. It is performed about twelve o'clock at noon; —and it is curious to see all kinds of instruments falsely called musical, ready to strike up, and as if suspended till the last words of the proclamation are pronounced; then begins the mighty din, and a sudden bustle pervades all Smithfield.

We need not recall the painful remembrance of those days of horror when parties of bigots threw their adversaries into the flames, while the surrounding walls resounded with the screams of martyrs burnt at the stake for their adherence to principles of religion adverse to the reigning doctrines. See the article ENGLAND, vol. vi. p. 637—41, 647.

Advancing towards the east from Smithfield Bars, we find Long-lane, which communicates with Charter-House-square, the area of which, though far from being uniform, is surrounded with many decent houses, and planted with shrubs. See p. 492.

On the same side, between Cloth-fair and Duke-street, (formerly *Duck-lane*,) stands the parish-church of St. Bartholomew the Great. It was originally a parish-church adjoining to the priory of St. Bartholomew; but, when the latter was pulled down to the choir, that part was annexed by the king's order, for the enlargement of the old church; in which manner it continued till queen Mary gave the remnant of the priory-church to the Black Friars, who used it as their conventual church till the first year of queen Elizabeth, when the friars were turned out, and the church was restored, by act of parliament, to the parish. The present church is the same as it stood in the reign of Edward VI. except the steeple, which, being of timber, was taken down in the year 1628, and a new one, of brick and stone, erected. It is a spacious edifice of the Gothic and Tuscan orders, one hundred and thirty-two feet long, fifty-seven broad, and forty-seven high; and the altitude of the tower is seventy-five feet. On the north side of the chancel is an elegant monument of Rahere, beneath an arch, supported by tabernacle-work. His effigy is recumbent, with his hands joined over his breast. There is an angel at his feet, and a friar in the

attitude of prayer on each side of him. This monument was repaired and beautified by William Bolton, the last prior. The patronage of this church, which, in all probability, was anciently in the prior and canons of St. Bartholomew, is now in private hands. This parish still claims an exemption from the jurisdiction of the city, so far as to protect non-freemen in carrying on their respective trades.

On the south side of this church is a large open piece of ground, called Bartholomew Close, where was anciently a cemetery, and the court-yard belonging to the old priory of St. Bartholomew; in which the fair was kept till it was removed into Smithfield. Part of the cloisters is still preserved in the Black-horse livery-stables, consisting of eight arches, ornamented with the rude sculpture of the times; and there are several vestiges of the priory to be seen in a narrow passage to the north of the stable; adjacent to which is part of the south transept, now converted into a small burial-ground.—In this Close is the principal part of those extensive buildings formerly called the London House, (see p. 487;) now separately occupied, near Queen-square by Mr. Willan, the celebrated coach-master of the Bull-and-Mouth Inn, which we noticed at p. 486; and in the centre by Mr. J. Adlard, of Duke-street, who has converted his detached part into a commodious printing-office, whence, among other respectable periodical works, issues the Encyclopædia Londinensis.

This neighbourhood contains many remains of the style of building which generally obtained two centuries ago. They appear as an aggregate of the rude dwellings of our forefathers, inhabitants of the metropolis—the uncouthness of the shape, the combustibility of the materials of which they are composed, and the narrowness of the streets, made still narrower by the odd custom of erecting one story shelving over another, as if space had been wanted in the wide world to build a city—are most astonishing, and have contributed undoubtedly to the frequency and extent of conflagrations, as well as of pestilential diseases with which London was formerly afflicted. Not very many of these curious fabrics have resisted the tasteful zeal for improvement lately evinced in London; and, although we like to see memoranda of them in neat engravings, we wish it were our lot to publish a likeness of the last remnant of that preposterous style.

On the south-east side of Smithfield is the magnificent hospital of St. Bartholomew, which appears to have been the first establishment of this nature in London, having been founded in the year 1102, by Rahere, mentioned above, minstrel to Henry I. who, quitting his gay life, founded a priory of black canons, which he dedicated to St. Bartholomew, and became himself the first prior. He afterwards obtained from the king a piece of waste ground, on which he built an hospital, for a master, brethren, and sisters, and for the relief of the diseased and maimed poor, which he placed under the care of the priory. Both the priory and hospital were surrendered to Henry VIII. who, in the last year of his reign, re-founded the latter, and endowed it with an annual revenue of five hundred marks, on condition that the city should pay an equal sum; which proposal being accepted, the new foundation was incorporated by the name of "The Hospital of the Mayor, Commonalty, and Citizens, of London, Governors for the Poor, called Little St. Bartholomew's, near West Smithfield." Since this time the hospital has received considerable benefactions from charitable persons, by which means the governors have been enabled to admit all indigent persons maimed by accident, at any hour of the day or night, without previous recommendation; and the sick on Thursdays, on which days a committee of governors sit to examine persons applying for admission. The patients, whether sick or maimed, are provided with lodging, food, medicine, and attendance, and have the advice and assistance of some of the most eminent physicians and surgeons in the kingdom.

Notwithstanding the old building escaped the dreadful fire in 1666, yet, the chief part of its revenues being in houses,







in breadth, and thirty-four in height, and the altitude of the tower is seventy-four feet; and, as the building escaped the fire in 1666, it is very ancient; but has been lately repaired.

Nearly adjoining to this hospital we find another establishment, which does great honour to its founder, the young king Edward VI. and is of the greatest utility in diffusing knowledge and bestowing other benefits upon successive generations; we mean what is vulgarly called *The Blue-Coat Hospital*, a royal foundation for the maintenance and education of poor and fatherless children, to be virtuously brought up, and fitted for trades. It was originally granted to the city by Henry VIII. in the year 1537; and confirmed in 1552 by charter of Edward VI. who also endowed the hospital with certain lands and tenements, belonging to the Savoy, of the yearly value of six hundred pounds; which so animated the citizens, that, on the 26th of July, 1552, they began to fit up the late Grey-Friars' monastery, for the reception of poor orphans; and prosecuted the work with such zeal and alacrity, that, on the 23d of November in the same year, three hundred and forty boys were admitted; which number was increased, by the end of the year, to three hundred and eighty. Almost the last action of this young king's life, was granting permission to the governors of this hospital to purchase lands in mortmain to the value of four thousand marks per annum. This laudable foundation of Edward VI. was greatly increased by the benefactions of his subjects. Sir William Chester, knt. and alderman, and John Calthrop, citizen and draper, built the brick walls on the side next to Bartholomew's Hospital, and arched over the town-ditch, from Aldersgate to Newgate, as being offensive to the hospital.

The principal buildings of this hospital form the four sides of a large area, which have porticoes continued round them. These have Gothic arches, and the walls are supported by abutments, being the remaining cloister of the old priory. This part was repaired by the direction of sir Christopher Wren, and serves for a thoroughfare, as well as a place of recreation for the boys, especially in rainy weather. The exterior view of the hospital is very irregular; the several parts having been erected at different times, and being therefore a mixture of the gothic and modern styles of building. The great hall was built at the expense of sir John Frederic, alderman of London; and here the boys occasionally dine and sup. On the western side of this room is a large picture, by Verrio, (who has introduced his own portrait, in a long wig,) representing James II. sitting with his nobles, the governors, &c. with the half-figures of Edward VI. and Charles II. hanging as pictures in the same piece. Beyond this is a very handsome picture of Charles II. at full length, dressed in his royal robes, painted by Lely in 1662. At the other end of the hall is a large piece representing Edward VI. delivering the charter to the lord-mayor, who with the aldermen behind him are kneeling; the young king is accompanied by bishop Ridley and several others. In this hall is a good organ that is played when the boys sing their psalms or anthems on Sundays and other special days. In the court-room are portraits of Edward VI. and the chief benefactors to the hospital: that of the king is a capital picture, and indisputably one of Holbein's best productions. The records and other papers belonging to this hospital are kept in a room, all the walls of which are stone: among them is a curious piece of antiquity, being the earliest record of the charity, and containing the anthem sung by the first children, very beautifully illuminated.

There are twelve wards in the hospital, each of which contains upwards of fifty beds for the children. There is also another convenient ward set apart for the sick; which is accommodated with a kitchen, a consultation-chamber, and other convenient offices.

The writing-school is a neat edifice, supported on pillars, and built with brick and stone, in the year 1694, at the end of the great hall. It was founded by sir John

Moore, one of the aldermen of the city, and president of the house, whom it is said to have cost five thousand pounds, and contains long writing-boards sufficient for the use of five hundred boys. At the upper end of the room is a niche, in which was formerly the statue that is now placed on the outside of the school, under which is the following inscription: "Anno Dom. 1694. This Writing-School, and stately building, was begun, and completely finished, at the sole charge of Sir John Moore, Knt. and Lord Mayor of the city, in the year MDCLXXXI. now President of this house, he having been otherwise a liberal benefactor of the same." The grammar-school is situated on the north side of the hospital, near the passage into Little Britain. It was erected in the year 1793; and is wholly of brick, except the ornamental parts, which are stone.

Over the south gate that leads into the cloisters, is a statue of Edward VI. now much mutilated, beneath which is written, in letters of gold, the following inscription: "Edward the Sixth of famous memory, King of England, was the founder of Christ's Hospital; and Sir Robert Clayton, Knt. and Alderman, sometime Lord-mayor of this city of London, erected this statue of King Edward, and built most part of this fabric, Anno Dom. 1682." It is only from the passage leading to this gate, and the backs of the houses in Newgate-street, that the principal or south front of the hospital can be seen. It is a handsome piece of brick-work ornamented with pilasters of the Ionic order, and having a circular pediment in the centre. On the east side of the building, opposite to the counting-house, is a much more perfect statue of Edward VI. standing on a slab of black marble, in the attitude of delivering the charter. And in the niche, over the western entrance from the Grey Friars, is a statue of Charles II. in the royal robes.

In the year 1673, king Charles II. added a mathematical school, for the instruction of forty boys in navigation, and endowed it, for seven years, with one thousand pounds per annum, to be paid out of the Exchequer. Ten of these boys are put apprentice, every year, to masters of ships; and ten others, of the best genius, are elected to supply their places. But, lest this mathematical school should fail, for want of boys properly qualified to supply it, one Mr. Stone, a governor, left a legacy to maintain a subordinate mathematical school, of twelve boys; which is called Stone's School, where they were prepared for reception into the King's Ward. Another mathematical school, for thirty-seven boys, was founded by Mr. Travers. But the mathematical schools are now united; where practical mathematics, especially navigation, are taught.—The boys not intended for the sea are in general bound out apprentices at fourteen or fifteen years of age; and some, properly qualified, are sent to Oxford or Cambridge, where they are maintained for a like term: one scholar is sent every year, except on the return of every seventh year when two scholars are sent; the scholars have their choice of the college to which they are to go, but Pembroke-hall in Cambridge is generally preferred as most advantageous to them; and one scholar is also sent to Oxford in eight years. The allowance paid to each of them during the first seven years is 60l. per annum.

On St. Matthew's day, the 21st of September, yearly, the lord-mayor in state, with the president, aldermen, sheriffs, treasurer, and governors, and other company, assemble in the great hall after divine service at Christ-church, to hear orations from the elder scholars; one of them speaks in Latin, and the other in English; the latter of these, having spoken in Latin on the preceding year, is now elected off to college, and leaves the school in about a month afterwards; on this occasion a glove is handed about among the audience for their contribution.

The dress of the children in this hospital consists of a long coat of blue cloth hanging loose to their heels, girt about their waist with a red leather girdle, buckled; a loose petticoat underneath, of yellow cloth, (of late years the boys are allowed breeches,) a round useless thrum cap,



cap, tied with a band; yellow stockings, and black low-heeled shoes. The boys in the mathematical school, as a badge of distinction, wear on the left breast of their coat a plate of silver, with an emblematical device on it, the dye of which is kept in the Tower, where they are all stamped. The principal figures on this plate are, Arithmetic, with a scroll of accounts in one hand, and her other hand placed on a blue-coat boy's head; Geometry, with a triangle in her hand; and Astronomy, with a quadrant in one hand, and a sphere in the other. Round the plate is the following inscription: *Auspicio Caroli Secundi Regis, 1673.* This badge they retain during their apprenticeship, as a security against being pressed into the king's service in times of war.

The children are received into this hospital at seven years of age; and those who have not already been taught to read are sent down to Hertford; at which place there is a school and proper instructors to prepare them for being sent to the hospital in London; where they are received as room is made for their admission by the elder boys being bound out apprentices. The girls (about seventy in number) are also all sent to Hertford, where they receive the whole of their education.

The children to be maintained at Christ's hospital were, by the original charter, described to be *poor and fatherless*; but it is a long time since the limitation of them to orphans has ceased. Another of the regulations prescribed by the charter and rules of this charity for the admission of children is, that "no children who have any probable means of being otherwise provided for shall be taken into the hospital on any account whatsoever; and that the minister and churchwardens, and three or four of the principal inhabitants of his parish, are required to certify the incapacity of the parents to maintain and educate them; and on these grounds the petitioner humbly beseeches their worships, in their usual pity and charity to distressed men, poor widows, and fatherless children, to grant admission to the child in question." The precision with which the qualification of the pupil is here marked has not always been observed, and its protection has in some cases been given to the children of those who were able to afford protection to the institution itself; this has however very recently been fully and ably discussed, and some resolutions passed, which will most probably prevent the recurrence of a similar abuse. Nothing can more clearly show what kind of children were formerly received as fit objects of the charity, than a precept to be found among the archives at Guildhall, dated on the 27th of September, 1582, by which the lord-mayor required the aldermen, or their deputies, not to subscribe any bill from any of the parishes of their ward for the admitting of any child into Christ's Hospital, except that promise be made therein from a vestry of every such parish to receive such child back again from the charge of the hospital, at the age of sixteen years, (being required thereto by the governors,) if in the mean time such child be not sent to service, dead, or otherwise provided for.

The children of the grammar-school are examined in the months of March and September by an experienced person, who is appointed by the governors. The upper and under masters commence teaching at seven in the morning from March to November, and at eight during the remainder of the year; dismiss the boys at eleven, return at one, and conclude at five, or at four in the winter. No child is to be taught Latin till he can read English perfectly, and write it grammatically. The upper master examines the under master's highest form twice yearly, and takes thence such as he judges ready for his instruction. A catalogue of the children with their forms is called over every morning and afternoon, and a copy delivered at the counting-house, previous to each visitation by the committee; and the masters are required to observe the dress of their scholars as to their cleanliness, and the propriety of their demeanor. The holidays allowed are eleven days at Easter, including Sundays; one

week at Whitfuntide, and at Bartholomewide three weeks; and at Christmas fifteen days, and the usual saints' days, &c.

An exhibition of drawing and specimens of writing takes place in the hall on the 31st of March and 30th of September; each boy is seated at the tables with his performances before him. Many of the latter are, says Malcolm, (and what any visitor may corroborate,) of superlative excellence; and the worst would procure the writer a situation in the most fastidious merchant's counting-house.

Among the peculiarities of Christ's Hospital, a fight is exhibited from Christmas to Easter every year, which no other institution, lay, civil, ecclesiastical, or eleemosynary, has ever equalled in their grandest ceremonies, or which is more calculated to impress the heart of a spectator with the liveliest sentiments of sympathetic pleasure; that is, the supper of all the children on Sunday evenings at six o'clock, to which strangers are admitted by tickets. The great hall, which was rebuilt after the fire of London, contains several tables which are covered with table-cloths, wooden platters, and buckets of beer, with bread and cheese. The treasurer and governors take their seats at the upper end, at a semicircular table; the boys, attended by the nurses of their several wards, enter in order, and arrange themselves on each side of the hall; strangers are then admitted, who go along the centre of the hall to the upper end; the masters of the school, the steward, and the matron, take their places there also; and the nurses preside at each table, on which a great number of candles are placed, and these, with many lamps and a large lustre, illuminate the room. The ceremony then commences by the steward striking upon one of the tables three times with a mallet, which produces a profound silence; one of the boys intended for the church, having ascended a pulpit on one side of the hall, then reads the second lesson for the afternoon-service of the day, and an evening-prayer composed for the occasion, at the close of which the response of Amen, from about eight hundred youthful voices, has a very interesting effect; a psalm or hymn is next sung by the whole assembly, accompanied by the organ; the same youth then delivers the grace, after which the boys take their seats, and the supper proceeds. When the repast is concluded, the steward again strikes the table as before, and the boys instantly arrange themselves again on each side of the hall, and a grace is said from the pulpit; an anthem is then sung; after which the boys collect all the fragments into small baskets; and each ward, preceded by its nurse with lighted candles, marches in order past the upper table, where they bow to the governors, and file off to an adjoining school-room, the doors of which are thrown open to receive them, and the ceremony is closed. There is no person who has ever witnessed this ceremony that does not feel the sublimest and the tenderest emotions: it is a combined offering of the gratitude of hundreds to the throne of Divine Mercy!

The following is an abstract of the account presented to the lord-mayor and the rest of the governors on Easter Monday last (1814):

Children put forth apprentices, and discharged from Christ's Hospital, the year last past, 207, eleven whereof, being instructed in the mathematics and navigation, were placed forth apprentices to commanders of ships, out of the mathematical school, founded by his majesty king Charles II. of blessed memory	- - - - -	207	
Children buried the year last past	- - - - -	7	
Now under the care and charge of the hospital, in London and at Hertford	- - - - -	1060	} 1178
To be admitted on presentations granted to this time	- - - - -	118	

The permanent funds of this charity consist in an annual revenue in houses and lands; the licensing and looking after the carts allowed by the city, each of which pays a certain sum for *sealing*; and a duty of three farthings, paid upon every piece of cloth brought to Blackwell-hall.



It is computed that the annual expenditure of this hospital amounts to thirty thousand pounds per annum, including the board and clothing of the children and the salaries to the officers and servants of the foundation.

The upright administration of this hospital has in no instance been more acknowledged than in the trusts which have been reposed in them, by those who have founded other charities, entirely unconnected with the nature of this foundation, and wholly without their previous knowledge: viz. 1st, The alms-houses founded by David Smith, citizen and embroiderer, in 1584, which was destroyed by the fire in 1666, and afterwards rebuilt by sir Thomas Fitch; the pensioners at first received only 1l. 9s. 4d. but the daughter of sir T. Fitch added a further gift sufficient to allow them from the company of embroiders 1l. 14s. 6d. each. 2dly, The far more extensive and important trust of Mr. Hetherington's charity for the blind, by which no fewer than 450 blind persons (not beggars) are relieved with 10l. per ann. each.

We now come up a narrow winding passage between Christ's and Bartholomew's hospitals, into *Giltspur-street*, so named most probably from a sign at some inn in that place, or out of compliment to the knights who used to come by in their way to the tilts and tournaments generally held in Smithfield. *Cock-lane* and *Pie-corner* obtained their names, as it should seem, from the same circumstance. Both these birds are known for their propensity to fight, their courage and obstinacy. It is therefore probable that public houses, or inns in this neighbourhood, had adopted these badges on account of the wranglers who made their way through this street to the spot where their disputes were to be settled. The words of our most estimable chronicler and keen surveyor, John Stow, about *Pie-corner*, are curious, and give consistence, as they gave rise, to our hypothesis. He says: "Pie-corner, a place so called of such a signe, sometimes a fair inne for receipt of travellers, but now (1633) divided into tenements; and, over against the said Pie-corner lyeth Cocke-lane, which runneth down to Oldbourne conduit." It is clear that the *pie*, in this circumstance, did not mean any thing to eat, but the bird of that name, the pie or mag-pie. The original word is *pica* in Latin, from which, in imitation of, or contemporaneously with, the French, we made *pie*; hence every thing which, like that bird, is made up into the two colours, white and black, obtained this appellation. The well-known dish of that name, contrasting the whiteness of the crust with the darker colour of the meat or fruit which the paste contains, was so called from that circumstance; and the coincidence of the fire of London beginning at Pudding-lane, and ending at Pie-corner, led the mind astray, and distorted the original sense of the denomination.—This short explanation, which we have thought interesting and useful, leads us to consider the figure of a boy placed many years since at the corner of *Cock-lane* and *Giltspur-street*. It has been there for many years; and, if recollection does not deceive them, several old friends of ours have assured us that they remember the little figure for more than sixty years; but their opinion is, that the statue was of stone. We have ourselves some faint recollection of having seen the one now existing there (and of which we gave an engraving in Plate VII. b.) more than twenty years ago. The boy, though partly disfigured, exhibits still some remains of the luffy style of Rubens, being overloaded with fat. A kind of drapery, which is at this time painted blue, is seen behind him; and the poor little creature, either originally, or from subsequent alterations, seems really to labour under the most excruciating torture. Is it intended to represent the Dutch boy, mentioned by some Londinographers as having confessed to have been, with his father, the baker, the cause of the conflagration? But an inscription upon the folded arms and part of the belly, runs as follows: "This boy was put up in memory of the great fire of London, occasioned by the lin of gluttony—1666." Hence some suppose this tun-bellied boy might have been in-

tended as a personification of Gluttony itself. In another view, the aching face, uplifted eyes, and shrinking muscles, of the fat infant, supported by the inscription, and the flame-colour paint with which he is generally besmeared once in two or three years, combine to make others believe that it was carved for the special purpose of representing a young and unfortunate victim of the devouring fire. But no such thing. We have looked at it with the unprejudiced eye of an antiquary; and, to our great astonishment, we have discovered, that the now-existing figure is that of *CUPID*! The son of Venus is famed, in mythological lore, for setting hearts on fire, but not whole cities. However, this little statue was, no doubt, originally carved for the son of Venus; for he has wings, and they are conspicuous, as they happen to be now painted bright yellow. Hence we are led to conclude that this supposed, or however-adopted, memento of the fire of London, was borrowed from some groupe in wood representing Cupid child by his mother, or, as we see him in many places, scourged by Jealousy or the Graces.

We hope our readers will not think our criticism misplaced, though this memento of the fire of London is evidently so; for we omitted to mention that the figure is set against a public-house at the corner of *Cock-lane*; whereas there can be little doubt that the fire stopped at the opposite corner; as Stow expressly informs us, in the passage already quoted, "that over against Pie-corner lyeth *Cock-lane*." The figure might have been removed, and set up opposite, when the houses on that side were last rebuilt; or it might have been originally placed there (which better agrees with the traditions we have been able to collect) as a convenient situation to point to the spot where the fire stopped; just as the Monument is not placed on the spot where the fire began, but 202 feet from it. Upon the whole, there is little doubt but that *Pie-corner*, properly so called, is at this time occupied by a baker (of *pies* and other things), at the corner of the passage we have mentioned, which is now commonly called *Plough-court*, from a public-house of that name; but formerly *Windmill-court*, from the windmill at the top of *Old Newgate*; and more anciently *Pie-corner-lane*; and is so named in Wilkes's British Directory.

Having finished the digression which brought us to the upper corner of this passage, court, or lane, we shall retreat the same way we come, and then pass through Christ's Hospital, and out at the south-west avenue, the Grey Friars, into *Newgate-street*.—Exactly opposite the Grey Friars' gate is *Warwick-lane*, which derives its name from the inn or house of Richard Nevil, the king-making earl of Warwick. Speaking of his coming to London to the convention of 1453, Stow says, he was accompanied by "six hundred men, all in red jackets imbroidered with ragged staves before and behind, and was lodged in *Warwicke-lane*; in whose house there was often six oxen eaten at a breakfast; and every tavern was full of his meate; for he that had any acquaintance in that house might have there so much of sodden and rost meate as he could pricke and carry upon a long dagger." The memory of this earl is still preserved by a stone carving against the side of a house at the north-west corner, whose front is in *Newgate-street*. This figure, not for the elegance of the workmanship, but on account of its antiquity, and the reflections it may give rise to, we have thought worthy of preservation. It is represented on Plate VII. a. at fig. 8.—Considering attentively this little piece of bas relief, we suspect that the design has been partly taken from the drawing of that famous character Guy earl of Warwick, in the curious roll of the earls of Warwick, now in the possession of the corporation of Heralds; and hence arose a sort of mistake in the shield, showing a bend sinister instead of a chevron, ermine, the second leg of the chevron being nearly lost in the concealed part of the buckler, as represented upon the roll. The warrior is dressed in a coat of mail, with the military *jacum* or frock over it. The letters G. C. at bottom might be supposed to stand



stand for *Guido Comes*, "Earl Guy;" but, when on the other side of the figure we take notice of a coat of arms consisting of a bend charged with three maces, we are inclined to suppose that the letters mean George or Guy Carlton or Carrington, to which names such arms belong; and, were we allowed to indulge our fancy on the subject, we would suppose that these were the initials of the possessor of the house at the time it was first rebuilt, two years after the great conflagration; and that, confounding the ancient earl Guy with Richard Nevil, he caused the said arms and figure to be carved in allusion to the circumstance mentioned above. Yet the arms on the shield are not those of Richard Nevil earl of Warwick, who bore Gules, a saltire argent, with a label in chief; but they are lozengy, as the most ancient arms of the earls of Warwick appear on record to have been, with a chevron either fancifully diapered or ermine, as he bore his arms; with this difference, that the field here is lozengy instead of chequy. However, this deep research and heraldic discussion may have no other foundation than the ignorance of the sculptor or his employer; and our intention was merely to elucidate a point of history connected with this piece of carving, to render our survey the more interesting by it, and to bring the bas relief itself into notice; for it is curious that many of our acquaintance, who have lived for years in the neighbourhood, have never noticed this little piece of antiquity, though it is now nearly a century and a half old. We have made many inquiries about the owner of the house at the probable time of this little sculpture being put up: the only information we could get was, that the house has been in the tobacco and snuff trade ever since the year 1660, as stated over the door of Mr. Parry, who now inhabits it, and who is as innocent of any antiquarian knowledge as one of his own snuff-jars.

Exactly opposite to this ancient sculpture is a public-house called the Guy earl of Warwick; and, crossing Warwick-lane again, we find at the corner of Warwick-square the Three Jolly Butchers, a very appropriate sign, as Newgate Market is contiguous, and holds a square area between this lane on the west, Ivy-lane on the east, Paternoster-row on the south, and Newgate-street on the north. The piece of ground which is occupied by it, measures 194 feet from east to west, and 148 from north to south, with a large market-house in the centre. Under the market-house are vaults, or cellars; and the upper part of it is principally used as warehouses for fruiterers and gardeners. The shops within this building are for the sale of tripe, butter, eggs, &c. The houses that extend on each of the sides, which form the square, are most of them occupied by butchers; and the avenues that lead to the market, from Paternoster-row and Newgate-street, are occupied by poulterers, fishmongers, &c.

Before the fire of London, this market was held in Newgate-street, (see p. 416.) where there was a market-house for meal, and a middle row of sheds, which were afterward converted into houses, inhabited by butchers, tripe-sellers, &c. while the country people, who brought provisions to the city, were forced to stand with their stalls in the open street, where their persons and goods were exposed to danger, from the coaches, carts, and cattle, that passed through the streets. At that time, Butcherhall-lane was filled with slaughter-houses for the use of this market; and Blowbladder-street was rendered remarkable by blown bladders hanging in the windows of the shops where they were sold.

On the west side of Warwick-lane, near the north end, is the College of Physicians. This is a very noble structure built with brick and stone, the entrance to which is through a grand octangular porch, crowned with a dome that terminates in a gilt ball, which the witty Garth calls the *gilded pill*.

Here stands a dome majestic to the sight,  
And sumptuous arches bear its oval height;  
A golden globe, plac'd high with artful skill,  
Seems to the distant sight a gilded pill.

*Dispensary.*

On the summit of the centre is the bird of *Æscu-*

lapius, the admonishing cock.—The inside was designed by sir Christopher Wren, and is very elegant. The central building, which contains the library and other rooms of state and convenience, was the design of Inigo Jones. The ascent to the door is by a flight of steps; and in the under part is a basement story. The whole front is decorated with pilasters of the Ionic and Corinthian orders. The buildings that compose the two sides of the court are uniform, and have the window-cases handsomely ornamented. The orders are well executed, and the whole edifice is both beautiful and commodious.

In the centre of the front, over the door-case, is a niche containing a statue of Charles II. under which is the following inscription:

Utriusque fortunæ exemplar ingens

Adversis rebus Deum probavit prosperis scipsum .

Collegii hujusce itator.

The style of this is not very Ciceronian, and the sense is rather intricate. It signifies, that "Charles, the founder of this college, had been a great example of the *protection* of God in adversity, and of *moderation* (we suppose) in prosperity." It is pity that a few words were not added in order to convey the meaning more decidedly. But there was no sir George Baker in that day to treat the college with elegant Latin; neither is there now, or we should not have presumed to suggest the following alteration: "Utriusque fortunæ exemplar ingens, adversis rebus Deum moderatorem, prosperis seipsum moderatum, probavit Collegii hujusce itator."

Opposite to the statue of our merry and profuse monarch is that of a person of a character extremely different, the notorious sir John Cutler. It appears, by the annals of the college, that in the year 1674 a considerable sum of money had been subscribed by the fellows, for the erection of a new college, the old one having been consumed in the great fire, eight years before. It also appears, that sir John Cutler, a near relation of Dr. Whistler, the president, was desirous of becoming a benefactor. A committee was appointed to wait upon sir John, to thank him for his kind intentions. He accepted their thanks, renewed his promise, and specified the part of the building of which he intended to bear the expense. In the year 1680, statues in honour of the king and sir John were voted by the members; and nine years afterward, the college being then completed, it was resolved to borrow money of sir John Cutler, to discharge the college-debt; but the sum is not specified. It appears however, that, in 1699, sir John's executors made a demand on the college of 7000l. which sum was supposed to include the money actually lent and the money pretended to be given, but set down as a debt in sir John's books, with the interest on both. Lord Radnor, however, and Mr. Boulter, sir John Cutler's executors, were prevailed upon to accept 2000l. from the college, and actually remitted the other five. So that sir John's promise, which he never performed, obtained him the statue, and the liberality of his executors has kept it in its place ever since. But the college have wisely obliterated the inscription, which, in the warmth of its gratitude, it had placed beneath the figure: *Omnis Cutleri cedat labor Amphitheatro*. But his arms, elegantly carved in an ancient escutcheon, with mantlings and crest, are suffered to remain.

The different apartments belonging to this college, consist of a committee-room; a library furnished with books by sir Theodore Mayerne and the marquis of Dorchester; a great hall for the quarterly meetings of the doctors; a theatre for anatomical dissections, but never used; a preparing-room, where are thirteen tables, containing all the muscles in the human body: and, over all, there are garrets to dry the herbs for the use of the dispensary.

In the hall are the portraits of several of the most eminent of the faculty, among which are those of sir Theodore Mayerne, a native of Geneva, physician to James and Charles I. the great Sydenham, to whom thousands owe  
their



their lives, by his daring attempt of the cool regimen in the small-pox; Harvey, who first discovered the circulation of the blood; and the learned and pious sir Thomas Brown, who said that the discovery of that great man's was preferable to the discovery of the new world.—Sir Edmund King, a favourite of Charles II. When that monarch was first struck with the apoplexy, he had the courage to relieve his majesty by instant bleeding; putting the rigour of the law to defiance in case of failure of success. A thousand pounds was ordered as a reward, but never paid. He was among the philosophers of his time, who made the famous experiment of transfusing the blood of one animal into another. The blood of a healthy young spaniel was conveyed into the veins of an old mangy dog, who they say was perfectly cured in less than a fortnight. The blood of a young dog was transfused into one almost blind with age, and which, before, could scarcely move: the latter did in two hours leap and frisk; and yet the young dog, which received in return the blood of the old or distempered, felt no sort of injury. The same experiment, when extended to the human species, has not been successful.—A very good portrait of the anatomist Vesalius, on board, by John Calkar, a painter from the duchy of Cleves, who died in 1546. This celebrated character had filled the professor's chair at Venice; after that, was for some time physician to Charles V. Disgusted with the manners of a court, he determined on a voyage to the Holy Land. The republic of Venice sent to him to fill the professorship of medicine at Padua, vacant by the death of Fallopius. On his return, in 1564, he was shipwrecked on the isle of Zante, where he perished by hunger.—Dr. Goodal, the Stentor of Garth's Dispensary.—Dr. Millington, whom the witty author compliments with the following lines:

Machaon, whose experience we adore,  
Great as your matchless merit is your power:  
At your approach the baffled tyrant Death  
Breaks his keen shafts, and grinds his clashing teeth.

The portrait of Dr. Freind, the historian of physic, and the most able in his profession, and the most elegant writer of his time, must not be omitted. See vol. viii. p. 32.—Here are also fine busts of Harvey, Sydenham, and Mead.—The celebrated and worthy George Edwards was library-keeper for the last forty years of his life. See vol. vi. p. 277.

This society's first college, which was given them by Dr. Linacre, physician to Henry VIII. was in Knight-riding-street. They afterwards removed to a house which they purchased in Amen-corner, where Dr. Harvey built a library and a public hall, which he granted for ever to the college, and endowed it with his estate, which he resigned to them in his life-time. Part of this estate is assigned for an annual oration in commemoration of their benefactor, and to provide a good dinner for the society. This building perished in the flames, in 1666; after which the present edifice was erected on a piece of ground purchased by the fellows.

Going again into Newgate-street, and turning to the right, we soon came opposite to Bagnio-court, which took its name from the first *bagnio* introduced in this city. The word is Italian, and means a bathing-place, a house where you can conveniently indulge in the luxury of bathing. *Hammum*, which is the word employed at the other end of the town for houses of this kind, is corrupted from the Arabic *hammam*, which also signifies a bath.

Near this, to the west, is Bull-head-court, over the entrance to which (and not at Bagnio-court, where Pennant directs us to look for it) we found a small sculpture in stone of William Evans, gigantic porter to Charles I. and his diminutive fellow-servant, Jeffrey Hudson, dwarf to the same monarch. We are told that this small gentleman commanded, with much reputation, a troop of horse in his majesty's service; and, in 1644, killed Mr.

Crofts in a duel, who had ventured to ridicule him.—This sculpture, which is fixed between the windows of the first and second stories of the house of Mr. Payne the hatter, seems to have been either renewed or repaired since its being originally placed there; and is just now fresh painted; the mantles or overalls of these odd fellows are made red, the royal livery, and their waistcoats white. At the west corner of the house, there is also a painting of the giant and dwarf, by way of sign. The height of the porter was seven feet and a half, the dwarf three feet nine inches; therefore the idle story of the porter putting the dwarf, in his pocket, related by Fuller, is not worth repeating, but as it shows how easy people of a certain description are able to swallow any sort of bait trimmed up to catch their credulity; for, unless the giant had been all pocket from the shoulder to the knee, Hudson, diminutive as he was, could never have been carried in that curious guise.

A passage still farther west on the same side of the street, leads to Christ-church, which is dedicated to the name and honour of our Saviour, and originally belonged to the convent of Grey Friars, or Franciscans; but, falling to the crown at the dissolution of that religious house, Henry VIII. gave it to the mayor, commonalty, and citizens, of London, to make a parish-church, in lieu of the two churches of St. Ewen, in Newgate-market, near the north corner of Eldeneffs, now called Warwick-lane, and of St. Nicholas in the Shambles, on the north side of Newgate; both which churches, and their parishes, were thereupon demolished; and as much of St. Sepulchre's parish as lay within Newgate was added to this new-erected parish, which was then ordered to be called by the name of *Christ-church*; from which time it was made a vicarage, in the patronage of the mayor, commonalty, and citizens, of London, as governors of the hospital of St. Bartholomew, also of the foundation of Henry VIII. and the king gave five hundred marks per annum, in land, for ever, for the maintenance of the said church, with divine service, repairs, &c. In consideration whereof, the mayor, commonalty, and citizens, did covenant and grant (inter alia), to find and sustain one preacher at this church, who was to be, from time to time, vicar thereof; giving unto him, yearly, for his stipend, 16l. 13s. 4d. to the visitor (now called the Ordinary of Newgate) ten pounds; and to the other five priests in Christ-church, all to be helping in divine service, ministering the sacraments and sacramentals, eight pounds a-piece; to two clerks, six pounds each; and to a sexton, four pounds yearly.—The old church was destroyed by the fire of London, after which the present structure was erected. It is built of stone, very strong, spacious, and handsome. The tower is square, and of a considerable height, crowned with a light handsome turret, adorned with vases. The inside is neatly ornamented; the walls and pillars are wainscoted, and there are very large galleries at the west end, and on the north and south sides. On the south side of the church without, has been lately erected a plain but neat brick building, to be used as a vestry-room, for the better convenience of the ministers who officiate in the church. After the fire of London, the parish of St. Leonard, Foster-lane, whose church was destroyed, and not rebuilt, was annexed to Christ-church; and the patronage of the former, which is a rectory, being in the dean and chapter of Westminster, they, and the governors of St. Bartholomew's Hospital, present alternately to these united livings.

The Grey Friars were friars minors of a religious order, or society, founded by St. Francis of Assisi, who was canonized by pope Gregory IX. in 1228; of whom a detached body of nine brethren, viz. five priests and four lay brothers, was sent from Italy to settle and propagate their order in England. They arrived at Dover in 1224, from whence four of them repaired to London, and the other five settled at Canterbury. Those who came to London were received and entertained by the Friars-preachers, at their house in Holborn; from whence they removed to

a house



a house in Cornhill, provided for them by John Travers, wherein they continued for about a-year; but, being much straitened for room, in consequence of the great increase of their numbers, John Ewyn, citizen and mercer of London, who afterwards became a lay brother among them, purchased a plot of ground in the parish of St. Nicholas Shambles, which he gave in trust to the mayor and commonalty of London, for the purpose of providing them with a spot of ground, whereon a building for their use might be erected.—A site being thus procured, which was considerably enlarged by the additional benefactions of the mayor and commonalty, as well as by the munificence of private citizens, divers of the principal inhabitants of the city began, in the year 1225, to erect, at their own expense, a house and chapel, for the better accommodation of these friars. But, their numbers continuing to increase, the chapel became too small for the celebration of the divine offices; wherefore Margaret, consort to king Edward I. began a stately and very spacious church, which was twenty-one years in building, and, in dimensions, exceeded all the places of worship in this city, except the cathedral; it being no less than three hundred feet in length, eighty-nine in breadth, and sixty-four feet in height: this magnificent structure extended from Butcher-hall-lane to the Grey-Friars' gateway. Among other benefactors to this convent, was sir Richard Whittington, so often mentioned with honour, who, at his own expense, erected a library, one hundred and twenty-nine feet long, and thirty-one broad, and furnished it with good store of books. Weaver, in his *Funeral Monuments*, informs us, that here were buried four queens, four duchesses, four countesses, one duke, two earls, eight barons, and thirty-five knights; and, in all, six hundred and sixty-three persons of quality were here interred, before the dissolution of the convent. In the choir were nine tombs of alabaster and marble, inclosed with iron bars. One tomb, in the body of the church, coped with iron; and one hundred and forty marble grave-stones, in divers places; all which were pulled down, removed, and sold, by sir Martin Bowes, lord-mayor of London, in 1545, for fifty pounds.

The account which Stow gives us of this ancient foundation is interesting, but too extensive for our columns. The names of the citizens and others who so liberally contributed to the erection of the convent and church belonging to the Grey Friars; the list of nearly all those that had been buried in the same church; the description of their monuments and epitaphs; are curious, and of importance in tracing families and in connecting them in genealogical order; but are foreign to our purpose. We shall, however, present to our readers part of an epitaph which was engraved there on the monument of Master Robert Rogers, who died anno 1601. It is a dialogue between Death, Time, and Rogers.

DEATH. Stand fairly encountred both. Grave soveraigne Time,  
Borne of eternity, age's father,  
Prince of all power—all powers on earth are thine  
That doest my ruine's truest records gather.  
Lend thy consent, thy helping hand to mine  
And Death will make Time's sovereignty as great  
As the three sisters, ladies of sterne fate.

TIME. Impartiall Death, honour's respectlesse foe,  
Grim meagre caytiffe, wherefore doest thou come?  
Must virtue's children to the slaughter goe,  
In thy blood-yawning cell to fill a roome?  
Cannone but they quench thy bloody thirst?—DEATH. No.  
Rogers I come for: Time, thou canst not save him:  
This dart must strike him, and grim Death will have him.

ROGERS. Death, welcome; all by thee, I know, must end;  
Nor doe I care for longer life than this:  
I thank thee thou hast staid so long, kinde friend.  
Sweet Time, be patient, pardon my amisse,  
If I have time mispent, alas! we all offend.  
If, said I?—yes, 'tis certain sure I have;  
For which offence, deare Time, pardon I crave.

The answer of Time, the peremptory reply of Death, and the epitaph written by Time, conclude this dramatic piece of funeral poetry, and yield no bad specimen of the elegiac style of that age, when the British Muse, still in her childhood, was trifling and toying with antitheses and conceits.

The church of St. Nicholas Shambles, which was pulled down when Christ-church was erected, took its name from its dedication to St. Nicholas, and its additional epithet from its situation; the Shambles having been the ancient name of Newgate-freet, from the flesh-market therein. It stood at the corner of Butcher-hall-lane.—That of St. Ewen, or Owen, was on the south side of Newgate-freet, between the market and Warwick-lane; the remains of which were very lately existing in the cellars of the houses on that spot.

Butcher-hall-lane, as it is now called, was anciently denominated Stinking-lane, and Chick-lane, on account of the strong smell which arose from the slaughter houses and poultry-shops there. It was contiguous to, and at the east of, the Grey Friars. A motion was made in the 3d year of Richard II. that "no butcher should kill any flesh within London, but at Knight's-bridge, or such-like distant place from the walls of the citie."—A most wholesome regulation, if it had taken place, and which would be even now strongly supported by the inhabitants of the ward of Farringdon within, on account of the nuisances daily committed in Warwick-lane and thereabouts. We understand, that the slaughter-houses in Warwick-lane have been presented and represented by the inhabitants as a nuisance, and that proceedings are instituted for the purpose of removing them; but we do not expect the application will be attended with success: the butchers may plead such a long prescription, that they can hardly be proscribed.

Newgate-freet is well built and of a noble breadth, full of trade and of bustle. It has moreover this remarkable feature, that most of those persons who prepare canvas and sell worsted for the small pieces of tapestry which have been of late the amusement of our ladies of rank, seem to have gathered themselves together in this street. The number of carriages which this street pours into Cheap-side, and those it receives in return, makes it rather incumbered, and, at certain times, an impeded sort of passage to the heart of the city. It is one of those large arteries and veins, which, notwithstanding their width, are liable to become obstructed. From the point where on one side you have the strong building of Newgate and on the other the corner-house adjoining the Compter, the view is most interesting. On the right you cast a long glance at Smithfield; on the left you reach nearly to Ludgate-hill; but, straight forward, or to the west, the scene displays itself with real grandeur and magnificence. St. Sepulchre's church on one hand; the steeple and pinnacles of St. Andrew Holborn, at a distance, on the other; the noble breadth of Skinner-street, sloping down to the end of the market, and, by an undulating continuation, rising to Holborn-hill;—gives a particular and most characteristic aspect to this part of the metropolis.

The church of St. Sepulchre, which is so dedicated in commemoration of our Saviour's sepulchre or grave at Jerusalem, is now a spacious building, but not so large as of old time, part of the site of it being let out upon a building-lease. It is supposed to have been founded about the year 1100, at which time a particular devotion was paid to the Holy Sepulchre; and was so decayed in the reign of Edward IV. as to require re-building. Roger bishop of Salisbury, in the reign of Henry I. had given the patronage of this church to the prior and convent of St. Bartholomew in West Smithfield, who established a perpetual vicarage in it, and held it till their dissolution, when it fell to the crown. King James I. in the seventh year of his reign granted the rectory and its appurtenances, and the advowson of this vicarage, to Francis Philips and others; after which the parishioners purchased the rectory and its appurtenances, and held them in fee-farm of the crown;



and the advowson of the vicarage was purchased by the president and fellows of St. John's College, Oxford, who continue patrons thereof.—The present structure was much damaged by the fire of London in 1666. The outward walls and the tower were, however, capable of reparation; and the middle aisle of the church was at the same time made with an arched roof, which was not so originally. This church, in its present situation, measures one hundred and twenty-six feet in length, exclusive of the broad passage at the west end; the breadth, exclusive of the north chapel, is fifty-eight feet; the height of the roof in the middle aisle is thirty-five feet; and the height of the steeple, to the top of the pinnacles, a hundred and forty-six feet. The body of the church is lighted with a row of very large Gothic windows, with buttresses between, over which runs a slight cornice; and on the top a plain and substantial battlement-work, in the style of the public buildings in the reign of Edward IV. At the steeple is a plain square tower, crowned with four pinnacles.—The organ of this church is an extremely good one; there is not perhaps in England an organ with so fine a trumpet-stop.

Opposite St. Sepulchre's church is Angel-court, at the upper end of which is a handsome old house, formerly the Farthing-office. It was afterwards occupied by the Hand-in-Hand fire-office; and is now the residence of Mr. Buckle, printer; the rest is let in tenements. The access to it is also through Green-Arbour-court.

Between Snow-hill and Ludgate-hill runs the street called the Old Bailey, which many of our antiquaries are of opinion is a corruption of *Bale-hill*, an eminence whereon was situated the *bale*, or bailiff's house, wherein he held a court for the trial of malefactors; and this opinion seems to be corroborated by such a court having been held here for many centuries, in which there is a place of security, where the sheriffs keep their prisoners during the session, which still retains the name of the *Bale-dock*. On the east side of the Old Bailey, and contiguous to the place where the Newgate of the city formerly stood, is the gaol for the county of Middlesex, which, from being appropriated to the same uses, also bears the name of Newgate. It is a massy stone building, consisting of two parts, that on the north being appropriated for debtors, and that on the south for felons, between which is a dwelling-house, occupied by the keeper. The whole of the front is formed of rustic work, and at the extremities of each face is an arched niche for a statue, but only two in the south front of the felons' side are yet occupied. Contiguous to this building, and only separated from it by a square court, is Justice-hall, commonly called the Sessions-house. This was formerly a plain brick edifice; but it has lately been rebuilt entirely of stone, and is brought so much forwarder than the old one as to be parallel with the street. On each of the sides is a flight of steps that lead to the court-room, which has a gallery on each side for the accommodation of spectators. The prisoners are brought to this court from Newgate by a passage that closely connects the two buildings; and there is a convenient place under the sessions-house in front, for detaining the prisoners till they are called upon their trials. There are also rooms for the grand and petty jury, with other necessary accommodations. A court is held here eight times a-year by the king's commission of oyer and terminer, for the trial of prisoners for crimes committed within the city of London and county of Middlesex. The judges are the lord-mayor, the aldermen past the chair, and the recorder; who, on such occasions, are attended by both the sheriffs, and by one or more of the national judges. The offences committed in the city are tried by a jury of citizens, and those committed in the county by a jury formed of the house-keepers in the county.

As the frequency of the sessions occasions a great resort of strangers to this place, it is well furnished with houses of refreshment: the Old Bailey, though not a long street, contains seven eating-houses and plenty of drinking-houses.

Opposite to the north end of the Old Bailey in a line with Newgate, is Giltspur-street Compter. It is composed of three pavilions crowned with triangular pediments, and connected by two galleries with flat roofs. The whole of this building, like Newgate, is of rustic stone work; but, having arched windows to the front, it has a lighter appearance. In 1518, there was a prison in Bread-street, Cheap-side, belonging to the sheriff's court for small debts. In 1622, it was removed to Wood-street, and called the New Compter. This prison was destroyed by the fire of London, and rebuilt. In 1791 it again changed its situation as well as name, and it is now called Giltspur-street Compter. The north side is occupied on the ground-floor by female debtors; on the second story is the gaoler's kitchen; the third story is inhabited by persons fined. The fourth side belongs to men-debtors. The centre is the gaoler's house. At the entrance, on the right-hand, is the sheriff's office. The prison is divided into nine wards, appropriated to prisoners of different descriptions; debtors, male and female; felons; persons fined; committed for misdemeanors; and vagrants. The debtors have two courts, nearly of the same dimensions, twenty-eight or thirty feet by eighteen or twenty, both well supplied with water. The fourth court has seven rooms. The north court has five rooms, inhabited by such as have been committed for small offences. Cold and warm baths are provided, and the prisoners are admitted to the use of them on proper occasions; and all the rooms have fire-places. The chapel, and indeed the entire building, is the neatest of all the London prisons.

Ludgate is situated close behind the last-mentioned prison, being part of the same building, and is appropriated to debtors, citizens of London. The prisoners were brought to this place in 1794. This prison is very small, but has every indulgence and accommodation which such narrow premises admit of. The court is but twenty-five feet by ten, but there are two pumps in it. There are in all eleven rooms, of which one is a hall, where the debtors associate in the day. There is also a long room, admitting six inhabitants; and another, the women's ward, that admits two; and also a small chapel.

If we return now to that elevated spot in the *quadri-vium* of Giltspur-street and the Old Bailey, of Newgate and Skinner-street, we find there a pump, handsome enough, but which excites in our mind the wish of seeing some monument and a fountain on this spot. It would certainly be a great ornament to the place; and indeed it is extraordinary that "fontaines," this branch of ornamental architecture, have been so neglected in this country, when nearly all the towns of Italy, and many in France, present some beautiful specimens of the kind.—A fountain is not only a picturesque object and an ornament, but the flowing of lympid crystal in large masses, the running of the stream along the streets, would be truly conducive to the salubrity of the air and to the health of the inhabitants, whilst the perennial murmur of the waters would lull the pensive mind into soft moods of the most pleasing melancholy.

This place is the centre of that long artery of the town which, nearly in a direct line, extends from Tyburn to Mile-end. Descending the slope of Skinner-street, we remark on one side the remains of the Commercial Hall, reduced to ashes a few years since; (see p. 362.) on the other side the still winding and steep remains of Snow-hill, the only access which, for a long lapse of years, existed from Holborn to Newgate-street. Several elegant shops adorn both sides of Skinner-street; and this new-made communication increases every day in respectability and trade. At the bottom is the entrance into Fleet Market. We have already traced the river Fleet nearly from its source. Suffice it now to add, that over this canal were four bridges, not inelegant, since they were built of Portland-stone; the first was at the bottom of Holborn, or Oldbourne; the second where now Fleet-lane on one side leads to Harp-alley on the other; the third at the bottom



of Ludgate-hill and Fleet-street; the fourth opposite to Bridewell, uniting the blackfriars with the white ones. In clearing this rivulet from the rubbish of the fire four years after that dreadful catastrophe, many Roman utensils were found at a depth of fifteen feet; and, still lower, a great quantity of Roman coins, in silver, copper, brass, and other metals, which were conjectured to have been thrown in by the terrified inhabitants at the approach of Boadicea with her army of Britons. The silver coins were the ring-money of several sizes, from that of a crown to a silver two-pence, each having a snip in the edge. Besides these antiquities, a number of others were found, marked with Saxon characters; such as arrow-heads, spurrows of a hand's breadth, daggers, seals, and keys, and a considerable number of modern medals with crosses, crucifixes, &c. But the expense of keeping this canal navigable, proving extremely burthenome to the citizens, it was at last neglected, and became a great and dangerous nuisance, which occasioned the city to apply to parliament for power to arch it over, and make it level with the street; and, having obtained an act for that purpose, the work was begun in the year 1734; and, a market-house with other conveniences being erected on the place, it was opened on the 30th of September, 1737, by the name of Fleet Market. This market consists of two rows of shops, almost the whole length of it, with a passage between, paved with rag-stone. In the centre is a turret, with a clock. The north end is for dealers in vegetables. By the act of parliament to enable the citizens to erect this market, the fee-simple of the ground on which it stands is vested in the mayor, commonalty, and citizens, of London, for ever; with a proviso that sufficient drains shall be kept through the channel; and that no houses, or sheds, exceeding fifteen feet in height, shall be erected thereon.

On the east side of this market, between Ludgate-hill and Fleet-lane, is the Fleet Prison, which was a place of confinement for debtors as early as the reign of Richard I. It is a brick building of considerable length, with galleries in each story, that reach from one end to the other, in which are the rooms for the prisoners. There are about one hundred and twenty-five of these rooms, besides a common kitchen, coffee-room, and tap-room; and behind the prison is a spacious area, in which the prisoners walk, and exercise themselves at different diversions. It is properly the prison belonging to the court of Common Pleas; but persons in contempt of the court of Chancery are also committed to it. The keeper is called Warden of the Fleet; and his place is of very great profit, as well as trust. Prisoners for debt, in any part of England, may be removed to the Fleet by habeas corpus, and enjoy the rules, or keep a house within the liberties, provided they give sufficient security to the warden, to indemnify him in case they should exceed them. The rules, or *liberties*, of the Fleet, are, the north side of Ludgate-hill, as far as the London coffee-house, a part of which only was within the rules, but the whole of which has been lately declared to be in them, since the door-way is in the rules; the Old Bailey, up to Fleet-lane, down that lane into the market, and then, turning the corner on the left, all the east side, along by the Fleet-prison to the bottom of Ludgate-hill.

Directly opposite to Fleet-market is an elegant spacious opening, called Bridge-street, leading to Blackfriars-bridge. On the west side of this street is Bridewell Hospital. This building is situated on the spot where once stood a royal palace, even before the conquest; and which continued, with some little intermission, in that state, till the reign of king Edward VI. In 1087, William the Conqueror gave many of the best materials of it towards rebuilding St. Paul's cathedral, which had then been destroyed by fire; and Henry I. gave also as many stones from the walls of the castle-yard as served to inclose and to form the gates and precincts of the church. Notwithstanding this, the dwelling remained, and became

the residence of several subsequent monarchs. After this it was neglected, until Henry VIII. repaired it for the reception of the emperor Charles V. who visited England in 1522, at a considerable expense: but the emperor lodged in the Blackfriars, and his suite in the palace; and a gallery of communication was flung over the ditch, and a passage cut through the city-wall into the emperor's apartments. Cardinal Wolsey afterwards resided there during his prosperity; and to this palace it was that he convened all the abbots and other heads of religious houses, English and foreign, and squeezed out of them 100,000*l.* an enormous sum in those days; and from the Cistercians, who rejected his supremacy, he extracted 33,000*l.* After Wolsey's fall, Henry VIII. resided there, particularly in 1529, and during the agitation at Blackfriars of the grand question concerning his marriage with queen Catharine; after which it was suffered to decay, and the pious bishop Ridley begged it of Edward VI. to be converted to some charitable use. See the article BRIDEWELL, vol. iii. p. 392.

The hospital was nearly destroyed by the general conflagration in 1666, and many of the houses belonging to it. Immediately after this calamity, places were provided by the governors for the reception of the arts-masters, apprentices, &c. and every possible effort made to restore the buildings, which cost upwards of 6000*l.* At present there is but one vast quadrangle, as the remnants of the old structure which crossed it north and south have lately been taken down; and the perfectly plain chapel which has risen upon the ruins has nothing to recommend it. The whole front has also been taken down, and rebuilt: it is now faced with stone, and presents a noble, though simple, appearance. On the pediment, we find the arms of the city most properly sculptured there.

The prison's gloomy front occupies the south-west corner; and the hall the greater part of the south side. This vast room is thirty-nine paces in length and fifteen in breadth, with a handsome chimney-piece at each end, and arcades at the sides. The ceiling is horizontal, and without other ornament than two flowers wherefrom the lustres depend. Facing each other on the north and south sides are bow-windows, ornamented with semi-domes, brackets, festoons, &c. &c. The other windows are arched, and rows of oval apertures are extended above them. At the west end, and over the chimney, is a large picture, nearly square, by Holbein, representing Edward VI. in the act of delivering the charter for the hospital to the mayor and citizens of London: the king holds it in his left hand, and rests the base of the sceptre gently upon it. He is seated on the throne, and clothed in robes of crimson lined with ermine, and is crowned. The doublet is of white cloth embroidered with gold, and the legs are covered by silk stockings. The lord-mayor, in scarlet robes, kneels at the king's right hand, and receives the charter with the right hand crossing the left on his breast: the head, very much thrown back, is covered by a close black cap, and he wears a small ruff: his knees rest on the two steps of the throne, covered by crimson velvet; but the only two of his brethren shown kneel on the floor. Seven of the great officers of state are placed near the king, under the crimson canopy of the throne, which is drawn in an awkward manner across the upper part of the picture. On the left side of this painting is a seated whole-length of Charles II. and on the right another of his brother: both tolerably painted. On the north wall is a whole length of sir Richard Carr Glynn, bart. president in 1755, full dressed with the civic robes; the city regalia are spread near him. Directly facing him is another whole-length, and a very good picture, of sir Richard Carr Glyn, bart. and alderman, president in 1798, (son of the former.) On the east wall is a large picture of William Withers, esq. lord-mayor, on horseback, preceding queen Anne to St. Paul's cathedral, in 1708: the mayor is seated on a dark bay horse, richly caparisoned. The benefactions are painted on the intermediate pannels.

This foundation is of a mixed nature, partaking of the hospital, the school of industry, the work-house, and the prison



prison for correction. Little can be said of the former department, as it does not receive sick patients; as to the school, it is conducted by six masters of different arts, who are elected by the governors, viz. a printer, bookbinder, ferret, orris, and galloon, weavers, and a silversmith; to whom twenty-eight youths are bound from Christ's Hospital, as apprentices; and these lads are clothed at the charge of Bridewell Hospital, but maintained by their masters, who receive all the profit of their work. They were formerly habited in a blue jacket and trowsers, with a white hat; but this singularity has of late years been judiciously abolished in favour of the usual clothing of other people. When they have served their apprenticeship of seven years, they receive their freedom, and a gift of 10l. towards establishing themselves in business. The work-house, and the prison for vagrants, and idle and disorderly persons of both sexes, are separated into solitary rooms, where employments are provided, which it is a part of their punishment to execute, and which are exacted by their task-masters, and sometimes accompanied with coercion. The chamberlain of London, to whom the administration of justice between master and apprentice is referred, has the power of committing the latter to this place for improper conduct, not amounting to fraud. In visiting these apartments, says Mr. Highmore, "I found in three adjoining rooms three apprentices to an eminent printer, who were committed for having joined with the journeymen in giving their master what is called the *grand wash*; or, in other words, having upset all the frames, types, papers, and every apparatus in his printing-office; when I saw them, they had a log of wood fixed by a chain to their leg, with a quantity of oakum to pick, and the addition of very little light and profound silence, for the occasion of rumination and repentance."

Great improvements have been made upon this estate: new houses have been lately erected in front of the hospital, at an expense of about 3500l. which is thereby inclosed, and its grated windows concealed from view, reserving a handsome entrance from Bridge-street; over which is the treasurer's house. The affairs of this hospital are managed by the governors, who are above three hundred, besides the lord-mayor and court of aldermen, all of whom are likewise governors of Bethlehem Hospital; for, these hospitals being one corporation, they have the same president, governors, clerk, physician, surgeon, and apothecary. This hospital, however, has its own steward, porter, matron, and four beadles, one of whom has the business of correcting the criminals. But, notwithstanding the union of Bridewell and Bethlehem hospitals as above-mentioned, yet it is to be observed that distinct accounts of their respective revenues are kept, although they are governed by the same members.—The account exhibited at Christmas 1803, stated a net income of 6201. 6s. 11d. arising from rents of the estates and the dividends on 3000l. 3 per cents, to which legacies and donations are to be subjoined. The expenses attending the arts-masters and apprentices amounted to 645l. 4s. 6d. the charges attending the vagrants, to 706l. 19s. and the salaries and gratuities to the several officers and servants, and to those attending the vagrants and clothing for the beadles, including the surveyor's per-centage and clerk of the works, amounted to 1586l. 14s. 2d. making a total of 11,618l. 2s. 6d. which exceeded the receipt by 3313l. 3s. 5d.—The following statement was read to the lord-mayor, aldermen, &c. after the Spital Sermon, on Easter Monday, 17814:

Vagrants received by commitments from the lord-mayor and aldermen last year	- - - -	242
Poor persons received to be passed	- - - -	860
Apprentices brought up to trades	- - - -	36
Ditto sent for confinement	- - - -	30
		1168

The Rock assurance-office, the Hand-in-hand, and the

Albion, adorn this large avenue to the magnificent bridge called Blackfriars; and many elegant private houses of reputable tradesmen and others, are seen along towards the handsome area called Chatham Place, from which the view extends right and left from London-bridge to Westminster, with, above the houses, a distant aspect of the undulating hills of Surry as far as the thick woods near Sydenham and the shady groves on the heights of Norwood. At night, the different foundries on the opposite bank of the river, with their chimney-tops burning in the darkened air, and the red flames reflected in long and quivering streaks on the rippling surface of the water, are not without their share of interest.

On the east side of Bridge-street, and opposite to Bridewell, is Apothecaries' Hall, at the top of Union-street, in Water-lane. It is a very handsome building, with a pair of gates in front that lead into a paved court; at the upper end of which is a grand flight of stairs leading into the hall-room, which is built with brick and stone, and adorned with columns of the Tuscan order. The ceiling of the court-room and of the hall are elegantly ornamented with fret-work; the wall is waincoted to the height of fourteen feet, and adorned with the bust of Dr. Gideon Delaun, apothecary to king James I. and with several pieces of exceeding good painting; among which are portraits of James I. and of the gentleman who procured their charter, and who had been obliged to leave France on account of religion. In this building are two large laboratories, one for chemical, and the other for galeucial, preparations; where great quantities of the best medicines are prepared for the use of apothecaries and others; particularly for the surgeons of the royal navy, who here furnish their chests with all useful and necessary medicines.—The arms of the company, (see Plate XI.) carved in stone on the pediment over the entrance-door, are very spiritedly executed. It is a pity that this building does not front Union-street, as it would certainly make a fine contrast with the front of Bridewell.

Just by Apothecaries' Hall is Printing-office court, and Playhouse-street; the last a memento of a theatre once existing there. The other leads to the Times newspaper-office: it is an elegant building in a small square, which by a flight of steps communicates with Earl-street.

On the greatest part of the ground now occupied by several streets and lanes, which offer nothing really worthy of notice, once stood the convent of the Dominicans, called Black Friars, or Friars Preachers, founded about the year 1276, by the interest and exhortations of Robert Kilwarby, archbishop of Canterbury. Edward I. by whose assistance the archbishop was enabled to build the monastery and a large church richly ornamented, kept his charters and records here; and in his time the precinct was crowded with the habitations of the nobility. This monastery obtained every immunity which any religious house had. Its precinct, which was very extensive, was surrounded by a wall with four gates, and contained a great number of shops, the occupiers of which exercised their trades and mysteries, though not free of the city, being subject only to the king, the superior of the house, and their own justices. These ample privileges of the Blackfriars precinct, though now lost, were preserved long after the suppression of religious houses; for when, after the dissolution of the priory, the mayor interfered with them, he was peremptorily commanded to desist, by Henry VIII. who sent him word that "He was as well able to keep the liberties as the friars were:" and in the reign of Mary the citizens made a fruitless application to parliament to grant them jurisdiction over the Blackfriars' precinct; but at length, in the year 1735, they succeeded (see p. 96.) At present, it is included in the ward of Farringdon Within, by the name of the precinct of St. Anne, Blackfriars; the church of which, being destroyed by the fire in 1666, was not rebuilt, and the parish was annexed to that of St. Andrew Wardrobe.

The continuator of Stow, in the edition of the Survey published



published in 1633, has preserved a very interesting account of an event which happened here only ten years before, and was therefore fresh in the memory of every one. We cannot resist extracting some particulars from it. It begins as follows: "The Fatal Vesper, or dismall evensong, happening at the Blackfriars on Sunday in the afternoone, it being the 26 day of October, 1623. There were upon that day, being dedicated to the service of God, assembled together in the Blackfriars, nere the French ambassador's house in ordinary, above three hundred persons of fundry nations, as English, Scottish, Welch, and Irish, to heare a sermon, and after that to celebrate evensong, according to the rites and ceremonies of the Romish church. Hee that was to supply that exercise for the present was father Drury, a Jesuite by profession, and by birth a gentleman, being extracted out of the house of the Norfolkian Druries. Hee was by those of the Romish religion reputed to be a man of great learning, as having studied many years beyond the sea with much approbation and allowance of his superiors; and, although he were opposite in point of faith and beliefe unto the religion now professed in England, yet was he held by the generality of our nation, both protestants and papists, who knew him, to be a man of good morall life, and of a plausible and laudable conversation. So that, in respect to those endowments, there could nothing have been desired more by us, than that hee had not bene a papist, but a member of our church, religion, and profession. The place wherein this congregation was assembled was a chamber nere unto the gate, three stories high, some threescore foot long, and twenty foot broad or thereabouts; the wals were of brick and stone, which are held by all architects to bee the strongest and the surest building." It was observed to the reverend father, that it might be dangerous to preach in that place; but he "would goe forward, with the greatest expedition he could, with his intended sermon; for the accomplishment of which designe, being clad in those robes and ornaments which are used by those of his order, being a Jesuit, having a surplice girt about his middle with a linnen girdle, a red cap with a white one underneath, turned up about the brimmes of his cap, and his other accoutrements belonging, which the Ignatian orders have imposed upon them; and, being placed in a chaire about the middest of the roome, which chaire was raised up something higher than the ordinary levell of the floore; hee crossing himself with the signe of the crosse, and having ended some private prayers, accommodated himselfe to his text, between three and foure of the clocke in the afternoon of the foresaid Sunday.—Having proceeded thus farre, (about the middle of his discourse,) loe what a sudden and unexpected accident fell out.—The sermon inclining towards the middest, and the day declining towards an end, it being almost foure of the clocke in the afternoone, the multitude and crowde of the assembly breaking downe with their overbearing weight the beames and side-timbers wherewith this roome was supported, they fell downe into the next chamber, the floore whereof being broken also with the descending weight of them and the ruines, they fell at last upon the lowest chamber of the edifice, where some of them perished, some were hurted and maymed, other some were free from all hurt and danger, except of that which the present fright and terror did impose upon them; and those were they especially who fell not at all, but remained in one angle or corner of the chamber which was free from falling."—The historian of this sad catastrophe goes on describing with warmth and feeling the consequence of this fall, and says: "So that, since the Sicilian Vespers, there was never an evensong more dolorous unto the French, nor more lamentable unto the Scots and English." Then follows a strong invective against the manners of the day.—"Fornications and adulteries are so frequent in this place," says the zealous writer, "that in vaine may we speake of the bordellas of Rome or the stewes of Venice, since the suburbs of this sinfull city are as bad as the suburbs of Rome or Venice. Moreover our drunkennesse

is such, that, although our eyes look red and our hearts are as fat as brawn with drinking of wine, yet we rise up early to drinke strong drinke;" &c. &c.—The list of those who died by, or in consequence of, this accident, amounts to ninety-four persons, besides the preacher. It is disgusting to reflect on the uncharitable bigotry of the times. The protestants considered the accident as a judgment on the catholics, for their idolatry: the catholics attributed it to a plot of the protestants, to bring destruction on their dissenting brethren.

From the spot where this convent of Dominican friars once existed, we come down, by St. Andrew's Hill, to Earl-street, a place the river-side of which is occupied by several iron and lime wharfs. And now, leaving the city for a few hours, we shall bestow our attention upon *SOÜTK-WARK*, in the county of *Surry*; which some very naturally derive from *south* and *rea*, or *sud* and *ree*, indicating that it is situated on the *sud* or *south* of the river; but others will have it derived from the French *sur* and *rea*, "on the river."

Having crossed the river on the noble bridge of Blackfriars, we shall enter the first opening on our left, after having passed Albion Place, which answers at the south side of the bridge to Chatham Place on the north. It is still in the recollection of several of our readers, that on this spot a mill was erected, which, having excited the animadversion of the public, was supposed to have been set on fire by the malevolent intention of some interested parties, and suffered to be reduced to ashes without any exertions to quench the conflagration. Long has the shell remained a sad momento of the transaction; but, the walls having been found still in a sufficient state of strength, several elegant houses are now made out, and have been for a few years the residence of very respectable families.

The street called Holland-street leads first to the Falcon glass-house, so named from an ancient inn, the remains of which were lately visible on the side of the river at the beginning of Bank-side, but which have been converted to other purposes. This part of the winding banks of the Thames is one of the most interesting, as from hence the astonished eye can enjoy the display of the greatest part of the city, and St. Paul's rising with unparalleled grandeur in the centre.

But, ere we proceed farther along Bank-side, let us turn to the left into John-street, a place so called from an ancient public-house, under the sign of John the Baptist's Head, still existing at the east corner of the northern entrance into the street, which is straight, regularly though modestly built with houses of two stories, and an attic concealed behind the parapet and its *colleague* the gutter. About fifteen or twenty years ago most of the lodgings of this street were consecrated to the Cyprian worship; but by dint of perseverance the church-wardens of Christ-church have cleansed the Augean stables; and, except perhaps a few doubtful second-floors, the place is now perfectly clear.

In the middle of the east side of this street is an opening called Cumberland-street, which leads to Hopton's Alms-houses. Their appearance is neat, presenting to the view three parts of a quadrangle. Over the middle-door, in the centre building, which has a goodly appearance, we read, upon a plain stone tablet, the following simple inscription: "CHARLES HOPTON, Sole Founder of this Charity, 1752." The area is well set with nice turf; and a stone pavement, running all around before the buildings, seems a gentle invitation not to tread upon the emerald tenderness of the green. A small but well-proportioned obelisk, surmounted by a lamp, rises in the middle, and has a good effect through the iron railing set upon a dwarf-wall, on the east side of Green Walk. But what particularly attracted our attention, is a pump contrived in the pedestal of the obelisk, for the common use of the alms-people, and occasionally for the accommodation of the neighbours: above the handle of the pump we read with pleasure this appropriate quo-



tation, engraved, conspicuously enough, but without ostentation, on a small plate, level with the eye of the person who sets the pump at work: "Fear God, and give glory to him; and worship him that made heaven and earth, and the sea, and the fountains of waters." This is truly beautiful, because it is simple: for, if we consider that water is, after the air we breathe, the greatest benefit bestowed by the Almighty upon mankind, we ought naturally to wish such warnings oftener to accompany these public establishments. Hobbling along from the pump, as we have often seen her, the good old woman blesses, after her Creator, the benevolence of Hopton at her evening board,

"Where clear and sparkling in the humble glass  
The wholesome crystal, by sweet blooming fruit  
Gather'd at home, and loaves of home-bak'd bread,  
Invites the thirst."

We had wished to give a more explicit description of this excellent foundation; but the limits of our work do not allow us to expatiate longer about it.

After crossing Church-street, facing Christ-church in the Surrey Road, of which we shall speak presently, we enter Bear-lane. As a slight memento of Bear-gardens, which once existed hereabouts, we find a public-house with the sign of the Bear. A few yards on the right is a very extensive iron-foundry, and above a workhouse.—Dreary windings, intricate lanes and alleys, give to this spot, at night, an appearance the contrary of safety; but, owing to their loneliness and solitude, one may often pass there more securely than in Fleet-street or the Strand. These places were formerly the stews, or public bawdy-houses, licensed and regulated (though it must appear now most preposterous) by the bishop of Winchester—for the government of which certain regulations were made by the said bishop, that were confirmed by parliament. These orders were to be observed by the said stew-holders on very severe penalties; and, for securing all persons accused of crimes committed in this district, a prison was erected, denominated the Clink. This prison is still in being, and the bishop of Winchester's steward tries pleas of debt, damages, or trespass, in the liberty, for any sum. These stews were plundered by Wat Tyler in the year 1381, at which time it appears that they were kept by Flemings. In the year 1506, they were shut up by order of Henry VII. but, being again opened soon after, their number was reduced from eighteen to twelve; and, in the year 1546, they were, by proclamation of Henry VIII. entirely suppressed. See the article *BAWDY-HOUSE*, vol. ii. p. 818.

Much has been said, and with apparent ground, upon the preposterousness of a bishop's granting licenses to *bordellos*, as Stow and other ancient writers call them, (from the *borders* or outskirts of towns where they were hardly suffered.) Yet, if we consider that the sacredness of the matrimonial couch was at that time, as it is now, under the jurisdiction of an ecclesiastical court, which was and still is the proper tribunal to decide upon adultery, fornications, divorces, and other matters relating to matrimony; the stews, being as a sort of remedy against the ruthless lust of some individuals, were supposed to be so connected with the objects of the said jurisdiction, that it was naturally thought convenient and proper that the prevention of the *cause* might be properly placed in the hands of those who were, by the law, the proper judges of the ultimate effect.

On the south of these was Paris Garden, in which was situated one of the ancient play-houses of the metropolis, and here were also exhibited the bear-baitings so much in request among our ancestors. Speaking of the Bear-garden, Stow says; "Herein were kept bears, bulls, and other beasts to be bayted; as also mastives in several kennels, nourished to bayt them. These bears and other beasts are there kept in plots of ground scaffolded about for the beholders to stand safe." The safety of this scaffolding was, however, very problematical; for, in the year

1582, one of them suddenly fell, by which accident multitudes of people were killed, or miserably maimed.

The remembrance of these places still exist, as we said above, in Bear-lane, which leads to Gravel-lane, in a winding road towards the Bench.

Gravel-lane, Ewer-street, and others in the neighbourhood, are particularly inhabited by Irishmen, most of them of the lower class. A sign of which is the show of salt fish generally exhibited on the eve of Friday, Saturday, and Wednesday, in Ember-weeks, as well as in Advent and in Lent, when these good catholics strictly abstain from flesh-eating; but not always from flesh-bruising—for this spot is a sort of diminutive of St. Giles's. On a Sunday evening sometimes, or on any particular occasion, these gentry exhibit their pugilistic skill and bodily strength, first in public-houses, and, when the tap-room begins to be too hot for their exertions and too small for the display of their *milling* talents, then they all together turn out, pell-mell, into the street, which becomes directly the arena of their sports. We happened to witness once a specimen of one of these Hibernian jokes, and feats of bravery; and, though taking no active part in the fray, we could not refrain engraving upon our mind the oddity of a scene the representation of which in words would cover several of our columns; we therefore give up the task.

Gravel-lane winds down to the back of the Falcon-glass-house, the manufactory belonging to Messrs. Pellatt and Green, whose principal chimney often exhibits the most curious and bulky volumes of curled fleecy and brown smoke, warped by the wind into multifarious shapes.—On the east side of Gravel-lane we long sought for the remains of the house where John Bunyan, of *Pilgrim* memory, is said to have broken the "bread of the word" to a rising congregation. The house was in Zoar-street, most likely and scripturally called so from the place where Lot *seceded* from Abraham.

Having been indefatigable in our researches about this house, we at last alighted upon the spot, where we could obtain a comfortable view of the premises *supposed* to have been the place where this strange man exerted himself for the comfort of fearful souls in the dangerous pilgrimage of life. We could only get at the *back-front*; and indeed it has a very romantic appearance, on account of several wooden houses of all shapes, and placed in curious guise about it, besides the brook, which, oscillating along with slow and silent rippings as the tide orders it, seems to nibble gently, but perpetually, at the foundations of these ancient messuages and tenements. Just adjoining to the supposed meeting-house of John Bunyan, is a small cottage, which attracted our attention. It is decorated with shrubs and creeping plants, in a little garden sloping to the paling that fences its flower-plats from the water of the stream. The neat disposition of this little pleasure-ground, the luxuriant and spontaneous plants, uniting with those which seem to evince the hand of industry, were animated by the presence of a good-looking old man, "bordering," as he said, "upon eighty;" with the contrast of a little living flower, a girl, his relation, about ten years of age, fluttering, with butterflies and moths, about him. The whole of this pleasant, though confined, scenery, was so interesting, that we could not help bringing back to our recollection the fourth book of Virgil's *Georgics*, where he describes the old gardener, who, under the high walls and towers of *Cebalia*, now *Taranto* in Italy, cultivated his lilies, his poppies, the rose and the vervain, on the banks of the *Galefus*, and used to chide, the pruning hook in his hand, the tardiness of the summer.

When our old man, here, was talking freely though respectfully of *Squire Pott*, the vinegar-merchant, and *Squire Brady*, a wealthy citizen of the neighbourhood, the words of the Latin poet, "*Regum aquabat opes animis*," flashed at once full upon our mind. We saw the Corycian happy in his little garden, and envying not the wealth or power of kings.—These transitory ideas brought us to a conversation with this old tenant of one of the houses in

Zoar-





*John Bunyan's Meeting-house, Loar-street, Gravel-lane, Southwark.*



*Entrance to Montague Close, and part of St. Saviour's Church, Southwark.*







Zoar-street; and from him we gathered the following interesting, though not very satisfactory, information. He is of opinion that the name of *Bunyan* given to this meeting-house must have originated from some other preacher, relation or descendant of the celebrated one; since Bunyan himself died in 1688, and the houses seem plainly to be of a later date. He recollects that a friend of his told him that he had heard *the* Mr. Bunyan who gave name to the house; but surely it could not be the author of the "Progress," since he has been now dead 126 years. A Dr. Bradbury, our authority remembers well, used to preach there a number of years ago; and he has not forgotten to have seen the sconces and lights for the use of his congregation, the pulpit and benches of which were sold only about four years ago.—Added to this, John Bunyan's meeting-house was at Bedford; and it appears very doubtful whether he ever had any congregation in London, though he died there. See the word BUNYAN, vol. iii. p. 509. Our opinion upon the houses is, however, that they are of very old standing; and there are some of those wooden abodes in the neighbourhood which we could easily believe to have been coeval with the reign of Elizabeth. These buildings may have been often repaired and propped up; but the window of the meeting is apparently of a less ancient date than the rest; the panes of glass being much larger than they were usually even at the end of the seventeenth century.

Between this and Bandy-leg Walk, now straightened to the better denomination of Great Guilford-street, is a large piece of unoccupied ground, crossed over by a dirty brook, which receives the tide, and was useful to the dyers who had their factory there. From the Dyers' Field we enter Maid-lane, now called, as a continuation, Great Guilford-street. This street is most certainly one of the best in the Borough. It is of a new creation: the east side has but few houses; they are new built, high and handsome; and, above the wall which parts them, and is elegantly ornamented with plain modillions under a running course of flag-stones, rises in great majesty, at a distance, the cupola of St. Paul's, which seems insulated in the vast expanse of the skies. This view is interesting, and presents something new to the perambulator.

From Great Guilford-street we enter the eastern part of Maid-lane, which leads us to the very place where the stews mentioned above were kept. Maid-lane, Rose-lane, Bear-gardens, and several others, are sufficient mementos; and we could not help smiling, when on our left we discovered a small *cul de sac*, with, at the corner, the inscription of *Cuckold's Court*; the whole in perfect analogy with the old trade carried on there. For, although it is not liberal to suppose that *decent* married women went to those haunts, for the purpose of bestowing crooked honours on the foreheads of their husbands, yet this little snug court has all the appearance of a lurking-place, where very likely suspicion used to lead, by the nose and in the dark, the fearful husband, there to watch, and fret and sob, in the apprehension lest his stray rib should be one of the priestesses at the altar of the *God of the Gardens*, and (if he could) to catch her in *flagrante delicto*.

Leaving Maid-lane on our right, we come to Bank-side; and following our intended track, through windings and mills, narrow and crooked passages, we arrive, after some trouble, at the old gate in Montague Close, and next to St. Mary-Overy. What remains of this gate, the mere vault of the arch, is remarkable for the purity of its style, which is Norman, and gives us an idea of what the whole edifice to which it was annexed must have been.—The sexton's booth, or shop, or whatever it may be called, occupies the angle, between the opening of Montague Close and the west front of the church, on the south transept of which we read engraved on a stone plinth: "This and the east fronts were repaired in 1735."

An epitome of the interesting history of this church, which is next to Westminster-abbey in antiquity and magnificence of Gothic architecture, will follow.—Where the

church now stands, was anciently situated a priory of nuns, founded by one Mary, the owner of a ferry over the river Thames, before the building of London-bridge. This accounts for the derivation of the latter name, which appears to have been originally called St. Mary of the Ferry; but at length, as we now find it, St. Mary Overy. The priory was afterwards converted into a college of priests; but that establishment, as well as the former, proving of no long duration, it was, in the year 1106, founded by two Norman knights, William Pont de l'Arche, and William Dauncy, and the bishop of Winchester, for canons regular; and dedicated to the Virgin Mary. In the year 1207, this college was burnt down; but Peter de Rupibus, bishop of Winchester, rebuilt it, and added to it a fine chapel for the use of the canons, which he dedicated to St. Mary Magdalen. This structure remained till the reign of Richard II. when the whole was pulled down and rebuilt, together with the conventual church, which, by act of parliament in the reign of Henry VIII. was made parochial, and sold by that prince to the inhabitants of St. Margaret's on the Hill and St. Mary's; after which it was called by the name of St. Saviour's.

This is, perhaps, the largest parish-church in the kingdom; and is a noble Gothic structure in the form of a cathedral, only that some additions of brick have been made to it: these, however, being placed in the room of such parts as were decayed, the uniformity of it is not hurt, and the whole has a grand and venerable appearance. The length of the church is two hundred and sixty feet, and that of the cross-aisle one hundred and nine; the breadth of the body is fifty-four feet, and the height of the tower, including the pinnacles, is one hundred and fifty feet. The construction of the windows, entrance, and every other part, except one door, which is modern, is purely in the Gothic style. The tower, which is square, and well-proportioned, is supported by massy pillars over the meeting of the middle and cross aisles: it is crowned with battlements, and at each corner is a tall slender pinnacle.—Upon the platform of the tower, on a summer evening, the sexton often admits people to enjoy a fine view of the river and of the metropolis, with the adjacent parts. And we are told that they are provided there with all the requisites for enjoying a comfortable cup of tea, which, being drunk in the clouds, must of course appear to participate in taste with the nectar of the gods, and have a heavenly flavour; unless the treacherous winds choose to waft thither the black and dusty breathings of the neighbouring glass-houses and iron-foundries.—However, a painter would have from hence a most beautiful scope for his glowing pallet, and an artist of genius might here find sufficient objects for his studies; even the humble limner might exercise his pencil in portraying the sexton himself. The peal of bells contained in the tower is reckoned among the most harmonious in England; and people fond of that sort of entertainment, are often seen in boats moored about the middle of the distance between Blackfriars and London-bridge, listening with delight to the melodious sound, "swinging slow" with the evening breeze, and dying away on the water. Among these bells, one in particular, which belonged to the ancient set, surpasses all the rest in sweetness of tone, and is, on that account, easily distinguished among her chiming sisters; so much greater was the skill of bell-founders in ancient times!

The inside of the church is extremely grand; and in it are many monuments to the memory of eminent persons, some of which have been lately repaired by the descendants of those families who have made choice of this place for their interment. Among these, in a chapel at the east end of the church, is a remarkable monument belonging to the family of the Austins, erected in the year 1626; and against the north wall, is that of the celebrated English poet John Gower, a great benefactor to the church in the reigns of Edward III. and Richard II. Little remains



now outside of the ancient fabric; yet the sweep of the windows, and the style of the buttresses, evince great antiquity. The access to it is narrow, and cramped by the building of many houses in the neighbourhood; and in the church-yard is a school, which belongs to the establishment of the church, and is called "the Navy School." It is old and neat, and over the door is a circular pediment, under the shell of which are represented two boys holding an open book.

Adjoining to this church is Montague Close, so called from the mansion of the lord Montague, which was formerly situated on this spot, as was also that of the lord Montague. In this close it is said the gun-powder plot was discovered by the miscarriage of a letter, to one of which lords it was delivered by mistake instead of the other; for which happy discovery, Montague Close enjoyed several distinguishing privileges, particularly one, viz. that whoever dwelt there was exempt from having any actions of debt, trespass, &c. served on them. But this privilege, with several others, has been long suppressed. At the west end of St. Saviour's church was anciently situated Winchester-house, which was at first erected by William Gifford, bishop of that see, about the year 1107. Till the civil wars, this was the town-residence of the prelates of that see during their attendance on parliament. Much of it is yet standing, tenanted by different families, or converted into warehouses. Adjoining to it on the south, stood the mansion of the bishop of Rochester; but when, or by whom, erected, is not known. A faint remembrance of Winchester-house still exists in a narrow, short, and dirty, thoroughfare, at the west of the church, and called Winchester-street. Mills of different kinds occupy the space from this to the bank of the river, to which the access is divided into several lanes and narrow passages, which, when well known, shorten the way considerably towards London-bridge.

A little to the west of St. Saviour's is Stoney-street, which, terminating on the bank of the Thames nearly opposite to Dowgate, was probably the continuation of the Watling-road, with the intermediate assistance of the ferry plying there.

The church of St. Olave is at the entrance of Tooley-street, which is long, but in some parts narrow, and is in general exceedingly dirty, owing to the great number of carts that are continually passing with goods from the different wharfs on the south side of the river Thames. Though it cannot be ascertained at what time a church was first situated on this spot, yet it is mentioned as early as the year 1281. However, part of the old church falling down in 1736, and the rest being in a ruinous condition, the parishioners applied to parliament for a power to rebuild it; which being granted, the remains of the old building were taken down in the year 1737, and the present structure finished in 1739. It consists of a plain body strengthened with rustic quoins at the corners; the door is well proportioned, without ornament, and the windows are placed in three series; the lowest is upright, but considerably broad; those above them circular, and the others on the roof are large and semi-circular. The tower consists of three stages, the uppermost of which is considerably diminished; in this is the clock, and in the stages below are large windows. The top of the tower is surrounded by a plain substantial balustrade, and the whole has an air of plainness and simplicity. This parish is a rectory, the patronage of which is in the gift of the crown.

The parish of St. Olave, like many others in the suburbs of London, being greatly increased both in number of houses and inhabitants, the commissioners for erecting fifty new churches within the bills of mortality, purchased the ground, in which the trained bands of Southwark formerly exercised, and, from that circumstance, called the artillery-ground, whereon they erected a parish-church for the district of Horsleydown, and dedicated it to St. John the Evangelist, the inhabitants having obtained an act of parliament for constituting this portion of the parish of St.

Olave into a separate parish, and making a provision for its rector. This church was finished in 1732. The body of it is lighted by two ranges of windows, with a venetian one in the centre, over the door. The east end is circular, and with a dome; and at the west end is a square tower rising from the roof, ornamented with pilasters, and having a balustrade on the top, within which is a square course supporting a neat fluted spire crowned with the volutes of the Ionic order. This parish is a rectory; and, being taken out of St. Olave's, the patronage is also in the crown.

Near St. Olave's church is situated the Bridge-house, which consists of several buildings adapted as store-houses for timber, stone, and other materials for repairing London-bridge. In former times here were several granaries for the service of the city in times of scarcity; and also ten ovens and a brew-house for making bread and beer for the relief of the poor citizens; but these granaries are now applied to the use of the cornfactors, who here lay in considerable quantities of corn. The Bridge-house is under the management of the bridge-masters, whose office is to look after the reparation of London-bridge.—Adjoining to the Bridge-house-yard formerly stood a large house of stone and wood, the city residence of the abbot of St. Augustine's in Canterbury; which afterwards descending to Sir Anthony Sentleger, or Saint Leger, *Sanctus Ledgarius*, a very ancient French family, the site thereof was converted into a wharf, which by an easy transition, is now called Sellenger's Wharf.—On the east side of the Bridge-yard was formerly situated the mansion of the abbot of Battle in Suffex, the name whereof is partly preserved by the place called Battle-Bridge; opposite to which, on the south, lay its fine and spacious garden, wherein was a maze, or labyrinth, the name whereof is also preserved by the spot of ground, which consists of several streets, being at this time called the Maze.

Opposite to St. Olave's is Church-yard Alley, leading to an inclosure before the opening of the church-yard belonging to that parish. Here we find alms-houses called *Queen Elizabeth's*. A passage on the north of these alms-houses leads to High-street in the Borough. Bermondsey-street, a noble thoroughfare, opens on the left side of Tooley-street, and leads to the road called by the name of the *Blue Anchor*, where a public-house and tea-gardens under that name are well attended on summer evenings.

The Borough of Southwark, of which High-street is a principal and perhaps the most ancient part inhabited, is a ward belonging to the city, but it may be said to be only nominal; for, though it has an alderman, he is not elected by the inhabitants, nor have they any representatives in the court of common-council. The senior alderman of London, who is termed *father of the city*, is therefore removed to this ward, whenever a vacancy occurs, as an honourable sinecure, which relieves him from the fatigues of ward-busines.

Some authors have supposed that Southwark was the first place of trade with the Romans, and that London arose from it; but, although this opinion is without foundation, it is however certain that, ever since London began to flourish, Southwark, as one of its appendages, and connected with it in commerce, has experienced a proportionate prosperity. The first mention we find of Southwark in history, is in the reign of Edward the Confessor, about the year 1053; at which time it appears to have been a corporation governed by a bailiff; and it continued in that state till the year 1327, when the city of London obtained a grant of it from the crown, and the mayor was to appoint all its officers. Some few years after, the inhabitants recovered their former privileges, and kept possession of them till the reign of Edward VI. when the crown made a second grant of it to the city of London, for a valuable consideration. At the same time London purchased all the privileges belonging to the archbishops of Canterbury and the abbots of Bermondsey in Southwark; and from that period it has been annexed to London,



don, and is governed by one of the aldermen, and a steward and bailiff appointed by the mayor and common-council; the former of whom holds a court of record at St. Margaret's Hill, for all debts, damages, and trespasses, within his limits. That part of the Borough of Southwark, which is subject to the city of London, is called the Borough Liberty; the other division is called the Clink, and belongs to the bishop of Winchester, who appoints a steward and bailiff, under whom that district is governed. Notwithstanding the royal grants of the Borough of Southwark to the city of London, the Surrey magistrates preserve an authority of appointing constables, licensing victuallers, and exercising other powers as justices of the peace for the county.

In High-street, which is long, populous, and at the opening towards the bridge very narrow, we find still a few old houses, two in particular with curious ornaments in plaster, and their first floors hanging over the pavement of the street; in the centre of these we perceive the remains of a coat of arms, composed probably (for the bottom part of the shield is gone) of three cinquefoils and a chief charged with a lion passant; belonging most likely to the owner of the houses by whom they were so ornamented. But the most interesting object in the place is that benevolent and useful foundation called **ST. THOMAS'S HOSPITAL**, a very handsome stone building for the reception of necessitous sick and wounded. — Camden and Maitland agree in stating, that it owes its foundation to a casual fire which happened in that neighbourhood in the year 1207, which destroyed the priory of St. Mary over Rhe, or Overy, or Of the Ferry. The canons erected an hospital near the spot for the celebration of mass until the monastery could be rebuilt. This was soon after accomplished; but Peter de Rupibus, bishop of Winchester, for the greater convenience of air and water, removed the hospital in the year 1215, and erected it in a place where Richard prior of Bermondsey had only two years before built an almonry or alms-house for the reception of indigent children and necessitous proselytes; and, having dedicated it to St. Thomas the Apostle, endowed it with land of the value of 343*l.* per annum, from which time it was held of the abbot of Bermondsey, and afterwards of the bishops of Winton, who were its patrons at the time of the Reformation, when its value was estimated at 266*l.* 17*s.* 6*d.* It was surrendered to the crown in 1538, by Nicholas Buckland the then master. Besides the estates belonging to this hospital, was the site of an ancient mansion-house called Skinner's Place, forty acres of land, with certain rents and services in West Greenwich in Kent, which were conveyed in 1349, by Ralph Nonthey, to William bishop of Winchester and others, who conveyed them in the same year to this hospital. In the year 1551 the mayor and citizens of London, having purchased of Edward VI. the manor of Southwark, for the sum of 647*l.* 2*s.* 1*d.* which comprised the site of this hospital, repaired and enlarged it at an expense of 1100*l.* and in the following month of November, received into it 260 poor sick and helpless objects; upon which the king, in 1553, incorporated it with St. Bartholomew's, Bridewell, Bethlem, and Christ's, hospitals.

Although the great fire in London did not reach this place, yet the revenues of the hospital suffered considerable injury by it, and also by three great fires in Southwark in 1676, 1681, and 1689, and further by the decay of some of its buildings, which were very ancient, and in a low, damp, and incommodious, situation, unfit for the reception of the sick. A subscription for the purpose of rebuilding them was accordingly set on foot; and this great object was accomplished in 1693, when the buildings were erected, consisting of three quadrangles, one facing the street, and two interior squares; the three wards on the south side of the first were erected at the charge of Thomas Guy (of whom we are presently to speak more at large) in 1707; and three on the north side by Thomas Frederick, one of the governors in 1708; the whole containing nineteen wards

and four hundred and seventy-four beds, which are always occupied; and many out-patients are also relieved. To this a new building was added in 1732, consisting of several wards, a brew-house, and offices, at the expense of the funds of the charity; so that it now consists of four quadrangular courts; in the first of which are wards for women; in the second two chapels, the smallest of which is for the private use of the hospital, and the largest is for parochial use; in the same court, and adjoining to them, are the houses of the treasurer and other officers; in the third court are wards for men: and the fourth contains wards, hot and cold baths, a surgery, theatre, apothecary's shop, &c. Amongst the numerous benefactors to this foundation sir Robert Clayton is mentioned as one of the chief; and the society, to commemorate his liberal character, erected, during his life-time, in 1701, a statue in the second court, with appropriate inscriptions on the north and south sides of the pedestal; whereby it appears that he was native of Northampton, was lord-mayor of London, and having contributed 600*l.* in his life-time, bequeathed by his will 2300*l.* to this hospital, besides having built the girls' ward in Christ's Hospital, &c. He died in 1714, when the statue was repaired. Although it does not appear that there were any estates annexed to the city's original purchase of this hospital, yet the beneficence of the corporation and their fellow-citizens, and others, contributed to raise a very considerable endowment, so as to secure the permanent objects of it, and even to extend its designs; and its progressive utility has been proved by the increase of the numbers who have required its relief; their number, including out-patients, may be taken at an average of six or seven years at nine thousand, and the expenditure at about 10,000*l.* The governors consist of the lord-mayor and court of aldermen *ex officio*, and others who qualify by a donation of 50*l.* their number is unlimited. They choose their officers and servants, who are a president, treasurer, hospitaler, a chaplain, besides the minister of the parish, who is remunerated by the hospital, three physicians, three surgeons, apothecary, clerk, receiver, steward, matron, butler, and brewer, baker, cook, assistant, and servant, an assistant clerk in the counting-house, two porters, four beadles, nineteen sisters, nineteen nurses, nineteen watch-women, a chapel-clerk, sexton, and watchman.

Another establishment of the same kind, another proof of the humanity and benevolence of our ancestors, and particularly of **THOMAS GUY**, who, from his own unassisted funds, founded this hospital which bears his name, will attract, as it does well deserve, the attention of the perambulator, on the south side of St. Thomas's-street. — It is little inferior in its extent to St. Thomas's Hospital, and stands open also for the reception of the sick and wounded. — Mr. Thomas Guy, the founder, was the son of Thomas Guy, a lighterman and coal-dealer in Horsleydown. He had arrived at his eighth year only when his father died. In the year 1660, he was put apprentice to John Clarke, a bookseller and binder, in the porch of Mercers' Hall, in Cheapside: on the 7th of October, 1668, he was admitted by servitude a freeman of the Stationers' Company, and in 1673 was sworn of their livery. He began business with a stock of the value of about 200*l.* Being a single man, he spent little of his profits; he dined on his counter, with no other table-cloth than a newspaper; and was not more nice about his apparel. The public are indebted to a trifling circumstance for the application of this fortune to charitable uses. He employed a female servant, whom he had agreed to marry. Some days previous to the intended ceremony, he had ordered the pavement before his door to be mended up to a particular stone which he had marked, and then left his house on business. This servant, in his absence, looking at the workmen, saw a broken stone beyond this mark which they had not repaired; and, on pointing to it with that design, they acquainted her that Mr. Guy had not ordered them to go so far; she however directed it to be done, adding, with the security incidental to her expectation



tation of soon becoming his wife, "Tell him I bade you, and he will not be angry." But she too soon learnt how fatal it is for any one in a dependent situation to exceed the limits of their authority; for her master, on his return, was enraged at finding that they had stretched beyond his orders, renounced his engagement to his servant, and devoted his ample fortune to public charity. See the word GUY, vol. ix. p. 132.

The only motive which induced Mr. Guy to erect this hospital in so low and close a situation, was, his design of putting it under the management and direction of the governors of that of St. Thomas's. By the advice of his friends, he altered his resolution; but it was then too late to think of choosing another situation; for the building was at that time raised to the second story. However, he rendered the place as agreeable as possible, by its elevation above the neighbouring streets. The building consists of two quadrangles, besides the two wings that extend from the front to the street. The wing on the west side has been lately added; and is built with such elegance and uniformity, as to make the whole a very handsome and regular edifice. The entrance into the building is by an elegant and noble iron gate, supported by stone piers. These gates open into a square, in the centre of which is a brazen statue of the founder, dressed in a livery-gown, and well executed. In the front of the pedestal is this inscription: THOMAS GUY, SOLE FOUNDER OF THIS HOSPITAL IN HIS LIFE-TIME. A.D. MDCCXXI. On the west side of the pedestal is represented, in basso-relievo, the parable of the Good Samaritan; on the south side are Mr. Guy's arms; and on that side of the pedestal facing the east, is our Saviour healing the impotent man.—The centre building is very noble. In the tympanum of the pediment we remark a medallion containing an allegorical figure of Physiology, supported by two patients; one seems to be labouring under acute pains, the other lost in spasmodic lethargy. Underneath are four bas-reliefs with children holding appropriate attributes; and below two niches; one containing Esculapius, with his club and serpent, the other Hygeia with the patera in her right hand. A representation of this beautiful pediment is given in the centre of Plate VII n.

A short time after Mr. Guy's decease, his executors, pursuant to his last will, applied to parliament, to get themselves, with fifty-one other gentlemen nominated by the testator, to be incorporated governors of the intended hospital; upon which all these gentlemen were constituted a body politic and corporate, by the name of the President and Governors of Guy's Hospital. By this act of incorporation, they were to have perpetual succession, and a common seal, with the power of possessing the real and personal estates of the late Thomas Guy, for the purposes of the will, and to purchase, in perpetuity, or for any term of years, any other estate whatsoever, not exceeding twelve thousand pounds per annum. As soon as this corporation was established by parliament, the governors immediately set about completing the work, by finishing and furnishing the hospital, and taking in patients, the number of whom, at first, amounted to four hundred and two. The officers and servants belonging to this hospital are chosen by the governors, who have, ever since, carried on this noble charity in such a manner as to answer, in the strictest degree, the benevolent intentions of the founder.

This institution is under the medical inspection of three physicians and three surgeons, who are allowed 40l. a-year each; and an apothecary, who has a salary of 90l. for himself and assistant, and a house. The officers are a clerk, chaplain, steward, accomptant, matron, butler, and assistant surgery-man, porter, beadle, keeper of the lunatic men, and keeper of the lunatic women. It contains at this time thirteen wards, and four hundred and eleven beds; and behind the hospital is a small neat building for unatic patients. The day of admission is Wednesday. Guy's Hospital is joined with the universities and colleges of Eton, Winchester, and Westminster, the royal hos-

pitals, and the Foundling, in the act of 1708, in the clause of exemption from the tax on servants. The buildings are airy and well calculated to promote recovery; the hospital stands in the centre, and the houses of the principal officers on each side; there is also a theatre for medical lectures, and on Saturday evenings medical subjects are debated there for the improvement of the science and practice. A library is also a part of the establishment, well furnished with professional works, and a collection of anatomical preparations. The petition for patients' admission is delivered gratis, stating the complaint, "and being in low circumstances, and destitute of friends, whereby to obtain a cure;"—this is to be countersigned by a housekeeper undertaking to remove him at his discharge, or death, or pay 1l. for burial to the steward. The expenses of admission amount to 3s. 3d. for a clean patient, and 7s. for a foul patient.

Behind this hospital, and near a place called the Maze, we find Meeting Walk, and a large piece of unoccupied ground, on the side of which we could not help admiring a clump of very old willow trees, which seem to mourn for the departure of the ancient rope-makers who used to make their *retrograde progress* under their shades.

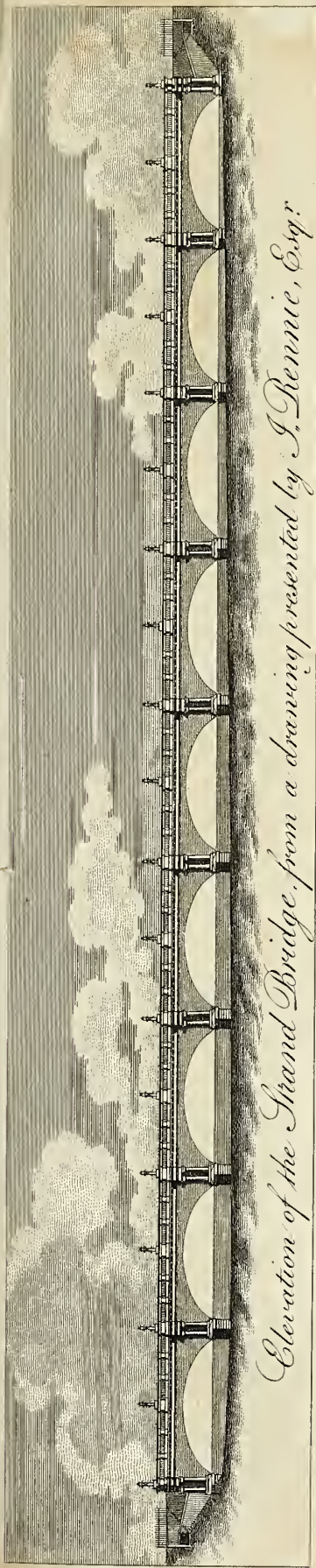
Nearly opposite the hospital, and on the north side of the street, is the parish-church of St. Thomas, which owed its erection to the service of the hospital; but, the number of houses within the precinct having considerably increased, it was judged necessary to leave this church for the use of the inhabitants, and to make it parochial, erecting at the same time a chapel in the hospital more convenient for the access of the patients. This church is therefore in the gift of the governors, who choose one out of two persons returned by the parishioners. This church is a plain brick building; one series of windows, and the corners, strengthened and adorned with rustic work, give it an agreeable appearance: the length of it is a hundred and fifty feet, the breadth thirty-three, the height of the roof twenty-eight, and that of the tower ninety-two.

Going on towards the south, and proceeding through High-street, we find on our right a passage that leads to the Borough Market, a place which has considerably increased within these few years. In shape it is very irregular; and of no very brisk trade; yet the appearance is pleasing, on account of many piazzas with columns built on several parts of the area.—Higher up, where the space widens, we have on our left the *Talbot* inn, properly and originally the *Tabard* or *Tabard* inn. Stow mentions, that, "among the faire innes for receipt of travellers, by the signes of the Spurre, Christopher, Bull, Queen's Head, Tabard, George, Hart, King's Head, &c. the most ancient is the Tabard, so called of the signe, which, as we now term it, is of a jacket, or sleeveless coate, whole before, open on both sides, with a square collar, winged at the shoulders; a stately garment, of old time commonly worn by noblemen and others both at home and abroad, in the warres; but then (to wit in the warres), their armes were embroidered or otherwise depict upon them, that every man by his coate of armes might bee knowne from others. But now these tabards are onely worn by the heralds, and bee called their coates of armes in service. For the inne of the Tabard, Geoffrey Chaucer, esquire, the most famous poet of England, in commendation thereof, writeth thus:

"It befell in that season, on a-day  
In Southwark, at the *Tabert*, as I lay,  
Ready to wend on my pilgrimage  
To Canterbury, with full devout courage;  
That night was comen into the hoftery  
Well nine-and-twenty in a company  
Of fundry folke, by adventure y fall,  
In fellowship, and pilgrims were they all,  
That towards Canterbury wolden ride;  
The stables and chambers werein wide,  
And well we were eased at the best," &c.

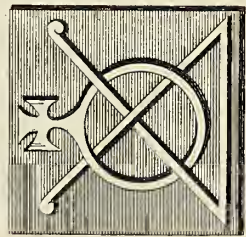
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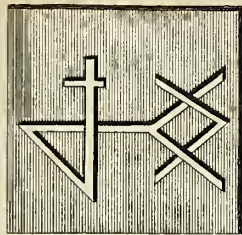


*Elevation of the Grand Bridge, from a drawing presented by J. Rennie, Esq.*

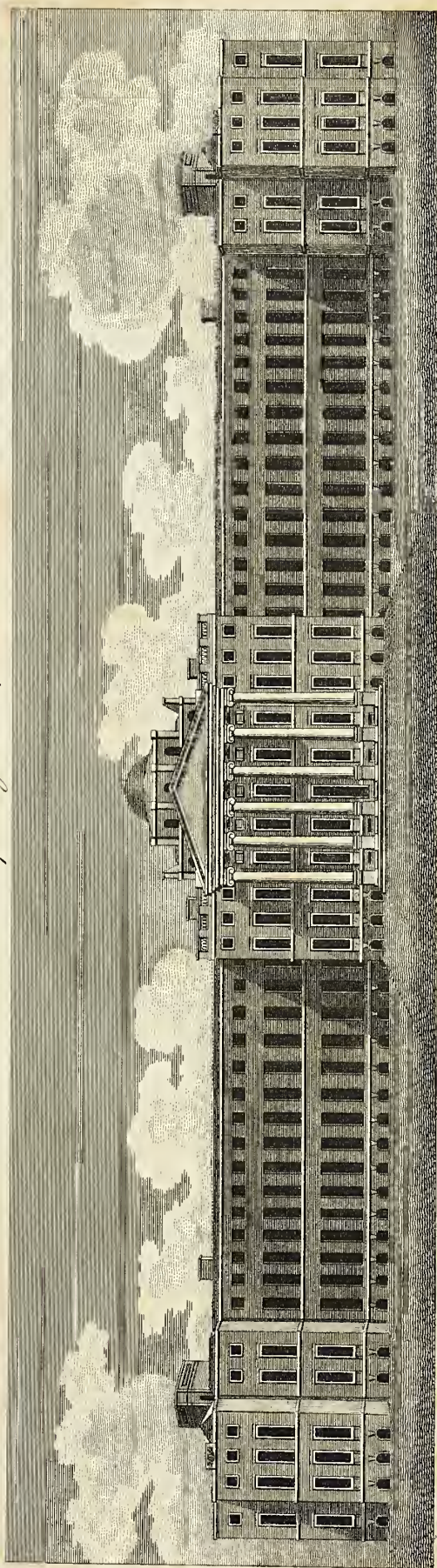
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2



*Pediment of St. George's Hospital.*



*The New Bethlem Hospital.*

London, Published as the Act directs, Decber 1. 1811, by G. Jones.

1799







Behind this part of St. George's parish, to the east, is that of St. Mary Magdalen, Bermondsey, which has usually been described by the historiographers of London as part of the Borough, with which, however, it is wholly unconnected. The church is of very great antiquity, it appearing, from a survey made by William the Conqueror, to have been founded during the time of the Saxons. It received the addition of Bermondsey, from its situation in or near the royal manor called Bermond's Eye, corruptly Bermondsey. Adjoining to the spot where this church now stands, was founded a priory of Cluniac monks, dedicated to St. Saviour, by Alwine Child, a citizen of London, in the year 1082. In 1094, William Rufus endowed it with the manor of Bermond's Eye, which was confirmed by Henry I. in 1127, who at the same time gave to this priory the manor of Rotherhithe and Dulwich; and William Maminot gave them a moiety of the manor of Greenwich. In 1159, Henry II. confirmed to them the donation of the church of Camberwell, and others. And Henry III. granted these monks a market every Monday at their market of Charlton, in the county of Kent; and a fair on Trinity Sunday yearly.

The manor of Bermond's Eye was an ancient demesne of the crown, and all the lands and tenements belonging to it, among which were Camberwell, Rotherhithe, the hide of Southwark, Dulwich, Waddon, and Reyham, with their appurtenances, were impleadable in the court of this manor only, and not at the common law: though this house was no more than a cell to the priory of La Charité, in France; and therefore accounted a priory alien till the year 1380, when Richard II. in consideration of two hundred marks paid into his exchequer, made it a denizen; it was also then made an abbey, and Attleborough became first abbot. At the general suppression of monasteries, this house was surrendered to Henry VIII. by whom it was granted to sir Robert Southwell, Master of the Rolls, who sold it to sir Thomas Pope; the latter pulled down the church, and built a large house upon its site, which afterwards became the possession and residence of the earls of Suffex, who were obliged to build a place for public worship, which was done in or near the place where the church now stands. Some remains of the abbey, we are told, are still to be seen in St. John's Court, on the south side of the church.

The present edifice, which was built in 1680, at the charge of the parish, has been often repaired since, and has suffered material changes. It is a plain structure, seventy-six feet long, sixty-one feet broad, thirty feet high to the roof, and eighty-seven feet to the top of the steeple, which is a low square tower. The walls are brick, covered with stucco, and the door-cases and arched windows are cased with stone. The west front has been adorned of late with a piazza and wooden columns of the Tuscan order. On each side is a iron railing, through which the church-yard and the tomb-stones are seen; and at the north end the engine-house, answering to the watch-house at the south end.—This church is a rectory, the advowson of which, having belonged to the monastery, has undergone various alienations, and is now in private hands.

There are some very singular entries in the register-book of this parish, one of which occurs in 1604, and is entitled "The forme of a solemne vowe made betwixt a man and his wife, havinge bene longe absent, through which occasion the woman beinge married to another man, he took her again as followeth." Then come the declarations of the man to the woman, and of the woman to the man, of their determination to take each other again; after which is a short prayer; and the entry concludes thus: "The first day of August, 1604, Raphe Goodchild, of the parish of Barking, in Thames-street, and Elizabeth his wife, were agreed to live together, and therefore gave their hands one to another, makinge either of them a solemne vow so to doe, in the presence of us, William Stere, parson; Edward Coker; and Richard Eires, clerk." To the entry of the marriage of James Herriott, esq. on

the 4th of January, 1624-5, a N. B. is added, "This James Herriott was one of the forty children of his father, a Scotchman."

In this parish is a free-school, founded in the year 1718, in pursuance of the will of Joliah Bacon; citizen and merchant of London, who bequeathed seven hundred pounds for purchasing the site and erecting the school, which he endowed with an annual income of one hundred and fifty pounds. It is for the education of poor boys, not more than sixty, nor fewer than forty, of the parish of St. Mary Magdalen, Bermondsey.

Here also was a place of entertainment in the summer season, called Bermondsey Spa, from a chalybeate spring discovered there about the year 1770. Previous to this discovery, the premises had been opened by the name of Bermondsey Gardens, for tea-drinking, &c. and had obtained great celebrity from the paintings with which Mr. Keyse, the proprietor, a self-taught artist, had decorated them. About thirty years ago, having obtained a licence for that purpose, he opened his gardens with musical entertainments, fireworks, &c. but all these have disappeared, and the spa is turned into a private house and gardens.

Bermondsey-street may at present be called the great wool-staple of the kingdom, most of the weaving counties being supplied with that commodity from hence.—The various preparations of skins are also carried on to a great extent in this parish. The tanners are incorporated by a charter of queen Anne, dated July 5, in the second year of her reign, by the name of "The Master, Wardens, and Commonalty, of the Art or Mystery of Tanners, of the Parish of St. Mary Magdalen, Bermondsey."

To the east of Bermondsey is *Rotherhithe*, which consists chiefly of one street of great length, running along the shore, and following the bend of the river, nearly as far as Deptford. Henry I. gave the manor to the priory of Bermondsey, by the name of *Rederhithe*; whence it may be inferred, that its name is of Saxon origin, although it does not appear in the Conqueror's Survey.

There is no account extant of the foundation of the original church, which, from the statement of the parishioners, when they applied to have a new one for this parish included among the fifty built by authority of parliament, had stood upwards of four hundred years. Their application failing, the present church was erected at the charge of the parish, assisted by a brief, and some liberal contributions, amounting together to near three thousand pounds. It is dedicated to the Virgin Mary, and, from its situation, is called St. Mary, Rotherhithe. This edifice is built with brick, and ornamented with stone. It is lighted by a double range of windows; and the corners, both in the tower and body, are strengthened with a handsome rustic. The tower consists of two stages: in the lower are a door and window; in the upper a window and dial; and the whole is terminated by a balustrade, from which rises a circular base, that supports a kind of lantern, very elegantly constructed with Corinthian columns: over these are urns with flames; and from the roof of this lantern rises a well-constructed spire, terminated by a ball and vane. In the veltry is a portrait of king Charles I. in his robes, kneeling at a table, and holding a crown of thorns: this formerly hung in the south aisle. It is a rectory, the advowson of which was anciently in the abbey of Bermondsey; but, since the suppression of that monastery, it has passed through various hands, and now belongs to Clare-hall, Cambridge.

There is a free school in this parish, founded in 1612, by Peter Hills and Robert Bell, for educating eight sons of poor seamen. The school-house was rebuilt by subscription in 1745; and the endowment has been so augmented by donations and bequests, that, at present, thirty-three boys and twenty-two girls, are not only educated, but also clothed.

An attempt was made, in East-lane, in this parish, about the year 1720, to restore the cultivation of the vine, which, whether from the inauspicious climate of our



island, or the want of skill in the cultivator, was at that time nearly lost; although there are authentic documents to prove that vineyards did flourish in this country in ancient times. About the time mentioned, a gentleman named Warner, observing that the *munier*, or Burgundy-grape, ripened early, conceived that it might do in a vineyard, and accordingly procured some cuttings, which he planted as standards in his garden, in East-lane; and, though the soil was not favourable, yet, by proper care and cultivation, his fruit was, in a few years, so matured, as to yield good wine, and his vintage so ample, as to afford him upwards of a hundred gallons annually. It is believed, that, of the few vineyards which have been since established, the greater part were supplied from Mr. Warner's cuttings.

On the right side, and at the south extremity of the Borough, formerly stood a church dedicated to St. Margaret on the Hill, the site of which is now occupied by a court of justice, or town-hall. It is a modern-built brick edifice, the front of which is ornamented with stone, and consists of a rustic basement-story, above which are a series of Ionic pilasters; and the whole is crowned with a handsome balustrade. The steward for the city of London holds a court of record here, every Monday, for all debts, damages, and trespasses, within his limits. Besides this court, there are three court-leets held in the borough, for its three liberties, or manors, viz. the Great Liberty, the Guildable, and the King's Manor; in which are chosen constables, ale-conners, &c.

From this court, which fronts the south, runs a spacious well-built street, inhabited by substantial tradesmen, livery-stables, and innkeepers. It was called St. Margaret's Hill, and now the Borough, or Blackman-street; on the east side of which is the Marshalsea Prison, which is a place of confinement for persons who have committed crimes at sea, as pirates, &c. and also for debtors. In this prison is the Marshalsea Court, the judges of which are the steward of his majesty's household for the time being, the steward of the court, who must be a barrister-at-law, and a deputy-steward. In all civil actions tried in this court, both plaintiff and defendant must belong to his majesty's household. The persons confined in this prison for crimes at sea, are tried at the admiralty-sessions in the Old Bailey. In the same prison is the Palace Court, the jurisdiction of which extends twelve miles round the palace of Westminster, the city of London excepted. Actions for debt are tried in this court every Friday; and there are the same judges as in the Marshalsea-court, and a prothonotary, a secondary, deputy prothonotary, four counsellors, and six attorneys. But, in this court, neither plaintiff or defendant must belong to his majesty's household. The buildings of this prison are greatly decayed, but the court-room is spacious and convenient.

Farther to the south is situated the parish-church of St. George; which is of some antiquity, as appears from its having been given by Thomas Arderne to the abbot and monks of Bermondsey in the year 1122. In the year 1629, the old church was repaired and beautified; but the decays of age at length rendered it necessary to take it down; the parishioners therefore applied to parliament for power to erect a new one, and, having obtained an act for that purpose, the first stone of the present edifice was laid on St. George's day, in the year 1734, by Dr. Hough, the rector, as proxy for king George II. and the building was completed in 1736. It is a very handsome structure, with a lofty and noble spire. The ascent to the great door is by a flight of steps, within a row of plain iron rails, that extend along the whole front of the building. The door-case, which is of the Ionic order, has a circular pediment, ornamented with the heads of cherubs in clouds, and, above this pediment, the front is adorned with balustrades and vases. From this place rises a plain square tower, strengthened with rustic quoins, as is the body of the building; and on the corners of the tower

are again placed vases. Above this is an octagonal tower with arched openings on the four principal faces, and a series of Ionic columns at the corners supporting the base of the spire, which is also octangular, and crowned at its apex with a ball, from which rises the vane. This church is a rectory, which, as has been observed before, was anciently belonging to the prior of Bermondsey. It is at present in the gift of the crown.

A very useful and elegant improvement has been made near this church, by opening a turnpike-road towards Greenwich and the south-eastern communications, as far as the Bricklayers' Arms, in order to avoid the ill-paved Kent-street and the round-about way by the Elephant and Castle. Besides its noble appearance, it gives a free circulation to the air; and Dover-street will in time, most likely, be one of the finest streets in the Borough.

On the south side of the street we find the large opening called Union-street; in which we remark Union-hall, one of the police-offices. The building is of brick, but faced elegantly with stucco, and having two niches, one of each side of the entrance. It retires a little from the line of building in the street; and the next neighbours, in adorning and facing also with stucco the front of their houses, seem to have emulated between themselves who could render his house most ornamental to the hall. At the corner of Union-street and Redcross-street is a neat square building consecrated to the instruction of children, and called St. Saviour's Charity-school; annexed to which is a church-yard, belonging to the said parish, and denominated most curiously, "Raw-bones church-yard."—Union-street, crossing Redcross-street, part of which is entirely inhabited by brokers, extends now as far as Gravel-lane, and, opening into Charlotte-street, runs by Rowland Hill's chapel; then enters the marsh of Lambeth, and thus makes a free and exceedingly-good communication between the three bridges; it was formerly called Duke-street from Gravel-lane to the Roebuck public-house; then Queen-street to Redcross-street; and then Union-street to Blackman-street; but now it continues this last denomination all through, and very properly, since it *unites* the eastern with the western parts of Southwark.

Blackman-street, which we left a few lines above, bears that name from the church to Stones End. It has on the west several openings, of which Mint-street, opposite to the church, is the narrowest; and leads to the place where stood anciently a magnificent mansion belonging to Charles Brandon, duke of Suffolk, the favourite of our fickle king Harry the Eighth. After the death of the duke it fell into the king's hands, who erected there a royal mint. At that time it was called Southwark-place; and was afterwards given by queen Mary to the archbishop of York, as an inn or residence for him and his successors, whenever they repaired to London. This place continued for many years an asylum for fraudulent debtors, who took refuge here with their effects, and set their creditors at defiance; but, becoming at length a pest to the neighbourhood, by giving shelter to villains of every description, the attention of parliament was directed to it, and in the reign of George I. all its privileges were totally suppressed.

The place now called the Mint, contains several dirty narrow streets, inhabited by very low people, many of them employed in the sedentary and unprofitable business of pin's-head making.—A place between four little streets is emphatically called Mint-square, but scarcely deserves notice. Between this place and the northern walls of the King's-Bench prison, hardly one house was to be seen about six years ago. It was bought upon building-leases by Mr. Spiller, (the great distiller in the Surry Road;) and now it is covered with streets and lanes intersecting each other at right angles, and crossed through by Lant-street and Great-Suffolk-street, the last so called in remembrance of the duke above mentioned, instead of its ancient and most appropriate denomination of *Dirty-lane*.—Opposite to this street another opening is making, to have a continuation









*Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb.*



*Freemason's Charity for Female Children.*



ation to, and communication with, the New Cut from the church to the Bricklayers' Arms. This noble road, communicating with the Surry Road, connects also the cities of London and Westminster with Southwark and the adjacent places.

The number of little preaching and singing houses in this neighbourhood is astonishing.—In one of the small streets near Mint-square is a sort of ground-floor, where in the course of the week rusty iron, bug-haunted bedsteads, broken-winded bellows, deformed shovels, limping tongs, and incurably-crooked pokers, are exposed to sale; but on Sunday all this trumpery disappears, a blanket is spread before the door, and a congregation listen most devoutly to the licensed nonfence of a man who seems to have forgotten, if he ever knew it, the ancient adage! *Ne furor ultra crepidam*; "Let the cobbler stick to his last."—On the south of Lant-street, at the entrance of John-street, was erected, in 1811, Sion Chapel, a neat building, and now pretty well attended. Originally, the walls resounded only with the timid voices of a rising and modest congregation; but now an organ has been introduced; tenors, basses, and sopranos, of both sexes, unite in *methodical*, or rather *methodistical*, harmony, and gladden the neighbours with their evening melody. However, religious concerns, like others, have their ups and downs; for we remarked at each entrance a modest mahogany box with this inscription: "Contributions are received here for liquidating the debts of this chapel."—Farther on, in a narrow and hitherto-nameless street, leading from Great Suffolk-street to Stones End, and at the foot of the solemn and grim-looking walls of the Bench, is another place of worship: but here the success has been small; for the poor preacher spends his time and lungs on an empty house or to a sleeping auditory.—The best-attended chapel in this quarter, is the Welsh one in Little Guilford-street. This was erected about seven years ago, and continues flourishing and increasing. Those who are not acquainted with the Celtic liturgy are astonished at the tones which the preacher assumes in the pulpit: sometimes it is a monotonous and rapid delivery of words upon the same key, touching at times the fifth above, or grazing lightly upon the fourth below; sometimes getting into a lively mood, in the same way as an *aria* seems to issue out of a *recitativo*; at other times the thumping of the Bible, and the wiping of his oozing forehead, sets by degrees the whole congregation a-groaning, and sighing, and sobbing, till at last they disperse.

At the end of Blackman-street, and where the road branches on one side towards Newington, and on the other towards the Obelisk, is the King's-Bench prison. It is a place of confinement for debtors; and for those sentenced by the court of King's-Bench to suffer imprisonment for libels and other misdemeanors; but those who can purchase the *liberties* have the benefit of walking through a part of the Borough, and in St. George's Fields. This prison is situated in a fine air; but all prospect of the fields, even from the uppermost windows, is excluded by the height of the walls with which it is surrounded. It has a neat chapel; and only one bed in each room; but these rooms are extremely small; they are all exactly alike, and none above nine feet in length. It is a very extensive brick building, outside of which the marshal, who has the keeping of this gaol, has very handsome apartments.

Nearly opposite to this prison, in Horsfonger-lane, is the New Gaol for the county of Surry. It is a massy brick building, surrounded with a strong wall; and the place of execution is a temporary scaffold erected on the top of the lodge on the north side of it. The keeper's house is a handsome building on the west side.—Annexed to it, and making part of the whole plan, is the sessions-house, where causes are tried for the county.

A little farther, towards the fields, is a delightful spot, where a pensive mind may, in a summer-evening, indulge

an hour or two of delightful musing and wholesome promenade. It is planted with poplars and willow-trees, surrounded and intersected by small canals of water, which should always be kept pure and limpid; but this sort of desideratum does not always meet the satisfaction of the visitors.—The solitary walks breathe a sweet melancholy air that pervades the feeling mind; and the gentle rippling of the water, united to the soft rustling of the leaves, amuses the soul, and, when unhappy, soothes it into a welcome repose. The place is well frequented in general, and reminds us of the lines of the poet:

There see  
The tall grey poplars nodding in the wind;  
A faithful image of my waving mind,  
When, with contending passions daily tost,  
'Twixt hopes and fears, it seems oft to be lost:  
The trembling leaf to ev'ry breeze obey,  
And yields indiff'rent to the strongest sway.

It is surrounded by a number of small private gardens, whose shrubs and flowers pay incessantly their tribute of sweets to the ambient air. The place is called the *Half-penny Hatch*; and the passage through it shortens the way considerably from Stones End to the Greenwich Road.

At the end of this road we find the Paragon, a neat circle of houses, faced by a thick row of beautiful Italian poplars; and the Bricklayers' Arms, mentioned at p. 51.—A little farther on the right we meet with the excellent establishment lately appropriated for the Deaf and Dumb. See Plate VII. o. where this simple but elegant building is faithfully represented. It was with pleasure that, passing near the Obelisk in our survey, we heard the blind executing pieces of instrumental music and military marches in the yard of their school; this appeared to us an excellent plan; that is, employing the blind in an art which requires keenness and correctness in the sense of hearing. And it presently struck us that the art of drawing and painting should be taught and learned at the Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb. It has been observed that the loss of one of the five senses is generally compensated by a superior correctness in those which remain; and that the hearing and touch of the blind is more perfect, and, vice versa, the sight of the dumb more keen, than in others. It would be therefore a wise speculation to profit by the advantages which nature presents to us in those unfortunate individuals whom Providence has visited with such privations.—The plan of this Asylum, however, does not extend to drawing. Writing and arithmetic are taught; and also *speaking*, in the manner described under DUMBNESS, vol. vi. p. 115. The present building was completed in the year 1809; and, since that time, the old Asylum, in Fort Place, Bermondsey, has been fitted up as a manufactory, and proper masters are engaged to instruct in useful trades such of the poor children as have no parents or friends to whom they can be returned with a prospect of future maintenance. The trades at present selected for this purpose are those of printers, tailors, and shoemakers. Many of the boys are now under this highly-useful instruction; and, as the several works are executed at the usual prices, the humane and benevolent have here the opportunity of performing a very essential act of charity, without a direct contribution, by sending some of their orders to this manufactory.

At the bifurcation between the Borough Road and Newington Causeway, are St. George's alms-houses, and a school supported by voluntary contribution.—This small mass of houses, fenced on one side by a low wall, and adorned with an old ycamore-tree, is exceedingly picturesque, having on the right a distant view of the Obelisk, and on the left another nearly as far as the Elephant and Cattle.—One of the ornaments of Newington Causeway is the front of Hayward's floor-cloth manufactory, executed in composition or stucco, with handsome pilasters, and the inscription raised boldly on the ground.—On the right we find a large piece of ground commonly called



St. George's Fields. It was for a long time the repository of all the filth which nightmen gather in their operations, and remains still unoccupied. We understand that a handsome square is to be built there as an ornament to this part of the Borough; and we hope that scented shrubs and odoriferous plants will at last cleanse the air of the mephitic vapours which still circulate there.

Having passed the turnpike, we reach that public house, a place of rendezvous for a numerous quantity of stages, and called, as mentioned before, the Elephant and Castle.—It is amusing to see the rapid succession of those public vehicles coming from all parts, and stopping a few minutes there to receive or deliver, to take up or set down, parcels and passengers.

Near to this place of resort we find, what we should have expected far from the bustle of coachmen and grooms, from the swearing of impatient travellers, the snorting of horses, the cracks of whips—we find a place called the *House of God*; a small meeting-house with a portico supported by two columns of brick faced with plaster.—Here Mrs. Joanna Southcott began her public exhibitions, under the protection of, and in spiritual partnership with, Mr. Carpenter; but the holy firm has been dissolved several years: a schism took place; some of the customers, detained we suppose by the enchantment and charms of the allegoric daubs with which the sides of the House of God are *ungodly* besmeared, remained staunch and fixed to the place—while others, drawn off by the more powerful attraction of Joanna, migrated with her high destiny towards the spot where once the Dog and Duck called the profane on a Sunday evening, to sip tea and quaff ale in a garden. Thus the patriarchs of old are said to have parted on the flowery meadows of Jordan, before the well-irrigated vales and fruitful plains of Zoar. The place where the pretended future mother of Shiloh vends her spiritual warrants for a place in the house of God in heaven, under the direction and partnership of Mr. Tozer, a shop-keeper, is in a court at the end of Duke-street, behind the Freemasons' Charity School, where a crowd of pious hearers swallow the blasphematory pills.

We expected, by the time we reached this part of our survey, to have been able to announce the accouchment of Mrs. or rather Miss Southcott. This, however, has not yet taken place, though, reckoning after the manner of women, the time of gestation, from the 11th of October, 1813, (see p. 369,) to the present month of August 1814, might be expected to have been accomplished. Some say that the lady has miscarried. But these are scoffers. Her Fourth Book of Wonders, dated April 13, 1814, has the following passage: (it is the Spirit that speaks.) "Thou May thou wilt feel the life of the child within thee, that will be announced throughout the land. For, as I spoke of May, in May it will be; and then they will see, from the shadow, what the substance meaneth, of the second Star, and my second coming; and, as I told thee that my harvest was fast approaching, so they will find, before the *ensuing harvest is ended, that the Son whom I have warned thee of will be born.*" The time, however, has been probably, and for wise reasons no doubt, enlarged; for Mr. Tozer in his sermon of Sunday, July 31, informed us, that "our spiritual mother will bring forth the true Messiah *some time before the twelfth of next January,*" (1815.)—In the mean time she has been literally overwhelmed with presents. Laced caps, embroidered bibs, and worked robes, a mohair mantle which cost 150l. splendid silver pap-spoons and caudle-cups (one shaped like a dove)—have been poured in upon her, till she has at length determined to receive no more of such things. To complete the desired apparatus, a magnificent crib has just been finished by one of our first upholsterers, of which a friend has favoured us with the following particulars. "A short Description of a Crib, made by Mr. Seddons, of Alder-gate-street, according to the order of some Gentlemen, who are members of the Church established by Joanna Southcott, for the New Messiah, with whom they believe she is now pregnant. This

crib, which is made of an oblong square, is of the usual size of modern cribs; the frame is made with satin-wood, richly ornamented with gold; the sides and ends filled with lattice-work of gold. The body of the crib, which they call the *manger*, is richly lined with blue satin, drawn together so as to give it the appearance of fluted work. The pillars on which it stands are taper, with ribbands of gold entwining round them. The head-cloth is of blue satin, with a celestial crown of gold embroidered upon it, and underneath this appears the word SHILOH, in Hebrew characters, richly drawn, and exhibited in gold spangles. Over the head-part of the crib appears an elegant canopy of blue satin, lined with the finest white muslin, which is drawn together to a point, and fastened underneath, or within the canopy, by a rose of blue satin. The outer point of the canopy is finished with the figure of a dove in gold, resting on a small white ball, and bearing a branch of olive in its mouth. Around the outer rim of the canopy is this inscription, in letters of gold: *A free-will offering by Faith to the promised Seed.* The curtains and other drapery are blue satin edged with gold fringe, and looped up with gold line and gold tassels. The inner curtains are of fine white muslin. The above is a description of what they call the *manger*; besides which they have a crib which fits within the former, and hangs upon swivels, that a proper motion may be given to it whenever the young prince may require rocking. The crib itself is made with satin wood, fitted in with the most beautiful cane-work, from which passes a cord of gold to a pedal, which is designed to rock the cradle whenever this may be proper for the infant, and to prevent the necessity of leaning over the manger, which might incommode the supernatural babe. The bed is of the finest eider-down, in a white covering; the coverlet is of the richest white satin, with a medallion in the centre, bearing the figure of a lamb lying down with a lion. The lamb is worked in silver, the lion in gold. These are furnished by a tree of life, worked in gold also. The sheets for the bed are made of the best cambric edged with expensive lace.—July 29, 1814."

While pondering upon these things, in the neighbourhood of the Obelisk, on Sunday evening last, the 7th of August, we were roused by a sort of hissing, hooting, or shouting, issuing from Duke-street, just behind the Surry Theatre; and we had the fortune to meet Mr. Tozer followed by about six score of boys, assailing his ears with no pleasing music; but we became sore afraid lest these obstreperous youths should have been treated as the little children were by the prophet Elijah. 2 Kings, ii. 24. Our prophet, however, who had no *she-bears* at hand, took all in good part, and went his way.—This made us desirous to see the chapel where Mr. Tozer had just displayed his *timber-strong* eloquence; for we understand that, besides keeping a chandler's shop, he exercises the trade of *carpenter* and *timber-merchant*; and it is a curious coincidence, that, whilst we are told that Joseph, the supposed father of Christ, was by profession a *carpenter*, Joanna should have had for her friends two *carpenters*, one by name and the other by trade. The chapel is a plain low building of brick: under the gable-end is a white dove, in the act of descending from above, carved in wood or stone upon a yellow ground; and under it this mystical inscription: "Built by William Tozer, April 16, 1803, by voluntary contributions." The meaning of which we do not perfectly understand.

We presently come to a much more useful and more rational establishment; a place of silence, solitude, and comfort, for old and infirm tradesmen: two sets of almshouses belonging to the Fishmongers' Company. The most ancient of these is St. Peter's Hospital, erected by the Company of Fishmongers, who procured letters patent for that purpose, from king James I. in the year 1618. It is a plain Gothic structure, built with brick and stone, with a wall before it, within which are two rows of tall trees, and behind the building is a large garden. The entrance



entrance is by a pair of iron gates, opening to the centre of the building, which is lofty, but very irregular. On the inside are two courts, behind each other, in one of which is a hall, with painted windows, and a chapel. On the sides of these courts are inscriptions, signifying that they were erected at different periods. This charitable foundation was established for the relief of poor decayed members of the Fishmongers' Company, twenty-two of whom are constantly in it; each of whom has two rooms, three shillings per week, fifteen shillings at Christmas, a chaldron of coals, and a gown. One of the pensioners is appointed to read prayers twice a-day in the chapel; and is allowed forty shillings at Christmas, over and above the common salary.

To the south of this hospital is another, founded by Mr. James Hulbert, a liveryman of the Fishmongers' Company, in the year 1719, for twenty poor men and women, whose accommodations are much the same as those in the one already mentioned. This building has pleasant walks before it, and within the wall, fronting the house, is the statue of the founder, placed on a pedestal. The benevolent old liveryman is here represented with his livery-gown and fur; and, with an old-fashioned walking stick in his hand, he seems to point out the ground where the first stone of the foundation was to be laid. The view, through an iron railing, is most picturesque; and indeed, the whole of this establishment conveys more to the mind than the pen can express. The entrance has a sort of lobby with a lantern at top, which, when lighted, on a winter's evening, and when the bell tolls for prayers, reminds us of an Italian hermitage surrounded with trees in the vales of the Apennine or on the banks of the Arno.

From hence we proceed towards the Obelisk, placed between five handsome roads which meet there and seem to form a far-radiating star.—This monument is noble and simple, surrounded by an iron railing, and ends at top in a diamond-head. It is not gorgeously adorned with bas-reliefs or other sculptured ornaments; but each of the sides has an inscription which is more useful than any other could have been. On the north front we read, "One Mile CCCL feet from Fleet-street;" and underneath are the arms of the city plainly carved. On the west side: "One Mile from Palace-yard, Westminster." On the east side: "One Mile XXXX feet from London Bridge." At the back or south side: "Erected in (the) XIth year of the reign of King George the Third, M.DCC.LXXI." and on the plinth below: "The Right Honourable BRASS CROSBY, Esquire, Lord Mayor."

This spot is surrounded by several very useful establishments—the Philanthropic School, the Blind Hospital, the Royal Freemasons' School, the Asylum, the New Bedlam, and the MAGDALEN. This last is a benevolent institution, projected in the year 1758, by Mr. Robert Dingley. It was at first kept in a large house, formerly the London Infirmary, in Prescot-street, Goodman's Fields. The utility of this charity was so conspicuous, and so well supported, that the views of the benefactors extended to the building an edifice more enlarged and convenient for the purpose; in consequence of which, the spot on which the present edifice stands was made choice of; and on the 28th of July, in the year 1769, the earl of Hertford, president, with the vice-president and governors, laid the first stone at the altar of the chapel. This hospital consists of four brick buildings, which enclose a quadrangle, with a basin in the centre. The chapel is an octangular edifice erected at one of the back corners; and, to give the inclosed court an uniformity, a building of a similar front is placed at the opposite corner.

The unhappy women for whose benefit this hospital was erected, are received by petition, a printed form of which may be obtained gratis on application at the door; and there is a distinction in the wards, according to the education or behaviour of the persons admitted. Each ward is entrusted to its particular assistant, and the whole is under the inspection of a matron. The treatment of

the women is accompanied with every possible degree of tenderness, in order that the establishment, instead of being considered as a house of correction or labour, may be thought a safe retreat from error, and its attendant wretchedness. They are instructed and practised in the duties of the Christian religion; and each one is employed in such kind of work as is suitable to her abilities, or trained in the various branches of domestic employment, in order to qualify her to obtain an honest livelihood by service. When a young woman is admitted into the house, and has given satisfactory proofs of her inclination to quit the paths of vice, great pains are taken to bring about a reconciliation between her and her friends, and, if they are people of honest fame, to put her under their protection; but no woman who behaves well in the house is ever dismissed from it, except at her own request, until she is provided with the means of obtaining a reputable livelihood; and, as a further encouragement to a perseverance in rectitude, every woman placed in service from this institution, who, at the end of a year, can obtain a satisfactory testimonial of her good behaviour for that time, receives a gratuity from the committee as a reward for the past, and an encouragement for her future good conduct.

To enlarge on the utility of such an institution must be needless. It is obvious that there cannot be greater objects of compassion than young thoughtless females, plunged into vice and ruin, by temptations to which their youth and personal advantages, no less than those passions implanted by nature for wise, good, and great ends, expose them. But to no class is such a sanctuary more beneficial than to those who, having been seduced by promises of marriage, are deserted by their seducers. These have never been in public prostitution; but, abandoned by their relations in the first moments of anger, thrown upon an unfeeling world, without money, without character, and without a friend, the stern impulse of hunger would compel them to embrace a life of guilt and misery, or to seek a more dreadful alternative in suicide, did not this mansion offer them a secure retreat from further temptation, and a peaceful virtuous abode, until the repentment of their parents became cooled by reflection, or they had acquired the means of procuring a creditable maintenance by honest industry. The seeds of virtue are not suddenly destroyed; and, though paralyzed for a time by delusion, would frequently revive, were an assisting hand stretched forth. This truth was never more strongly exemplified than in the annals of the Magdalen Hospital. Of several thousands received into it since its institution, very few have been discharged for improper behaviour, or from dislike to the constraint; and upwards of two-thirds have been restored to society, have become reputable and industrious members of it, many of them virtuous wives, and tender mothers, who, but for it, might have been forced to linger out a miserable existence, by preying on the unwary, and spreading profligacy, ruin, disease, and death, through the human species.

Nearly behind this house, in the road leading to Westminster-bridge, stands a kindred institution: the Freemasons' Charity for Female Children; originally called the Royal Cumberland Freemasons' School, because founded under the patronage of the late duchess of Cumberland.

Freemasonry, which proudly boasts of its antiquity, and imperiously demands the practice of every moral virtue, had not, till this institution was established, extended its beneficence to female objects. The purpose of this institution is to preserve the female offspring of indigent freemasons from the dangers and misfortunes to which a distressed situation naturally exposes them. On the 25th of March, 1788, this charity was instituted for maintaining, clothing, and educating, the female children and orphans of indigent brethren belonging to the ancient and honourable society of free and accepted masons. At first, a house for their reception was taken at Somers' Town. But the liberal support which the charity experienced

from



from the fraternity enabling the governors to extend its benefits much beyond their original plan, the piece of ground on which the school now stands was hired on lease from the city of London, and the present commodious structure erected at an expense of upwards of two thousand five hundred pounds, in the year 1793. It is a neat plain building with a rustic basement-story, which contains the kitchens, offices, &c. The ascent to the principal entrance is by a flight of steps from a small garden. In the front are three elegant and appropriate statues of Faith, Hope, and Charity; the two former in niches on the two sides, and the latter on the top of the structure. These were a present to the institution, in the year 1801, from Messrs. Van Spangen and Co. Of this building we have given a representation on Plate VII. but whether its triangular shape and slant position have been purposely chosen in allusion to some tenets of masonry, we dare not scrutinize. The premises are sufficiently capacious to contain one hundred children, who are trained up in the knowledge of virtue and religion, in early detestation of vice and its unhappy consequences, in industry, and, to impress strongly on their minds a due sense of subordination, in true humility and obedience to their superiors. They are admitted into the school from the age of five to ten years, without any restriction as to their parochial settlement, whether in town or country, and continued therein until they attain the age of fifteen years; during which time they are carefully instructed in every domestic employment; and when they quit the school are bound apprentice for four years, either to trades, or as domestic servants, whichever may be found most suitable to their respective capacities, and have a supply of clothing given them to the value of four guineas; and, as an encouragement for serving their apprenticeship faithfully, a premium of five guineas is also given them, on producing their master or mistress's testimonial of their good behaviour. No child who has not had the small-pox, or who has any defect in its sight or limbs, or is weak, sickly, or afflicted with any disorder or infirmity whatever, can be admitted. And every applicant must produce a certificate, from the master and wardens of the lodge in which *her father was made a mason*, that he had been at last three years a member of the fraternity previous to such application; the grand secretary's certificate, that he has been duly registered in the grand-lodge books; a certificate of the marriage of her parents; a register of her age from the parish where she was born; and a certificate from two of the medical governors of the state of her health. A considerable part of the children's time is employed in needle-work, executed in the neatest manner, on the following terms:—a plain shirt 1s. 9d. a ruffled ditto 2s. a shift 1s. 6d. sheets from 10d. to 1s. 6d. and all other sorts of needle-work in the same reasonable proportions. The charity is supported by benefactions, legacies, and annual contributions. Of the lodges which have subscribed, the Grand Lodge of England, the Grand and Royal Conclave of Knights Templars of England, and sixteen other lodges, subscribed twenty guineas, the masters of which are perpetual governors; seventeen lodges subscribed ten guineas each, and their masters are governors for fifteen years from the time of subscribing; eighty-eight other lodges in the metropolis, and other parts of the kingdom, and at Calcutta, subscribe annually: benefactions have been constantly received from other lodges. A grand concert has been annually performed at Freemasons' Hall, the profits of which have seldom amounted to less than 200l. and a benefit was given for several years at the Royal Circus, which produced about 100l. each year.

In the London Road, we remark a Roman-catholic chapel, established there several years ago. We have often admired the altar-piece, which was a Descent from the Cross, and a good specimen of the chromatic art, painted by one of the modern Italian masters in the beginning of the last century; and which has been copied by Mrs. Col-

way for the Bavarian chapel, in Warwick-street, Golden-square. The picture being much decayed, a plain crucifixion has been substituted for it.

On the east of the Obelisk we discover the workshops, chapel, &c. of the Philanthropic Society, for the prevention of crimes, and the reform of the criminal poor; contrary, therefore, to all other establishments, depravity is a recommendation to this. Prisons, and the hiding-places of villany, supply the children for this school of reform. The intention of this society, which was instituted in 1788, is to give a good education, with the means of acquiring an honest livelihood, to children of both sexes, the offspring of convicted felons, or such as have themselves been engaged in criminal practices. Previous to the institution of this society, both these classes of children were, with strong claims on public compassion, the objects of public neglect. Involved in disgrace, which prevented them from experiencing the countenance of the honest part of mankind, they were compelled to be criminal for an existence, and to continue in a progressive course of vice, until overtaken by the hand of justice. To snatch these outcasts of society from perdition, and to make them honest and useful members of the community, this institution was commenced upon a small scale; but the experience of a few years made its utility so evident, that the plan was considerably extended. At first, the children were all within one building; those, in whose reform had begun to operate, were sometimes unavoidably exposed to the society of the last admitted. At present, however, the different descriptions are separated. A house has been taken in Bermondsey, to which those who have been guilty of any crime are sent, until such a reformation has been effected in their morals, that they may be admitted with safety into one of the workshops. The trades carried on here are, printing, both letter-press and copper-plate, book-binding, shoe-making, tailors' work, rope-making, and twine-spinning.—The girls, who are kept in a distinct building, separated from that of the boys by a very high wall, are brought up for menial servants: they make, mend, and wash, their own clothing, and the boys' linen; besides which, they are employed in plain-work. A sufficient portion of their time is, however, devoted to the cultivation of their minds. They all receive a good education, and are carefully instructed in the principles of religion and morality; and, as a stimulus to industry, a part of the profits of each one's earnings is reserved until their apprenticeship expires, or they are otherwise qualified to obtain an honest livelihood in the world. The sum thus acquired has, in some instances, amounted to twenty pounds. Every part of the institution may be seen, on application, by any respectable person, except the Reform; to which no visitors are admitted, but the magistrates of Kent, Surry, or Middlesex, without an order signed by three of the committee. The whole of the premises are surrounded with a very high wall. The workshops for the boys are in the front, and the house for the girls behind; and at one end is a neat chapel. The number of boys in this institution is now about one hundred; that of the girls, fifty. The entrance-gate on the road, accompanied by two small ones, and surmounted on the pediment by an allegorical bee-hive, unites simplicity with elegance; and, when open, displays the ground, in the middle of which a weeping willow bends its pliant branches towards the crystal surface of a basin of pure water, as if in allusion to the necessity of yielding to instruction with docility in order to recover that purity of mind which former conduct may have impaired and stained.

The next place is the School for the Indigent Blind.—We cannot much praise the appearance of this building; which, standing in a position to be seen from Blackfriars-bridge, might have been made a great ornament to the Surry Road, had the architect displayed more elegance in the ornamental part of the portal. Though he was working for the blind, he might have considered that those who enjoy the sense of sight expected a better proof of his



his skill.—However, this want of ornament may have arisen from the low state of the society's funds; for it appears, from their Address to the Public in 1814, that they were very unwilling to incur the expense of a new building: "When the School was originally established, in the year 1800, upon the premises which it first occupied, (the site of the Dog and Duck,) and which were held of the city of London, it was hoped that the trustees of the charity would be able to obtain from the city a renewal of the existing lease, which had then about ten years to run. In this case, such additions might have been made to the buildings already on the ground, at a very moderate expense, as would have been sufficient for the accommodation of a larger number of pupils. This expectation, however, was disappointed, owing to the transfer of Bethlehem Hospital to St. George's Fields, which wholly precluded the continuance of the school on that site. It having also been found impossible to procure any house, or existing building, capable of accommodating so large an establishment, the committee were reluctantly obliged (at the expiration of their lease in 1810) to erect new buildings for their reception, upon the present ground near the Obelisk, which the corporation of the city of London very liberally granted on moderate terms. These are merely plain and commodious, and have been executed at the least possible expense, consistent with the object of providing suitable accommodation for an increased number of pupils." State of the Building Fund, 1814.

The object of the School for the Indigent Blind is, to instruct persons of that description in a trade, by which they may be able to provide, either wholly or in part, for their own subsistence; an useful act of charity, were no other good to result from their labour than the relief afforded by it to their poor friends or relations, on whom the cost of maintaining them is frequently a heavy charge; but of which the benefits will appear far more important, when considered with reference to the comfort of the blind themselves, and to the effect which habits of industry must necessarily produce on their feelings and general character.—It is perhaps difficult to conceive any two situations in the infinite varieties of civilized life, more different from each other, in respect to happiness, than the condition of a blind person, with his faculties benumbed by sloth, and his spirits depressed by the consciousness of being a burthen to those about him, and that of the same individual engaged in constant employment, and feeling that he contributes, by his daily occupation, to the comforts of the family of which he forms a part.—Subscriptions were first solicited for the institution in the month of December, 1799; but so much time was unavoidably spent in procuring a proper place for the school, in providing accommodations for the reception of the pupils, and in other necessary arrangements, that very few admissions could take place till towards the end of the following year, viz. 1800. Its effects, since that time, on the class of persons for whose benefit it was established, and the encouragement which it has received from the public, have been such as to answer the most sanguine expectations of its friends. It has, during a period of little more than thirteen years, returned fifty persons to their families, able to earn, according to their several abilities, from 3s. to 1l. 5s. per week. It has been able to increase the number of its pupils from fifteen males, with which it commenced in 1800, to upwards of forty males, and twenty females; and it has established a manufactory, where articles made last year, by the hands of blind persons, sold for 1300l. 7s. 1d.

The benefits of this institution are extended to the blind of both sexes, who, when admitted, are boarded, lodged, and instructed. All objects under twelve years of age are now deemed absolutely inadmissible; but no age above that is considered as a disqualification, while the strength remains unimpaired, and the fingers are flexible. It is proper also to observe here, that cases of *extreme indigence* are not those, in which admission into this school is likely

to be of most use; for, when the pupil is dismissed, the value of the instruction he has received must entirely depend upon the means he may possess of putting in practice the art in which he has been instructed; and, unless his friends shall be in a condition to furnish him with a constant supply of materials for the regular exercise of the skill he may have acquired, the society will have taught, and he will have learned, to very little purpose. The articles at present manufactured in the school, are, shoemakers' thread, fine and coarse thread, window sash line, and clothes-line (of a peculiar construction, and made on a machine adopted to the use of blind persons), by the females; and window and sash-line, clothes line, lampers, and wicker-baskets, rough and white rope-mats, and fine mats for hearths and carriages, by the males. A large quantity of the fine thread has been woven, by order of the committee, into cloth of good quality, specimens of which may be seen at the school, and the coarse is worked up into clothes-line and window sash-line. In the manufacture of these different kinds of line, a very material improvement has taken place since it was commenced; and specimens of those articles have been approved of by artificers of the first eminence in their profession. The sale of baskets, rope-mats, and white and coloured fine-mats, at the school, has also very much increased; and orders are constantly executed by the pupils to a great extent. A large assortment of baskets of different sorts and sizes, and of rough and white, and coloured, rope-mats, is always kept at the school for sale, so well made, that persons inclined to patronize the charity will experience no inconvenience by taking from it such articles as may be wanted for the use of their families. The pupils are only kept in the school till they have attained a sufficient knowledge of their trade; which, in general, where there is no want of diligence or capacity, will be in about three or four years; they are then discharged, to make room for others, with a portion of their earnings by way of encouragement, and a set of tools; and many have already been returned to their friends, grateful for the instruction they have received in religion and morality during their continuance in the school, and qualified, by the skill they have acquired there, to contribute, in a great degree, towards their maintenance. A few of those instructed in the school, have, however, been kept upon a permanent establishment, on a supposition that their earnings have been found sufficient to maintain them, and their skill being also necessary to enable the institution to keep up the credit of its manufacture with its customers; with this view, two males and three females, who would otherwise have been some time since dismissed as having received sufficient instruction, have been allowed to remain at the school.

Such are the nature and present state of the School for the Indigent Blind; a charity which, it may be hoped, will prove, in no slight degree, the means of bettering the condition and increasing the comforts of a portion of the community whose claims to compassion and assistance cannot be disputed. Those who may be desirous of seeing to what extent the situation and faculties of the blind are capable of improvement, may easily satisfy themselves on that head by visiting the school, which will be readily shown to them. They need not be apprehensive of meeting with any thing which can shock their feelings, or give rise to melancholy reflections; they will not find the pupils sitting (as is commonly the case with the blind) in listless indolence, or brooding in silence over their own defects, and their inferiority to the rest of mankind; but they will behold a number of individuals, of a class hitherto considered as doomed to a life of sorrow and discontent, not less animated in their amusements during the hours of recreation, and far more cheerfully attentive to their work in those of employment, than persons possessed of sight.

Any person (whether a subscriber or not), desirous of applying for the admission of an object, may have a printed paper of questions at the school, to which answers in writing



ing will be expected, attested in the manner therein specified; and the paper, when properly filled up, may be sent under cover, to the Rev. Dr. Grindlay, secretary to the institution, at the School for the Indigent Blind, in St. George's Fields, Surry. It will be by him laid before the school-committee for examination, and their report on the case submitted for confirmation to the general committee; upon whose order alone the name may be placed on the list of candidates. If the party, on whose behalf the application is made, be chargeable to his parish, it is required that such parish shall contribute a weekly allowance towards his maintenance in the school; and, if the parish be at a distance from town, then some respectable housekeeper, in or very near London, must become responsible for the regular payment of the sum stipulated. It is also expected, in all cases, that some respectable person, resident in London or Westminster, shall engage to take the pupil back again, when discharged from the school, either in consequence of being sufficiently instructed, or on account of misconduct, or for any other cause; and likewise to defray the expenses of burial, if he dies there.

This institution is under the direction of a president, eight vice-presidents, a treasurer, and a committee of twenty-four members. A subscription of one guinea annually, or of not less than ten guineas at once, or within one year, constitutes a member. The principal officers are annually elected; but the same person is not capable of being re-elected to the office of vice-president more than three times successively. They, together with the president and treasurer, are members of all committees. The chaplain is annually elected on the second Thursday in February, by the committee. He performs divine service at the school once on every Sunday, and attends twice in every week for the purpose of giving religious and moral instructions to the pupils. Three visitors are elected half-yearly by the committee, to visit the school from time to time, to inspect the conduct of all persons employed for the institution, and of all the pupils; to inquire into the circumstances of the persons applying for admission when necessary, and into any other incidental affairs, and report the result to the committee. The secretary is appointed by the committee; and upon his appointment joins with some other person to be approved of by the committee in a bond, with the penalty of 200l. to the treasurer, for his fidelity. No officer, instructor, or servant, can accept of any fee or gratuity from the pupils or their friends, on pain of dismissal.

The trade account of 1813, consisting of articles sold and unsold, implements, &c. amounted to 2460l. 8s. 10½d. and the expenditure for raw materials, and wages of four masters, one mistress, and a porter, amounted to 1883l. 4s. 0½d. which left a surplus in favour of the charity of 577l. 4s. 10d. The account for general purposes stated annual subscriptions under twenty guineas, at 1566l. 4s. these with other benefactions, and the balance of the trade account, amounted to 6109l. 5s. 2½d. the expenditure in house-keeping, rent, wages, rewards to pupils, &c. amounted to 4979l. 13s. 8d. leaving a surplus in favour of the charity of 1129l. 11s. 6½d. The funded capital, however, has been of course diminished by the new buildings: it amounted, on the 31st of December, 1813, to 4050l. 17s. 3d. cons. 200l. navy, and 150l. of 4 per cent. consols.

The next object which from the Obelisk attracts our notice is the New Bethlehem Hospital, which is nearly finished, and presents already a noble aspect to the passenger. We went on purpose to get a view of it. The sun was setting on the left, and its declining rays were glancing afloat over the broad face of this extensive building: The yellow-tints of the brick were animated by the purple light of the evening; and the deep azure of the skies served as an harmonious background to the whole. The portico, which consists of six gigantic columns of the Ionic order, supports a massy entablature, surmounted by a large pediment. On the sides of the entrance will be stone pillars, upon which, we are told, the two celebrated brazen figures

at the gate of the old Bedlam in Moorfields are to be placed. The whole façade is composed of three double *avant-corps*, or projecting bodies, one at each extremity, and one in the centre. The number of the windows is one hundred and eighty-nine in front, including the doors at the top of the flight of steps under the portico. The solemnity, extent, solidity, and noble elegance, of the whole edifice, reminds us of the famous palace of Priam and his fifty sons; whilst some will naturally exclaim: "And all this for inhabitants unconscious of its worth!" Yet we exult, in the mean time, in the reflection that it stands as a solemn proof of the sober and solid taste, as well as of the moral feelings and humane disposition, of the British nation. The flat cupola, which surmounts the central corps of the building, has a grave and appropriate appearance; yet a wag said in our hearing that it looked like *an empty skull*—a proper *sign* for such a *public house*. See Plate VII n. The whole is executed after the design of Mr. Lewis, at an expense of 95,000l. It is 580 feet long, and capable of receiving in this front two hundred patients. Another line of building, extending towards the south, is designed for an equal number of those unfortunate beings; and also for sixty criminal lunatics, the charge of which latter department exclusively belongs to the government. The ground occupied by the buildings, and intended for the exercise of the patients, is twelve acres.

With a new Bedlam it is to be hoped we shall have a new and improved mode of treatment; for though, in our article *INSANITY*, vol. xi. we have spoken with commendation of the treatment, general and particular, pursued in the old one, yet it is to be observed, that our statements, particularly p. 126 of that article, were taken chiefly from Mr. Haslam, himself the apothecary to the institution. But the attention of the public has been lately turned more particularly to the subject in consequence of the very humane treatment of insane persons at a hospital called the Friends' Retreat, near York; the fame of which having reached the metropolis, a plan is now in agitation to institute a "London Asylum for the Care and Cure of the Insane," upon a similar plan and principle. The persons with whom this idea originated thought it might deserve inquiry, whether the extensive practice of coercion, which obtains in those institutions, does not arise from erroneous views of the character of insane persons; from indifference to their comfort; or from having rendered coercion necessary by previous unkind treatment. It did not appear to them, that, because a man is mad upon one particular subject, he is to be considered in a state of complete mental degradation, or insensible to the feelings of kindness and gratitude. When a madman does not do what he is bid to do, the shortest method, to be sure, is to knock him down; and straps and chains are the species of prohibitions which are the least frequently disregarded. But we ought rather to consult the interest of the patient than the ease of his keeper; and to aim at the government of the insane, by creating in them the kindest disposition towards those who have the command over them.

The aversion to inspect places of this sort is so great, and the temptation to neglect and oppress the insane so strong, both from the love of power and the improbability of detection, that there was every reason to suppose, the existence of great abuses in the interior of many mad-houses. A great deal had been done for prisons; but the order of benevolence had been broken through by this preference; for the voice of misery may sooner come up from a dungeon, than the oppression of a madman be healed by the hand of justice.—A committee of gentlemen was at length appointed to investigate the subject; and they have drawn up a report which every philanthropist would wish to be made as public as possible, because it displays a system of negligence and cruelty which must excite universal horror, and consequently cause its immediate abolition. The committee not, however, being invested with government-authority, their inspection has



been in a degree superficial; but they have been enabled to obtain an inspection of the major part of the houses for the reception of the insane within the bills of mortality. At three houses they were refused admittance: viz. at Gore-house at Kensington; at Miles's receiving-houses at Hoxton; and at Brook-house. They encountered great difficulties in obtaining a view of the interior of Berthlem Hospital; at length, on Monday the 25th of April, they were introduced by one of the governors, being refused admission unless so accompanied; but he felt himself unable to attend them through; his feelings were quite overpowered. On the 2d of May, the attempt was renewed, and the following is the description of what they witnessed. "One of the side-rooms contained about ten patients, each chained by one arm to the wall; the chain allowing them merely to stand up by the bench or form fixed to the wall, or to sit down on it. The nakedness of each patient was covered by a blanket-gown only. The *blanket-gown* is a blanket formed something like a dressing-gown, with nothing to fasten it with in front; this constitutes the whole covering; even the feet were naked. One female in this side-room, thus chained, was an object remarkably striking: she mentioned her maiden and married names, and stated that she had been a teacher of languages. The keepers described her as a very accomplished lady, mistress of many languages; and corroborated her account of herself. The committee can hardly imagine a human being in a more degraded and humiliating situation, than that in which they found this female, who held a coherent conversation with them; and was, of course, fully sensible of the mental and bodily condition of those wretched beings who, equally without clothing, were closely chained to the same wall with herself. Unaware of the necessities of nature, some of them, though they contained life, appeared totally inanimate, and unconscious of existence. The few minutes which the committee passed with this lady did not permit them to form a judgment of the degree of restraint to which she ought to be subject; but they unhesitatingly affirm, that her confinement with patients, in whom she was compelled to witness the most disgusting idiocy, and the most terrifying distraction of the human intellect, is injudicious and improper. She entreated to be allowed pencil and paper, for the purpose of amusing herself with drawing; which were given her by one of the committee. Many other unfortunate women were locked up in their cells, naked, and chained on straw, with only one blanket for a covering. One, who was in that state by way of punishment, the keeper described as the most dissatisfied patient in the house; but she talked coherently, complained of the want of tea and sugar, and lamented that her friends, whom she stated to be respectable people, neither came to see her nor supplied her with little necessary comforts. The patients generally complained much of being deprived of tea and sugar. On leaving the gallery, the committee inquired of them, whether the visit had been inconvenient or unpleasant; they all joined in saying no, but (which was sufficiently apparent) that the visit of a friend was always pleasant.

"In the men's wing, in the side-room, six patients were chained close to the wall—five hand-cuffed, and one locked to the wall by the right arm, as well as by the right leg; he was very noisy. All were naked, except as to the blanket-gown, or a small rug on the shoulders, and without shoes; a lad complained much of the coldness of his feet; one of the committee felt them—they were very cold. The patients in this room, except the noisy one, and the poor lad with cold feet, who was lucid when the committee saw him, were dreadful idiots. Their nakedness, and their mode of confinement, gave this room the complete appearance of a dog-kennel. Chains are universally substituted for the straight waistcoat; (but in Guy's Hospital a leather belt is used, with side-traps to confine the arms, which in many instances is greatly superior.")

In the men's wing were about seventy-six patients, with two keepers and an assistant; and about the same number on the women's side. The patients were in no way distinguished from each other as to disease; but those who were not walking about, or chained in the side-rooms, were lying stark-naked upon straw, on their bedsteads, each in a separate cell, with a single blanket or rug, in which the patient usually lay huddled up as if impatient of cold, and generally chained to the bed-place, in the shape of a trough. About one fifth were in this state, or chained in the side-rooms. In the private mad-houses, the patients are universally made to rise, to wear clothes, to take exercise, and, from being confined in a waistcoat when necessary, are prevented injuring each other; but here the wet patients, and all who were inclined to be a-bed, were allowed to do so, from being less troublesome in that state than when up and dressed.

In one of the cells of the lower gallery, the committee saw *William Norris*. He stated himself to be fifty-five years of age, and that he had been confined about fourteen years; that, in consequence of attempting to defend himself from what he conceived improper treatment of his keeper, he was fastened by a long chain, which, passing through a partition, enabled the keeper, by going into the next cell, to draw him close to the wall at pleasure, in the same manner as a bull is drawn close to the rail in Smithfield-market; that, to prevent this, Norris muffled the chain with straw, so as to hinder its passing through the wall; that he afterwards was confined in the manner the committee saw him, viz. a stout iron ring was rivetted round his neck, from which a short chain passed to a ring made to slide upwards or downwards on an upright massive iron bar, more than six feet high, inserted into the wall; round his body, a strong iron bar, about two inches wide, was rivetted; on each side the bar was a circular projection, which being fashioned to, and enclosing, each of his arms, pinioned them close to his sides; this waist-bar was secured by two similar bars, which, passing over his shoulders, were rivetted to the waist-bar both before and behind; the iron ring round his neck was connected to the bars on his shoulders by a double link; from each of these bars another short chain passed to the ring on an upright bar. "We were informed he was enabled to raise himself, so as to stand against the wall, on the pillow of his bed, in the trough-bed in which he lay; but it is impossible for him to advance from the wall in which the iron bar is soldered, on account of the shortness of his chains, which were *only twelve inches long*. It is conceived equally out of his power to repose in any other position than on his back, the projections, which on each side of the waist-bar enclosed his arms, rendering it impossible for him to lie on his side, even if the length of the chains from his neck and shoulders would permit it. His right leg was chained to the trough, in which he had remained thus engaged and chained *more than twelve years*. To prove the unnecessary restraints inflicted on this unfortunate man, he informed the committee, that he had for some years been able to withdraw his arms from the manacles which encompassed them. He then withdrew one of them; and, observing an expression of surprise, he said, that, when his arms were withdrawn, he was compelled to rest them on the edges of the circular projections, which was more painful than keeping them within. His position, we were informed, was mostly lying down, and that, as it was inconvenient to raise himself and stand upright, he very seldom did so; that he read a great deal, books of all kinds, history, lives, or any thing that the keepers could get him, the newspaper every day, and conversed quite coherently on the passing topics and events of the war; in which he felt particular interest. On each day that the committee saw him he discoursed coolly, and gave rational and deliberate answers to the different questions put to him. The whole of this statement relative to Norris was confirmed by the keepers."

In consequence of the discovery made by the committee



of the situation of William Norris, and of a drawing which they procured to be made of him in his irons; he was visited by Messrs. Home Sumner, lord Robert Seymour, William Smith, G. Bennett, R. J. Lambton, Thos. Thompson, and other members of the house of commons; and the committee at their last visit observed that the whole of the irons had been removed from Norris's body, and that the length of chain from his neck, which was only twelve inches, had been doubled, so that the man can now move the extent of *two feet* from the wall! and for this indulgence he expresses himself very thankful.

The committee conclude this document by stating, that, they have been forcibly impressed by contrasting these practices with the general economy of the "Friends' Retreat," near York; where neither chains nor corporal punishment are tolerated on any pretext; where the conveniences provided, within doors and without, are suitable to patients in any station of life; and where every appearance is avoided that can afflict the mind by painful recollections; and where regulation and control are governed by the experienced efficacy of the important principle—that whatever tends to promote the happiness of the patient increases his desire to restrain himself.—A very attractive account has lately been published at Paris of this Retreat at York, which deserves to become the model of our lunatic asylums. But the French have advanced a step beyond us in the discipline of insanity. M. Salgues, in a recent work, informs us, that at the lunatic hospital of Charenton near Paris, the experiment has been tried with admirable success of inducing the lunatic patients to act plays together for their common amusement. This exertion of the memory to get a part by heart cures one cause of absence of mind; and this exertion of self-command to assume the character imposed cures another cause of disorder.—For a full account of the various modes of cure employed in England and on the continent, we beg to refer to our article *INSANITY*, vol. xi. p. 110–130. and we earnestly entreat every lover of humanity to peruse a Description of the Retreat, near York, for Insane Persons of the Society of Friends, by Samuel Tuke; York, 1813.

The next object is the Asylum; as to which, see the article *LAMBETH*, vol. xii. p. 102. The part which is on the west of Southwark having been pretty fully described under the above-mentioned head, we must refer our readers to it, in order to complete that part of the survey.

The road which leads towards the north, from the Obelisk to Blackfriars-bridge, is broad and airy. On the left side we find the Surry Theatre, formerly called the *Circus*, at which time equestrian feats were the principal source of amusement. This sort of entertainment having, like other things, fallen into discredit, or rather a kind of lethargy from which it may rise again with new vigour and activity a few years hence; Mr. Elliston undertook the management of the place; and, under the name of "Surry Theatre," made it, in imitation of the inferior playhouses on the Parisian Boulevards, a secondary source of dramatic mirth.—Here several of the principal plays of our best authors have been accommodated to the regulations under which these sorts of minor theatres are subjected; and the additional exhibition of rope-dancing and grand pantomimes has contributed to obtain in general a pretty numerous audience. We must lament, however, that at the second-price hour, a swarm of those gawdy flies who flutter about Highlers'-lane, (now called Friar-street,) Artillery and Gun streets, and particularly the noted Dover-street, should infest the pit, boxes, galleries, and lobbies, of the house. Their noise, their bare-faced impudence, the gross and disgusting dialect they use, are a great drawback upon the respectability of this theatre.

Farther up towards the bridge we find Christ-church, which was anciently a dependence of St. Saviour's, or St. Mary Overy's, parish, and was founded in 1627, in pursuance of the will of John Marshal, gent. of the borough of Southwark, who devised the sum of seven hundred pounds towards erecting a church, and endowed it with

sixty pounds per annum for the maintenance of a minister. With this sum, and others collected by the trustees under the will, a church was built; and the inhabitants of the district applied to parliament, in the year 1676, for an act to make it a distinct parish from St. Saviour's, which being granted, it has been ever since independent thereof. In the year 1737, the foundations of the old church having become very ruinous, a new application was made to parliament; and the present edifice was erected at the expense of the parishioners. It is a regular well-constructed building, consisting of a plain body, enlightened by two ranges of windows, with a square tower and a turret. This church is a rectory, the patronage of which is at present in thirteen persons, the representatives of the founder. The church-yard is planted with trees, and presents a pleasing aspect to the road.

On the east side is Temple Place, a well-built row of houses so called, mostly inhabited by gentlemen and ladies under the name of *rulers*, as this spot has the good fortune of being within the extensive precincts of the King's-Bench prison.

Opposite to the road called the New Cut, leading to the Marsh-gate, where a mill, by its daily turning, seems gently to insinuate how many have looked at its circumvolutions and are no more; and stands as a sad index of the life of man, whose course is merely a circle which he runs more or less according to the order of Providence—Opposite to this road we find a well-built edifice, called Surry Chapel, which owes its origin and its support to the Rev. Mr. Rowland Hill and the congregation which follows his religious tenets. The history of Rowland Hill is pretty well known. Belonging to a respectable family at Hawkstone in Shropshire, his expulsion from the university of Oxford in 1768, together with five other students, for assembling to pray and preach at prohibited seasons and in unauthorised places, excited no inconsiderable share of popular attention. Mr. Hill afterwards became a member of St. John's college at Cambridge. Whether the motives which have induced Mr. Hill to persist in his secession from the establishment were perfectly conscientious, or whether, on the other hand, he was at all decided by the affectation of singularity and the ambition of notoriety, are questions which must rest with himself. He was once found, by the late Cornelius Winter, in the situation of "a distressed gentleman;" and was then considered as suffering for the cause that he espoused.

Mr. Hill's discourses are incoherent in arrangement, whimsical in illustration, commonly colloquial in language, and abounding in strange flights of fancy, and apt but humorous stories. He absolutely labours for his metaphors: and, in his zeal to lower himself to what he conceives to be the aptitude or capability of his audience, he sometimes mistakes vulgarity for simplicity. Yet he has the happy knack, if such it is, of immediately arresting the contemplation of the commonality, and obtaining their attention. Naturally eccentric, he is unequalled in the excitation of religious merriment. Perhaps he is the only living preacher (and this he has done) who could make the people smile during a funeral sermon. His stories are uniformly amusing: his jokes are jokes of the heart. Proper things, however, in proper places. Is it now too late to dissuade Mr. Hill from extravagantly pursuing a system of preaching, of which the beneficial effects are so extremely doubtful? Cannot he be familiar, without being funny; or, mult illustration be necessarily irreverential? What gratification can he find in being considered as the great head of story-telling and stamping preachers; of evangelical eccentrics; of mountebank pulpiteers? His example has wrought incalculable ill. It is not easy to say how many an S. S. or M. G. we owe to him; men who, either as to goodness or talents, are not worthy of being associated with Mr. Hill, even as the hewers of wood and drawers of water to the temple of our religion.

While it is incumbent on us not to conceal the defects of

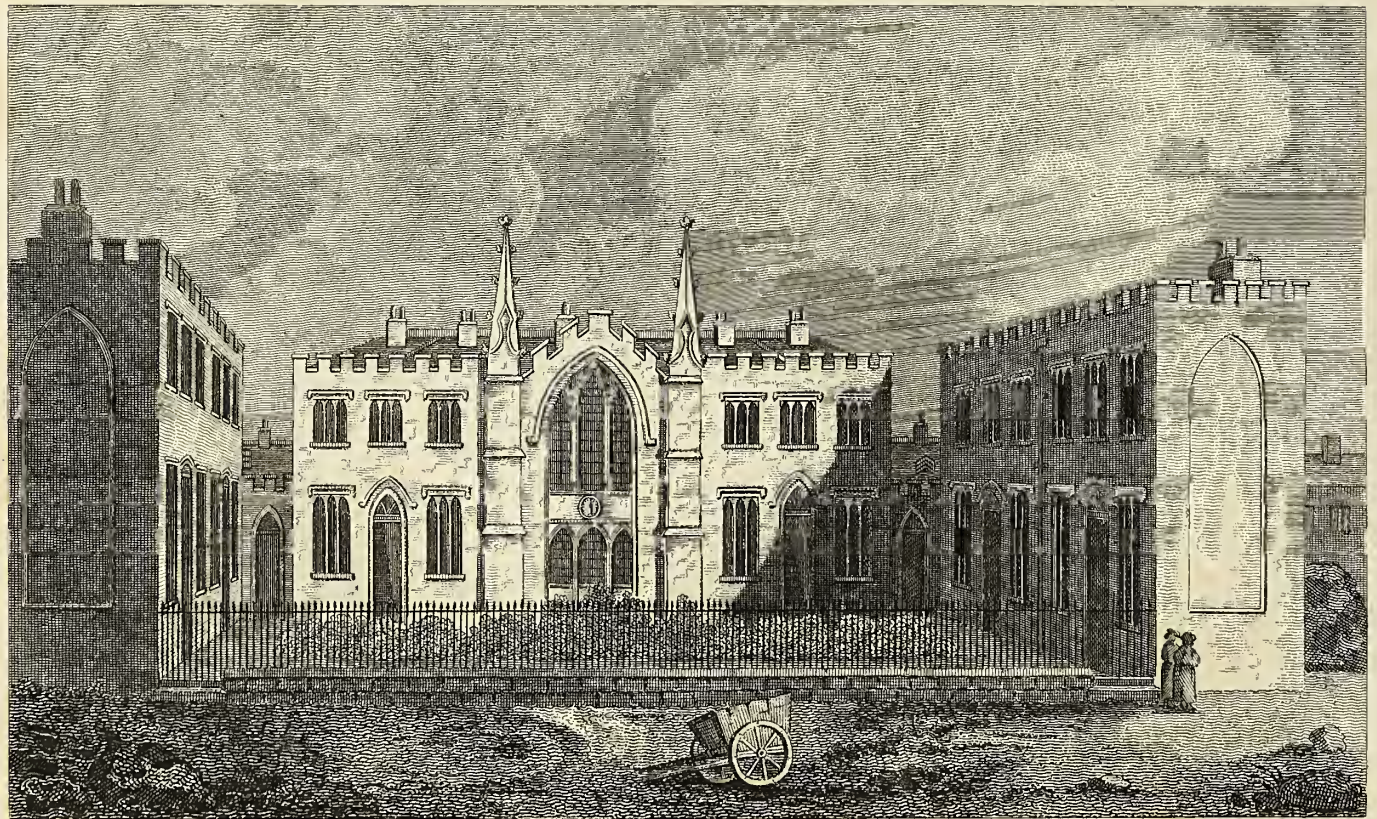








*Surry Chapel.*



*Hill's Alms-houses, Gravel-lane, Southwark.*



of Mr. Hill, let his merits obtain honourable mention. He possesses a strong reasoning mind. He readily seizes the prominent bearings of his subjects, fixes them in the clearest point of view, and is easily apprehended by his auditory. His addresses, as they seem to flow from the fervour of feeling, often strongly affect the feelings of those to whom they are directed; and the very tremulousness of his under-tones contributes, at times, to solemnize the minds of the people. His action, though too frequently ludicrously distorted, is, when occasionally he places his hands on the sconces of the pulpit, really graceful and highly dignified.—Evangelical ministers, it should seem, are sometimes rather earthly-minded. What other feeling than that of fallible vanity, the poor love of poor fame, induced Mr. Hill to tolerate, and patronize too, prints of his house, in which he is drawn as setting out from home, fully robed; while a medallion profile of him appears suspended, amidst the clouds? Charity urges us to refrain from severely animadverting on Mr. Hill's reiterated invectives against regular clergymen, and his ill-dissembled confidence in his own preaching.

These remarks are gathered chiefly from a very popular work called the Pulpit. In the following opinion of the author, however, we do not coincide. Oneimus says, p. 183, "I imagine that Surry Chapel will not always continue so profitable as it may hitherto have proved. Novelty ceases to attract its crowds to this evangelical octagon, or religious round-house; and the popular influence of its founder, for whom there will not soon be found an adequate substitute, is now rapidly declining." This is contrary to fact: the chapel is as fully attended as ever it was; and it is observed, that Mr. Hill's substitutes attract even greater audiences than he does himself.

Surry Chapel was built in the year 1784. It is a sort of rotunda, with four porticoes and a cupola; and, though not an elegant building, is certainly a great ornament to the road. It is a very capacious edifice; and the congregation is very numerous, and very charitable; for we are informed that greater collections have been made here for charitable purposes, upon some occasions, than at any church whatever of the establishment. We had been promised some particulars upon the subject to lay before our readers; but the nature of a weekly publication has prevented us from waiting for the desired information.—Of the style of singing early adopted, and still practised, in this chapel, it must with justice be asserted, in the verification of Pope, that

The blessing thrills through all the labouring throng;  
And heaven is won by—violence of song.

To this "violence of song" has been occasionally added a kind of machinery appended to the organ, to imitate, in a most theatrical manner, the roaring of thunder, in order to give stage-effect to particular passages. But this exhibition is now discontinued.

To the south-east of this chapel, in Gravel-lane, we meet with a charmingly picturesque set of alms-houses, erected in 1812, which owe their origin to the religious philanthropy of the same celebrated clergyman, Mr. R. Hill. The building consists of three *corps de logis*, for the accommodation of twenty-four poor old women belonging to the congregation; and we understand, that, although the whole is supported and managed solely by the kindness of Mr. Hill, these alms-houses afford great comforts to their inhabitants. The establishment also includes a free day-school for twenty-four girls, who are well educated and completely clothed, but not boarded: this is called the school of industry, and occupies the centre part of the building. The whole edifice is in the modern Gothic style, and by its regularity presents a neat and interesting appearance. We refer the readers to our Plate VII. p. exhibiting both the alms-houses and the chapel.

Before we take leave of Mr. Rowland Hill, we should observe, that we have been informed, that the first Sun-

day-school in London originated at Surry-chapel; and that the committee of managers of that chapel are the guardians of all the Sunday-schools throughout the Borough of Southwark—and lastly, that Mr. Hill devotes the whole of his time, and the whole of his fortune, to the most benevolent and charitable purposes.

Hill's alms-houses are nearly surrounded, on the south, by new streets and neat rows of comfortable dwellings; but, unfortunately, too near the polluted street anciently called Highers-lane, and now Friar-street, (not, we hope, on account of its being peopled with *nuns* of the cyprian order,) which is certainly a nuisance to the whole neighbourhood.

On the west of the alms-houses we found a stone, having the following inscription, engraved, as it appears by the character of the letters, more than a hundred years ago: "This stone is the boundary of Hangman's Acre." Whence this denomination arose we cannot tell.—On another stone just by, and indeed upon several hereabouts, we noticed the arms or badge of the borough of Southwark, consisting of an annulet surmounted by a cross pattée, and interlaced with a saltire conjoined at the bottom. See Plate VII. fig. 1. This, and similar figures, used to be anciently the sign of marts and staples, and particularly of wool-staples; the bales were marked with it, as being an easy figure to draw. Some of these marks have, instead of the cross pattée, a plain cross with a line drawn from the top to the left arm of the cross, (as shown at fig. 2.) intended perhaps to represent a vessel, with sail and oars. At Collumpton, in Devonshire, we have seen many badges, somewhat similar to this, carved in several parts of John Lane's chapel, who was himself a considerable wool-merchant and cloth-manufacturer. We may therefore infer, that the borough of Southwark adopted this badge on account of a great trade of wool going on there. The skin-market in Great Suffolk-street, is a faint remembrance of it. See p. 511.

Great Surry Road, which, from the nature of the gravel and sand laid over the *encaissement*, would be intolerably dusty, is in general well-watered in summer, and thus becomes cool and pleasant.—Having returned this way to the centre of our perambulations, by once more crossing Blackfriars-bridge, we shall now follow a western direction from the city obelisk to the farthest verge of Westminster.

From the south end of Fleet Market, we ascend the counter-part of Ludgate-hill, called Fleet-street; leaving on our left the Obelisk, erected in 1775, at the opening of Bridge-street, by alderman John Wilkes, of patriotic memory, then lord-mayor of London, and often mentioned in our annals, and in the article ENGLAND, vol. vi.—We perceive every moment the great utility of the shelter furnished by the posts surrounding this obelisk, to passengers assailed on every side by horses, carriages, and cattle.—We leave the well-known negro who, for so many years has swept the crossing and bowed to the public, and who is now considered as a natural appurtenance to the spot.—We leave also the celebrated patriot's elegant shop at the corner, Waithman's shawl and printed-linen warehouse; and we proceed. The old saloop-shop is still here; and still the perfume of wholesome saffras keeps the mind awake, in spite of all the opiate farrago of daily publications: but we beg pardon—the place is now called "Read's Coffee-house." A few doors farther, Bride-lane brings us into St. Bride's church-yard, which surrounds the church. The ground here is so unequal, that on one side the path of the church-yard is about twenty feet in height, while on the other it is level with Salisbury-court. St. Bridget, or St. Bride, well known in legendary lore, for her visions and ascetic spasms, is the patroness of this church, which seems to be of some antiquity, from its having had three rectors before the year 1362. It was a very small building till about the year 1480, when it was greatly enlarged by William Venor, warden of the Fleet Prison, who caused a spacious fabric to be erected at the



west of it, consisting of a middle and two side aisles; to which the old church served as a choir. It was originally a rectory in the patronage of the abbot and convent of Westminster, and is supposed to have been converted to a vicarage about the year 1529. When Henry VIII. dissolved the convent of Westminster, and formed it into a bishopric, this church was conferred upon the new bishop; and, when Edward restored the deanery, the patronage was granted to the dean and chapter, in whom it has ever since continued, except during the reign of Mary, who re-established the dissolved convent. In 1610, the earl of Dorset gave a parcel of ground, on the west side of Fleet-ditch, for a new church-yard; which was consecrated on the 2d of August that same year, by Dr. George Abbot, bishop of London. The old church having been destroyed by the fire of London in 1666, the present edifice which was designed by sir Christopher Wren, was completed by him within fourteen years, in such a masterly and elegant manner, as to exceed most of our parish-churches in delicacy and beauty; it is 111 feet long, 87 broad, and the steeple is 234 feet high, which is thirty-two feet higher than the monument. It has a plain and regular body, the openings all answering to each other: the roof is raised on pillars; and the altar-piece, like the outside of the church, is very magnificent. The circular pediment, over the lower part, is supported by six Corinthian columns. The steeple is a spire of extremely-delicate workmanship, raised upon a solid yet light tower: and the several stages by which the spire gradually decreases are well designed, and skilfully executed. In this steeple is a ring of twelve bells so much noticed for the melody of their tones, that, when they are rung by day, it is not uncommon to see groups of gaping people, imbibing with open mouth and ears the sweet harmony.

Under the east end of the church-yard was a spring of the purest water, which had anciently a very great name for curing diseased eyes. It has been for some years confined into a well, and is dealt out by means of a pump under an arch of brick without any ornament, which is visited by many people, and even by some who live far from the place.—Most ancient churches have such springs; the reason of which is, that those churches belonged to convents, or particular congregations, who would naturally seek for a spot where clear and perennial water was flowing for their use. The same coincidence is observable nearly every-where on the continent.

The convent of the Carmelites, or White Friars, so called from their clothing, which according to the rules of the order, is white, occupied the space from Fleet-street down to the Thames, on the banks of which was their garden. These friars were mendicant, although some lands and messuages belonged to their community. Their convent was founded in 1241, by sir Richard Grey, ancestor of the lords Grey of Codnor in Derbyshire; and was rebuilt by Hugh Courteney, earl of Devonshire, about the year 1350, when the ground given to the order by Edward I. to enlarge their buildings was taken in. Many persons of distinction were interred in the conventual church, which was built by sir Robert Knolles, a great warrior in the reigns of Edward III. and Richard II. The company of Carriers had a guild in this church, whence it is probable that many of that profession resided in the vicinity. At the dissolution of this convent in the 30th of Henry VIII. the revenues of the house were valued at 62l. 7s. 3d. when the king conferred different portions of the building upon his favourites; and in 1557, Edward VI. granted the church, chapter-house, and other parts of the priory, to the bishop of Worcester and his successors. In the year 1608, the inhabitants of this district obtained a charter from James I. to entitle them to several liberties and privileges, and an exemption from the jurisdiction of the city of London; which soon rendered the place an asylum for insolvent debtors, cheats, and gamesters, who gave it the name of Alsatia. But the inconveniences produced by this sanctuary, and the riot-

ous proceedings carried on there, at length induced the legislature to interpose their authority; and, in the year 1696, an act of parliament was passed to deprive the district of privileges so injurious to the community.

Between St. Bride's and the spot where the White Friars were, we have Salisbury-court, street, and square, Dorset-street, &c.—Salisbury-court is still famous for a long-established cook's shop, where, five-and-thirty years ago, when it was under the direction of Mr. Simpson, a man could get a very substantial plate of "roast or sodden meate" for 4d. and dine for 5½d. beer and bread included.—From the profits of such moderate charges, Simpson made a handsome fortune, and retired; but afterwards, by speculations in building, and the extravagance of his son, became poor, and, we understand, died lately in the post of beadle to St. Bride's parish.

Salisbury-square is so called from being the site of the bishops of Salisbury, who resided there when their parliamentary duties required that they should live in or near the metropolis. But, when the clergy became less connected with affairs of state, the earls of Dorset inhabited the house, and caused the name of the street abovementioned.

Between Salisbury-square and the Thames is the office belonging to the New River Company, with all its appendages and wharfs.—It is a handsome brick edifice, built in a very neat and uniform style. Descending the hill from the top of Dorset-street, this fabric, divided in three corps, each adorned with a pediment, and the middle one with a portico, brings to the recollection of a classical mind, the fanes of Athens and Rome. The wide expanse of the river behind, and the mass of buildings on the other side of the Thames, add considerable interest to a view, of which very few people ever take any notice.

Somewhere about the bottom of Bouverie or Silver-street, and below the Bolt-and-Tun inn, was a magnificent and spacious theatre, wherein plays were acted till the abdication of James II. A few years since a plan was in agitation to enliven this part of the city by the presence of a third play-house, but leave has not yet been obtained; and it is worthy of remark, that the city has not had a play-house within her walls for a great number of years. However, there is still a large piece of ground unoccupied; and indeed, this is perhaps the largest spot of land within the limits of the city which has remained unbuild upon for so many years. Perhaps the owners of it may still indulge the hope of obtaining a patent or license; and that the only absolute monopoly existing in this country may yet be got rid of. See LETTERS PATENT, vol. xii. p. 541.

The north side of Fleet-street does not furnish us with any thing worthy of being pointed out to our readers.—Several courts communicating with the market, and Harp-alley (a row of houses occupied by brokers), and Shoe-lane, are hardly worth mentioning. The last winds gently towards Holborn-hill, where it ends at the north-east wall of St. Andrew's church-yard. Lower down towards the south, on the same side of Shoe-lane, is a burial-place, belonging to the parish of St. Andrew, over the entrance to which is a carving of the general resurrection, which is well executed; but, having been repeatedly covered with paint, all the sharpness of the figures is lost.

Nearly opposite to this, is Bangor-court, and the remains of the city-mansion of the bishops of Bangor; the east end of which has some appearance of having been formerly used as a chapel. In the window, at this end, is a coat of arms, in stained glass, with the name of Fleetwood. On the south side of the building is an ancient door-way, ornamented with military trophies. The reversion of this messuage, with a quantity of waste-land belonging to it, measuring a hundred and sixty-eight feet in length from north to south, and a hundred and sixty-four in breadth from east to west, was sold in the year 1647, by the trustees for the sale of bishops' lands, to



John Barkstead, knt. who purchased it for the purpose of building on the vacant ground; as appears by an act of parliament passed in 1656, for restraining new buildings in and about the suburbs of London, in which there is a special proviso to enable him to build thereon, in consideration of his having given a greater sum for the purchase of it, on that account, than he would otherwise have done. The last bishop of Bangor, who appears to have resided here, was bishop Dolben, who, having been formerly vicar of Hackney, contributed thirty pounds for repairing the causeway leading from Clapton and Hackney to Shoreditch, of which he informed the inhabitants of these villages, by a letter dated from Bangor-house, in Shoe-lane, the 11th of November, 1633.

Above this we have Gough-square, particularly and almost exclusively inhabited by furriers. It is a small place, but pleasant on account of its comparative silence and apparent solitude in the centre of noise and bustle. The access to it is multifarious.—One is by Wine-office-court, where we find an old-established drinking and smoking house, called the Cheffire Cheese.—Another is through Johnson's court, where the celebrated Dr. Johnson lived for some years; and afterwards removed to Bolt-court, another of the inlets to Gough-square, where he died; and where also lived and died that worthy character and self-taught philosopher, James Ferguson; and also the ingenious Mr. Whitehurst, a well-known writer on mechanics. Amid this learned society lived a man of very modest and retired habits, yet not quite unknown to the literary world: Mr. Griffith Jones was for many years editor of the Daily Advertiser, at that time a paper of the greatest circulation of any in London; and of the London Chronicle, to which he contributed many essays in prose and verse; he was also the author, compiler, and translator, of many other publications: but never put his name to any. The Chronicle, however, was his principal labour for many years; and his son takes a pleasure in quoting the testimony of Mr. Boswell, that "it was all along distinguished for good-sense, accuracy, moderation, and delicacy." Life of Johnson, vol. i. p. 297.—The house is now occupied by the Medical Society of London. A considerable part of Bolt-court is at present taken up with the printing-offices and warehouses of Mr. Bensley, from whose presses have proceeded some of the most elegant typography that England or any country can boast.

To the west of Gough-square we find Fetter-lane, which unites Fleet-street with Holborn. Its entrance at both ends is narrow, and particularly at the south end. We are told it was anciently called *Fewters' lane*, from the number of idle and loose persons who used to frequent the place, it being surrounded with gardens and houses for dissipation. Why perkins should flock to this lane, and why sausage-meat should be made here in greater quantity and with more credit than at any other place in town, is not easily accounted for.

Beyond the south end of Fetter-lane is the parish-church of St. Dunstan in the West. It is a very ancient foundation, in the gift of the abbot and convent of Westminster, who, in the year 1237, presented it to king Henry III. towards the maintenance of the foundation of the house called the Roils, for the reception of converted Jews. It was afterwards conveyed to the abbot and convent of Alnwick in Northumberland, in which patronage it continued till that religious house was suppressed by Henry VIII. Edward VI. granted the advowson of this church, under the name of a vicarage, to lord Dudley. Soon after this, the rectory and vicarage were granted to sir Richard Sackville; and the impropriation has continued ever since in private hands. This is one of the churches that escaped the fire of London, the flames having stopped within three doors of it; since which time, however, it has been frequently repaired; and at length a number of small shops, or sheds, that stood in the front of it, have been removed. The church, which is built of brick and stone, consists of a large body, with a very dif-

proportionate square tower. It is ninety feet in length, sixty in breadth, thirty-six in height to the roof, and the altitude of the turret is one hundred. Here is a good organ, remarkable for a fine *vox-humana* stop. The dial of the clock projects over the street, on the south side of the church; and the clock-house is formed of an Ionic porch, containing two figures erect, carved and painted, and as large as life, which with knotted clubs alternately strike the quarters on two bells hung between them: these figures were set up in the year 1671. In a niche, at the east end of the church, is the statue of queen Elizabeth, which formerly stood on Ludgate, and, when that gate was taken down, was purchased by alderman Gosling, and placed in its present situation. See p. 104 of this article.

A little to the east of St. Dunstan's church, and near the south end of Fetter-lane, is Crane-court, in which is a neat plain building, called the Scots' Hall. This corporation was instituted for the relief of the poor and necessitous people of Scotland, that reside within the cities of London and Westminster. It owes its origin to James Kinnier, a Scotchman, and a merchant of this city; who, on his recovery from a long and dangerous illness, resolved to give part of his estate towards the relief of his indigent countrymen; for which purpose, having prevailed with a society of Scotchmen, who composed a box-club, to join their stock, he obtained a charter, by which he and his coadjutors were, in the year 1665, constituted a body politic and corporate, with several privileges, which king Charles II. confirmed the following year by letters patent; wherein are recited the privileges granted in the former charter, with the addition of several new ones, viz. that they might erect an hospital, within the city or liberties of London and Westminster, to be called, "The Scots Hospital of King Charles II." to be governed by eight Scotchmen, who were to choose from among themselves a master, and who, together with these governors, was declared to be a body politic and corporate, and to have a common seal. They were also empowered to elect thirty-three assistants, and to purchase, in mortmain, four hundred pounds per annum, over and above the annual sum mentioned in the first charter; the profits arising from these purchases to be employed in relieving poor old Scotch men and women, and in instructing and employing poor orphans, the descendants of Scotchmen, within this city. The extensive plan of an hospital was soon abandoned for the present mode of relief by assisting persons at their own habitations. And a third charter was granted in 1775. The annual subscription is one or two guineas, and ten guineas for life-governors. The fund raised by these contributions is applied to the relief of poor Scotchmen who have not acquired any parochial settlement in England, and who have survived the power of labour, or are disabled by disease or casualty to earn a livelihood, or are desirous of returning to their native country, and are destitute of the means.

Crane-court is no throughfare; but, passing through the back-door of one of the houses at the north-east side, we come to the top of Red-lion-court, called Red-lion-passage, where lived the learned printer, Mr. William Bowyer. See vol. iii. p. 326. The house was burned down at the beginning of February 1808, (not January, as erroneously stated at p. 185.) but has risen with greater splendour by the exertions of Mr. Nichols, once the apprentice and then the partner of Bowyer; now one of the most respectable printers in London, and himself a veteran and a giant in literature, having produced immense tomes of topography and biography; and having moreover established a character for integrity and benevolence that makes every man his friend.

Going round this celebrated printing-office to the north-west, a delicate passage called Featherbed-lane brings us again into Fetter-lane; and we presently find, to the south-west, one of the entrances into Clifford's Inn. This communicates immediately with Serjeants' Inn, Chancery-lane, the only remaining inn of court for.



for the judges and serjeants of the law, and containing chambers only for the accommodation of these gentlemen; whereas, in that in Fleet-street, each one possessed a distinct house. The degree of a serjeant being the highest in the law, except that of a judge, it is conferred, by the sovereign, on those of the profession most eminently distinguished for their abilities and probity; and this order is held so honourable, that none are admitted to the dignity of a judge but the members of it. According to the opinion of some of our ablest lawyers, among whom may be named sir Edward Coke, this degree is of very ancient standing; and it is expressly mentioned in stat. 3 Edw. I. c. 29. See the article INNS OF COURT, vol. xi. p. 76, 84.

We have now reached Chancery-lane, the opening of which from Fleet-street has received of late very material improvements. Several over-shadowing houses have been taken down; and, when a few more on the east of the lane, belonging to Serjeants' inn, shall be rebuilt in a better way, this third communication from Fleet-street to Holborn will be still more frequented and more airy. In this lane we find the Rolls Chapel, and opposite Rolls Buildings.—The Rolls Chapel is the place for keeping the rolls, or records in chancery. This house was founded by king Henry III. in the place where stood a Jew's house, seized upon by that prince in the year 1233. In this chapel all such Jews and infidels as were converted to the Christian faith were ordained, and in the buildings belonging to it were appointed a sufficient maintenance; by which means a great number of converts were baptized, instructed in the doctrines of Christianity, and lived under a learned Christian appointed to govern them; but, in the year 1290, all the Jews being banished, the number of converts decreased; and, in the year 1377, the house, with its chapel, was annexed by patent to the keeper of the rolls of chancery. The chapel, which is of brick, pebbles, and some free-stone, is sixty feet long, and thirty-three in breadth; the doors and windows are gothic, and the roof covered with slate. In this chapel the rolls are kept in presses fixed to the sides, and ornamented with columns and pilasters of the Ionic and Composite orders. These rolls contain all the records, as charters, patents, &c. since the beginning of the reign of Richard III. those before that time being deposited in the record-office in the Tower; and, these being made up in rolls of parchment, gave occasion to the name. At the north-west angle of this chapel is a bench, where the master of the rolls hears causes in chancery; and attendance is given in this chapel, from ten o'clock till twelve, for taking in and paying out money, according to order of court, and for giving an opportunity to those who come for that purpose to search the rolls. The minister of the chapel is appointed by the master of the rolls; and divine service is performed there on Sundays and holidays, at eleven and three. On the walls are several old monuments; particularly at the east end is that of Dr. Young, master of the rolls, who died in the year 1516: on a well-wrought stone coffin lies the effigy of the doctor in a scarlet gown; his hands lie across upon his breast, and a cap with corners covers his ears: on the wall, just above him, our Saviour is looking down upon him, his head and shoulders appearing out of the clouds, accompanied by two angels.

The office of the rolls is under the government of the master of the rolls, whose house is by the chapel. The place of master of the rolls is an office of great dignity, and is in the gift of the king, either for life or during pleasure. He is always the principal master in chancery, and has in his gift the office of the six clerks in chancery, of the two examiners of the same court, and of the clerk of the chapel of the rolls, who acts immediately under him in that office. He has several revenues belonging to the office of the rolls; and, by act of parliament, receives a salary of twelve hundred pounds per annum out of the hanaper.

Nearly opposite to the Rolls chapel, is the main access to that noble and long-celebrated place called Lincoln's

Inn, of which we have spoken very much at large under the article INNS OF COURT, vol. xi. p. 78-82. so that we can only add a few remarks which have occurred to us on our present survey.

The chapel (see p. 80) was built by Inigo Jones, about the year 1622, on pillars, with an ambulatory, or walk, underneath, paved with broad stones, and used as a place of interment for the benchers. The outside of this chapel is a very indifferent specimen of Gothic architecture, and the windows are painted with the figures, at full length, of the principal personages mentioned in the scriptures. On the twelve windows on the north side, are Abraham, Moses, Eli, David, and the prophets Daniel, Isaiah, Jeremiah, Ezekiel, Amos, and Zechariah, with John the Baptist and St. Paul; and on the south side are the rest of the apostles. Under these figures are the arms of a great number of gentlemen belonging to this society; a most preposterous union of sacred worthies with modern heraldry. In fact, the whole does but little honour to Inigo Jones; and does not even retain any mark of what it was the fashion to call *his style*.

In speaking of the hall, p. 80. we noticed Hogarth's picture of St. Paul before Felix. To the painting of this picture belongs an anecdote which the reader will not be displeased with, as it proves that our great artist endeavoured to represent the most evanescent objects in the fleeting actions of man.—He had nearly finished this picture, in which he intended to display all the powers of his mind; and we know that they were greater than even his powers of execution. A friend of his was admitted to see the progress of the work; and, after examining the whole and the details, said; "Well, my dear sir, I am sure, when the whole is *complete*, this will be what you expect it to be, your best work, and the admiration of the world."—"Complete!" replied Hogarth with a sudden flush on his face, "complete? Why—it is complete now—What do you want more? I am sure it is as complete as I can make it."—The visitor smiled, and hummed, and snattered most diffidently; "I mean simply this; that when, for instance, you have finished the hands of Felix, all then will be done."—"Now," said the painter, "I do clearly understand you—that is, I understand that you do not understand nature—for look here;" and then (to imitate the trembling of Felix) he put both his hands into such a quick and quivering agitation that they ceased to be seen. "Now," added he triumphantly, "*I have painted motion*."—However the fallacy of his hypothesis was soon made so clear to him, that he condescended to put at the ends of Felix's arms the hands we now see in the picture.

Sets of chambers in the Stone Buildings, the most modern and elegant part of Lincoln's Inn, let for from fifty guineas to 120l. per annum, and sell for from 350l. to 2500l. they are held for 99 years certain from 1780, on three lives, with the privilege of nominating a fourth life after the death of those three.—In the Old Buildings, chambers let from 25l. per annum, to 80l. and sell from 200l. to 1000l. They are held for the life of one member of the society; but on payment of a small fine they may be transferred.—These buildings denominated the New Square are fee-simple, and entitle the owners to a vote for the county. These let from 40l. to 100 guineas per annum, and are occupied by solicitors, conveyancers, and special pleaders, frequently to the exclusion of the members of the inn; they sell from 350l. up to 2500l. per double set. All these chambers pay 4l. 2s. annually to the society.

Lincoln's-inn Fields, as it is sometimes called, is the most extensive square in the metropolis, or perhaps in Europe, the area containing not less than ten acres. This spacious square is situated north-west of the inn, between the south side of Holborn and the north side of Portugal-street. The sides of it, within the railing, are the exact measure of the base of the greatest pyramid of Egypt. The area of this square is formed into grass plats and gravel walks; and the whole is encompassed with an iron palisade

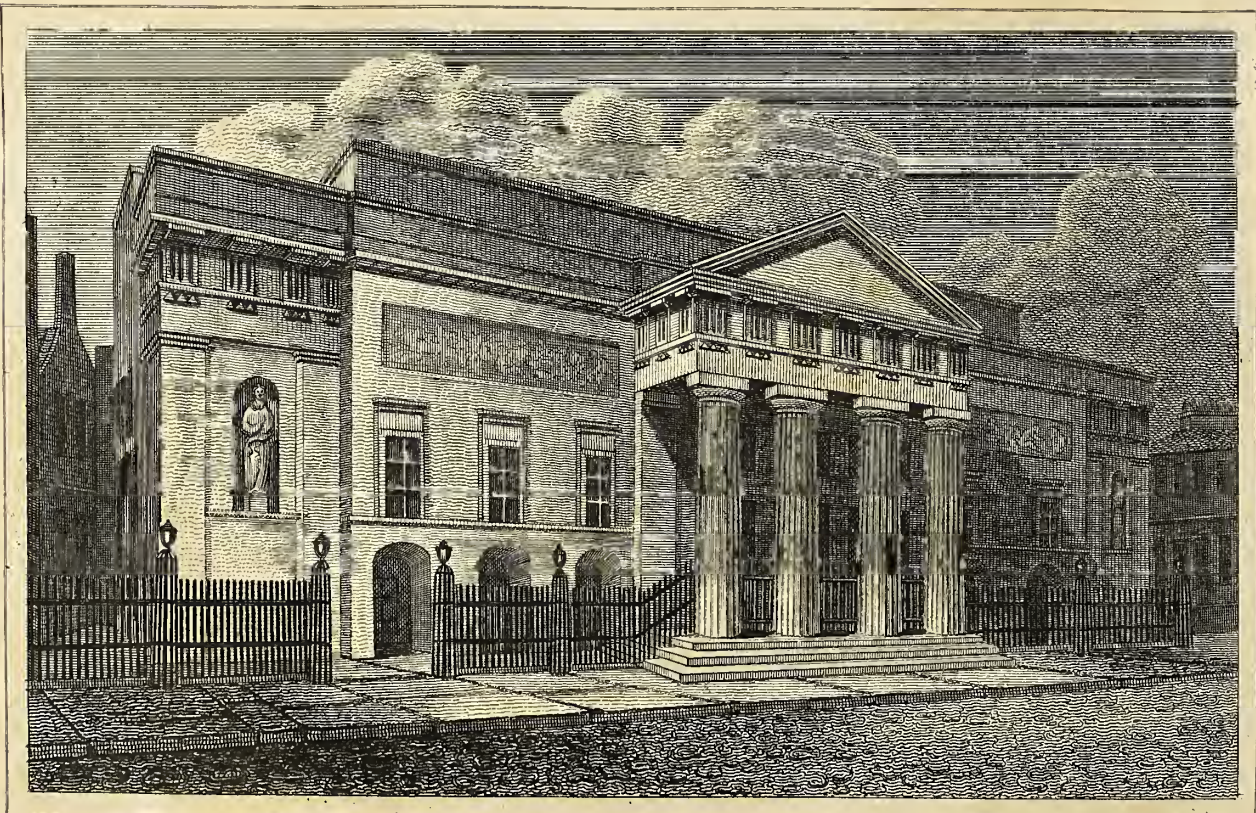








*The Royal College of Surgeons, in Lincoln's Inn Square.*



*View of Covent Garden Theatre, from Bow Street.*

*J. Chapman, sc.*



liffade fixed upon a stone plinth. The north, west, and south, sides of it, are adorned with very elegant buildings, among which are those formerly belonging to the dukes of Ancafter and Newcastle; the first in the centre of the west side, and the other, which is now divided into two, is at the corner of Great Queen-street; and the east side of it is bounded by the wall of the terrace in Lincoln's-inn-gardens. The north-side of the square is called Holborn-row; the west side Arch-row; the south side, Portugal-row; and the east side Lincoln's-inn-wall. Had this square been completed according to Inigo Jones's plan, it would have been the most beautiful in London. The design was formed with that simple grandeur which characterises most of his works. Ancafter house, near Duke-street, is a specimen; and it was intended that the whole should have been built in the same style; but there were not a sufficient number of people of taste to accomplish so great a work. In its present state, many of the houses are grand and noble; but the beauty arising from uniformity is wanting. This square was the place chosen for the execution of lord Russell, who was beheaded in the middle of it on the 21st of July, 1683.

It would certainly be a most desirable thing if the centre of this square were occupied by some national monument devoted to the memory of all the worthies of Britain, from Alfred to the duke of Wellington, to whose valour and bravery we are happy to find that a monument is going to be raised, by a subscription set on foot, not by stock-jobbers and wealthy nabobs, but by *the fair*. A most gratifying and delicate idea; for if, as Dryden says in Alexander's Feast, "None but the brave deserve the fair," so none but the fair should crown the brave. The duchess of York is at the head of the subscribers, and the sum already received is considerable. We recollect with pride that we hinted the idea at page 472.—Were we to suggest a plan, it would be, to erect a building fit to receive in the inside paintings and statues produced by English genius; and outside should be pedestals and niches destined for the statues and busts of our poets, historians, and naval as well as military heroes. It might occupy about a tenth of the whole area; i. e. about an acre, including a canal of water which should surround and secure the national temple. At present this large square is almost without ornament; for the whimsical projection of Mr. Soane, with statues and a sort of loggia, the subject of a long litigation, is not of importance sufficient to be taken notice of; but the College of Surgeons deserves our attention. It is situated on the south side of the square; and has a back-entrance in Portugal-street. Now this is one of those productions of the art which will always add consequence to the spot they are placed upon, and show the magnificence and wealth of a great nation. Here we find that solemn grandeur which arises from a proper union of regularity and simplicity; and, although hypercritics have found fault with some parts of the building, we were so pleased with the whole together, that we have caused a drawing and an engraving of it to be made, in order that our readers may judge for themselves. See Plate VII. *d.* The front is adorned with a noble portico of the Ionic order, supported by six plain columns; and we cannot help admiring the good sense and classicality of the architect in choosing that peculiar order of architecture, since it took its origin where the first man who exercised successfully the art of healing wounds and curing diseases, was born.—Hippocrates was a native of Ionia. The architrave tells the purport of the edifice by this simple inscription in raised brass letters: COLLEGIUM REGALE CHIRURGORVM; "Royal College of Surgeons." In the centre of a plain course, above the entablature, are placed the arms of the college, with the supporters; they may be described technically thus: Quarterly; first and fourth or, a serpent nowed with the head erect, vert; second and third argent, a lion couchant proper; over all, on a cross engrailed, azure, a regal crown between two portcullisses in fess, and as many an-

chors in pale, gold. Crest; on a wreath a hawk regardant holding in his beak a broken arrow, all proper. Supporters. The dexter, the figure of Machaon, holding in his dexter hand an arrow, the point downward and broken off; the sinister, the figure of Podalirius, habited all proper.—Machaon was a celebrated surgeon, son of Esculapius, and brother to Podalirius. He went to the Trojan war with the inhabitants of Trica, Ithome, and Cechalia; and exercised the art of surgery among the Greeks. Homer says, in his catalogue of ships,

Ἀσκληπιὸν δύο παῖδες  
Ἰντηρ' ἀγαθὸν Ποδάλειοιο, καὶ Μάχων.  
Il. ii. 240.

Those Podalirius and Machaon guide.  
To these his skill their parent-god imparts,  
Divine professors of the healing arts.

Pope.

Machaon is mentioned by Virgil as having been concealed in the wooden horse on the famous night which witnessed the destruction of Troy. *Æn.* ii. 263. Some suppose that he was killed before the walls of Ilium by Eurypylos, the son of Telephus.—Podalirius, his brother, was one of the pupils of the famous centaur Chiron. At his return from the Trojan war, he was shipwrecked on the coast of Caria, where he cured a daughter of the king of that place of a severe and dangerous illness by bleeding her in both arms; which is the first authentic record of the operation of blood-letting. This and other eminent proofs of his skill in the art of healing endeared him so much to the Carians, that after his death they built him a temple, and paid him divine honours.—From this it may be inferred how appropriately these two characters were chosen to support the arms of the College of Surgeons.—On the eastern side of the building, arranged in distinct apartments, is the Hunterian Museum, purchased by parliament for the use of the college: it consists of above 20,000 anatomical preparations, forming one of the greatest curiosities, and the most extraordinary assemblage of the wonders and harmonies of nature, to be met with in any country.

Portugal-street leads into Clare-market, so called from John earl of Clare, by whom, it was built and opened in the year 1656. It contains two market-houses, many hutchers and green-shops, where provisions are sold perhaps more reasonable than in any other market in or near London.

A large portion of Vere-street, Clare-market, and the adjoining neighbourhood, was built on land called St. Clement's Fields; and one of the earliest erections was a bowling-alley and tennis-court, situate in Bear-yard; a name which is still continued, and leaves no doubt the premises were occasionally used for the once-popular diversion of bear-baiting. The tennis-court communicated with Vere-street by a passage, according to repute, near where the Bull's Head is now situate, and where Charles Gibbons, esq. (as he is styled in the parish books,) the proprietor, then resided. In 1660, there was erected on the site of the tennis-court a small theatre, being the first built after the restoration; and on Thursday, November 28th, in that year, it was opened with the play of Henry the Fourth, by the company from the Red Bull under the direction of Thomas Killigrew. One event has given some importance to this theatre, in the history of the drama. Mr. Malone, with a discrimination not easy to be controverted, supposes that here, on Saturday, Dec. 6, 1660, upon the performance of Othello, the first time that season, "it is probable an actress first appeared on the English stage." Though the prologue and epilogue spoken on the occasion are in print, yet the name of the heroine is not preserved. At this house, Killigrew's company continued during the seasons of 1661, 1662, and part of 1663; and within that period obtained the title of "The Kings and Queens's Company of Players." In the latter year they removed to the new-built theatre in Drury-lane; and it does not appear that this house was again used for dramatic representations. Davenant, who



shortly afterwards produced his *Play-houfe to Lett*, alludes to it by making a musician fay, "Rest you merry; there is another play-houfe to lett in Vere-ftreet." Probably it remained unoccupied until Mr. Ogilby, the author of "*Itinerarium Angliæ*, or Book of Roads," adopted it, as ftanding in a populous neighbourhood, for the temporary purpose of drawing a lottery of books, which took place in 1668; and it was then, to diftinguifh it from the two neighbouring edifices in Lincoln's-inn Fields and Drury-lane, called the "Old Theatre." By another tranfition we find the volatile players fucceeded by austerè puritans. In 1675, the parifh-rates paid by the widow Gibbons (whose husband had then been dead feveral years) are entered for the "Tennis-court;" which might be an error in the collector, who could not but remember that "fuch things were," as in the following year it is fitly described as "The Meeting-houfe." The fame title is used in 1682, when, in confequence of an order in council for fuppreffing conventicles, feveral attempts were made by the conftables to take into cuftody the preachers who held forth at the "Old Play-houfe in Vere-ftreet." The building muft have been very fubftantial, as, reputedly, it was the fame that was destroyed by fire in 1809.

From Clare-market we naturally drop, through a narrow paffage on the left, into Clement's Inn.—The antiquity of this inn cannot be afcertained, but it is mentioned in a book of entries, dated in the 19th of Edward IV. Could Shakefpeare's authority on the fubject of dates be relied on, it muft have been much older; for in the fecond part of his hiftorical play of Henry IV. he makes one of his juftices a member of that fociety: "He muft to the inns of court. I was of Clement's once myfelf, where they will talk of mad Shallow ftill."—Adjoining to Clement's Inn, on the weft, is New Inn.—Paffing through this on the left, we get into Wych-ftreet, and crofs over into Lion's Inn, faid to have been anciently a common inn, having the fign of the lion, and yet to have been in the poffeffion of the ftudents and practitioners of the law ever fince the year 1420. For farther particulars of thefe three inns, fee vol. xi. p. 76, 7.—The opening into Holywell-ftreet has been lately faced, elegantly enough, with compofition or ftucco; and a fhield, bearing the uncouth representation of an ill-looking and clumsily-drawn lion, imperfectly informs the paffenger that this leads to Lion's Inn.

Meditating on this ill-used and misrepresented animal, we prefently came to a fmoke-jack manufactory at the corner of Holywell-ftreet and Newcastle-ftreet: this reminded us of another fet of formerly ill-used animals; for here the jacks, themfelves in motion with every breath of wind, feemed to proclaim a fweet and lafting repofe to the poor dogs, who, fome forty or fifty years paff, ufed to travel the whole day in a wheel, without getting any forwarder, in order to forward the meat to their mafters. The turnfpite-race of dogs is now loft in England, and we hope every where elfe—for indeed, but little ingenuity was required to invent fome fort of machine to fet the mutton in motion before the fire. Farther, we confeff that it pains us to fee this faithful friend of man, the guardian of our houfes, who facrifices his own fleep to our fecurity, the *averruncus* or defender of our perfons, debafed to drag in unfitting harnefs the butcher's or baker's truck.

From Lion's Inn we return to Temple Bar, in order to proceed from that point by another route.—TEMPLE BAR has been fufficiently described at p. 106. and the TEMPLE, part of which is within and part without the city, under the article INNS of COURT, vol. xi. p. 68 & feq.

Close to Temple Bar is *Shire lane*, fo called from the circumftance of its dividing the city from the fhire or county of Middlefex. It would be a work deferving of the thanks of the neighbourhood, if the magiftrates could hunt out a neft of cyprian harpies who hover about the entrance of this lane, to the great annoyance of the paf-

fengers. But thofe wasps have their hive there; and, till it is completely overturned, there is no remedy to the evil. It is a curious remark, that moft of thofe ftreet-walkers have their particular diftrict, a certain length upon which they may parade night and day, but the limits of which they are not allowed to pafs. From the top of Ludgate-hill to Temple Bar, is one of the moft extenfive walks; but fome are confined to the fpace from Bridge-ftreet to the Bar, while another fet goes as far as the entrance of St. Paul's church-yard, but not a ftep farther.—The law, of course, can have nothing to do with thefe regulations; but they arife from certain bye-laws, or a kind of convention which they have made among themfelves; and an initiation to the fiftershood is generally paid in gin or other palatable fees. One fet does not crofs the way, to intrude on the other fide, which excluſively belongs to another fet entirely different in manners and drefs, and not appearing abroad perhaps till a later hour in the evening. "They manage thefe matters better in France;" where we underftand that every convent where thefe nuns go to perform their *vefpers* is under the direktion of an *abbeſs*, jocoſely fo called; and that the whole eftablifhment is under the immediate eye of the police.

It might be interefting, perhaps, to fome of our readers, to have here a topographical defcription, and a fort of ichnography, of the appearance which the STRAND, at its opening from the weft front of Temple Bar prefented a few years ago. The houfes approached in the fhape of a wedge between the narrow opening of the Strand on the fouth, (fome of the houfes of which are yet ftanding with over-hanging ftories,) and on the north a narrow lane called *Butcher-row*. There were old and ill-looking almshoufes on the eaft of the church; and Butcher-row was continued by Holywell-ftreet, which ftill preferves a likenefs of it in the architecture of feveral of its houfes as well as in the narrownefs of the place.—Picket-ftreet, a noble and femicircular place, fo called in honour of the projector of this improvement, an alderman of London, has fuperſeded that dark and dirty row, and winds round the north fide of the church called St. Clement Danes: The houfes, which have been very unwifely built of an uncommon height, are more elegant than commodious; and the difficulty of finding purchaſers fuggelted the neceffity of difpofing of moft of them by lottery. Several are ftill uninhabited; others are let to auctioneers, who feem to be eager to make this ſpot a fort of emulative market-place for all kind of merchandife of which their owners may wifh to difpofe for ready money. The entrance towards Clement's Inn prefents a ſhort piazza adorned with columns, and contraſting moft abſurdly with the ſhabby and narrow lanes to which it leads on the right, filled up with old-iron-fhops, ballad-fingers, bird-fellers, and beggars. The other fide of the Strand has alfo reſpectfully retired about forty feet from the church towards the fouth; daylight has been let into Milford-lane; and a ſemi-circular or crefcent-like row of good houfes, already inhabited by reputable tradefmen, answers the north fide, and opens an eaſier paffage to carriages.

This part of the county of Middlefex is called the Liberty of the Duchy of Lancafter, which was granted to Peter of Savoy, from whom it paffed to the houfe of Lancafter, by Henry III. in the thirtieth year of his reign, in the following words: "All thofe houfes upon the Thames, which ſometimes pertained to Brian de Inſula, or l'Ifle, without the walls of the city of London, in the way or ſtreet called the Strand, to hold to him and to his heirs, yielding yearly in the Exchequer, at the feaft of St. Michael the Archangel, three barbed arrows, for all ſervices. Dated at Reading, &c." The extent of this liberty includes all the buildings between the fouth fide of the Strand and the Thames, from Temple Bar to the eaft fide of Cecil-ftreet. On the north fide of the Strand, it reaches from Temple Bar to where the may-pole flood; that is, near the weft end of the church of St. Mary-le-Strand, and re-



turns from thence through Holywell-street, including all Butcher-row, (when standing,) to Temple-Bar. Beyond the may-pole, the liberty begins again in Catharine-street, at the Fountain-tavern, and reaches from thence into the Strand, as far as Exeter Change; then turning up Burleigh-street, it runs to within four houses of Exeter-street, whence it passes through the buildings to the Fountain-tavern. Anciently this spot was occupied by the palaces of the chief nobility, the names of which are still preserved in the streets, &c. built on the sites of these mansions, and the gardens belonging to them. Hence we find here, Essex-street, Devereux-court, Arundel-street, Norfolk-street, Howard-street, Surrey-street, Burleigh-street, Exeter-street, Craven-buildings, Drury-lane, &c.

Since the improvement lately made, the first object which strikes the eye, as we leave Temple-bar, is the parish-church of St. Clement, and its steeple; which contains a set of bells, and a barrel-chime that plays every three hours a psalm-tune, the 104th, in so melancholy a mood, that the neighbours, waking in the dead of night, must have been long tired of the too-often repeated strain.—These chimes were frequent here anciently, and are still common in Germany and the Netherlands.—Cripplegate-church and St. Clement's are the only ones in London, if we are not mistaken, which have retained the old and useless fashion of setting church-bells to play musical tones to the sleeping parishioners in the night, or to the "vacant air" in the day, when the over-powering bustle and rattling of the streets make it impossible for the drawing melody to be heard. To St. Clement's chimes, however, we have no particular objection, as the sacred bells perform a sacred tune; but what can the good citizens of Salisbury think, when they stately hear the well-known tune of the anti-christian song "Life let us cherish" played off by the bells of one of their churches?

This church was dedicated to St. Clement, a disciple of St. Peter—but whence the distinctive appellation of "Danes?" Baker says it derived this name from having been the place of re-interment of Harold, whose brother, Hardicanute, had caused his body to be dug up and thrown into the Thames, where it was found by a fisherman, who "buried it in the church-yard of St. Clement, without Temple-bar; then called the church of the Danes." William of Malmesbury mentions a church here, before the arrival of the Danes, which, he says, they burnt, together with the monks and abbot; and that they continued their savage and sacrilegious fury throughout the land. He then goes on; "Desirous at length, to return to Denmark, they were about to embark; when they were, by the just judgment of God, all slain at London, in a place which has since been called the Church of the Danes." There is also another reason given for the denomination of this church; namely, that, when most of the Danes were driven out of this kingdom, those few that remained, being married to English women, were obliged to live between the Isle of Thorney (Westminster) and Caer Lud (Lud-town, or London), where they built a synagogue, which was afterwards consecrated, and called, "Ecclesia Clementis Danorum." This is the account given by Fleetwood, the antiquary, recorder of London, to the lord-treasurer Burleigh, who referred in this parish. The old church was taken down in 1680, and the present structure erected in 1682, under the direction of sir Christopher Wren; but the steeple was not added to it till some years after. It is a very handsome structure, built entirely of stone. The body of it is lighted by two series of windows; the lower plain, but the upper well ornamented; and the termination is by an attic, whose pilasters are crowned with vases. The entrance, on the south side, is by a portico, to which there is an ascent of a few steps; the portico is covered with a dome, supported by Ionic columns. On each side the base of the steeple, in the west front, is a small square tower, with its dome. The steeple is carried to a great height in several stages; where it begins to diminish, the Ionic order takes place,

and its entablature supports vases. The next stage is of the Corinthian order; and above that stands the Composite, supporting a dome, which is crowned with a smaller one, whence rises the ball and its vane. This church is a rectory, the patronage of which was anciently in the Knights Templars; but, after passing through several hands, it at length came to the ears of Exeter, in whom it still remains. The length of this church is ninety-six feet, its breadth sixty-three, and its height, to the roof, forty-eight feet; and the altitude of the steeple is about a hundred and forty feet.

From the west end of St. Clement's, the Strand continues on the south; and Holywell-street and Wych-street, on the north, run up to St. Mary's, commonly called the New Church in the Strand. The original church belonging to this parish is mentioned so early as the year 1222, when it was named "St. Mary and the Innocents of the Strand;" but how long it had stood before that time is uncertain. It was then situated on the south side of the Strand, nearly opposite to the present edifice; but was taken down in 1549, by order of Edward Seymour, duke of Somerset; which depriving the parishioners of a place of worship, they joined themselves to the church of St. Clement Danes; and afterwards to that of St. John Baptist in the Savoy, where they continued till the year 1723. At length, the act having passed for erecting the fifty new churches within the bills of mortality, one was appointed for this parish, and the first stone laid on the 25th of February, 1714. It was finished in three years and a half, though it was not consecrated till the first of January, 1723, when, instead of its ancient name, it was called St. Mary-le-Strand. It was the first built of the fifty new churches; and is a very superb, though not a very extensive, edifice: it is massy, without the appearance of being heavy, and formed to stand for ages. At the entrance on the west end is an ascent by a flight of steps cut in the sweep of a circle. These lead to a circular portico of Ionic columns covered with a dome, which is crowned with an elegant vase. The columns are continued along the body of the church, with pilasters of the same order at the corners, and in the intercolumniations are niches handsomely ornamented. Over the dome is a pediment supported by Corinthian columns, which are also continued round the body of the structure, over those of the Ionic order beneath; between which are the windows placed over the niches. These columns are supported on pedestals, and have pilasters behind with arches sprung from them, and the windows have angular and circular pediments alternately. A handsome balustrade is carried round the top, and its summit is adorned with vases, one of which fell down a few years since, and killed a man on the spot. The steeple is light though solid, and ornamented with composite columns and capitals. The whole building is surrounded by a dwarf stone wall, ornamented with very strong and handsome iron rails. This church is a rectory, the patronage of which is in the bishop of Winchester. The value of the living is two hundred and twenty-five pounds per annum, besides surplice-fees; of which sum one hundred pounds was settled by act of parliament, and one hundred and twenty-five pounds is raised by a pound-rate upon the inhabitants in lieu of tythes.

On the site of this church, until its erection, stood a maypole, which on May-morning, as well as on other days of festivity, was decorated with streamers and garlands of flowers, and much resorted to by the maidens and youths of London and Westminster; when taken down, it was found to be one hundred feet in length. It was obtained by sir Isaac Newton, and conveyed to Wansstead Park in Essex, at that time the seat of sir Richard Child, afterwards lord Castlemain, where, under the direction of the Rev. Mr. Pound, it was placed for the erection of a telescope one hundred and twenty-five feet long, the largest then in the world, which was given to the Royal Society by Mons. Hugon, one of its members. Pope has immortalized this maypole in the following lines.

Amidst



Amidst the area wide they took their stand,  
Where the tall maypole once o'erlook'd the Strand:  
But now, so Anne and piety ordain,  
A church collects the faints of Drury-lane.

We may, at a proper time, say something more upon the origin of May-games and May-poles, which, though now out of fashion, are still connected with some parts of our history.—See p. 72, 73, and 451, of this volume; also the article GAME, vol. viii. p. 201-3.

Westward from Essex House, mentioned vol. xi. p. 68. stood the bishop of Bath's inn, which in the reign of Edward VI. was severed from the bishopric, and granted to lord Thomas Seymour, high admiral, when it received the name of Seymour Place. It came afterwards into the possession of Thomas Howard, earl of Arundel, who, on the attainder of the high admiral, purchased it of Edward VI. with several other messuages in the parish, for 41l. 6s. 8d. when its appellation was changed to Arundel House. Though this building covered great extent of ground, it appears from Thane's views of it to have been low and mean. When it was pulled down, and the four streets bearing the family name and titles were erected on its site, there was a design to build a mansion-house for the family out of the accumulated rents, on that part of the gardens next to the river, and an act of parliament was obtained for the purpose; but the plan was never executed. We have seen two views of this house on the bank of the Thames well executed, though on a very small scale, by Hollar; and they sold for eleven guineas each, although four guineas might have covered the engraved part of the copper upon which they were originally etched. They were scarce—and our readers know that, with print, picture, coin, and manuscript, collectors, scarcity is every thing! It turns nonsense into wit, unfinished engravings into master-pieces, daubs into fine productions, rubbish and obliterated pieces of metal into valuable medals, and gives credit to unedited or unprinted old pamphlets, which to their want of intrinsic merit alone owe their having never been thought worthy of revival. See p. 317.

At the west end of Wych-street, and the south end of Drury-lane, stood the ancient mansion of the noble families of Drury and Craven, and also that of the queen of Bohemia, the unfortunate daughter of James I. The remains of the latter have been lately taken down to make way for a new equestrian theatre, under the direction of Mr. Aitley, called the Olympic Pavilion, which, in competition with the Amphitheatre near Westminster-bridge, exhibits feats of horsemanship, rope-dancing, &c. &c.

Drury-house was built, according to Pennant, by sir William Drury, a most able commander in the Irish wars, who unfortunately fell in a duel with sir John Borroughs, in a foolish quarrel about precedence. During the time of the fatal discontents of the favourite Essex, it was the place where his imprudent advisers resolved on such counsels as terminated in the destruction of him and his adherents. This house afterwards came into possession of the heroic William lord Craven, who, in 1673, was created earl Craven. Part of it is now a public house; and on the site of another part is erected a court called Craven-buildings, at the upper end of which was a portrait of this hero in armour, with a truncheon in his hand, mounted on a white horse. It was supposed that this illustrious nobleman aspired to the hand of his royal neighbour, whose battles he had fought; and that he succeeded, and married her privately. This conjecture was not a little strengthened some years ago, when, on digging in the stable-yard behind both houses, a subterraneous communication was discovered between them.

Crossing over from Little Drury-lane, we find Somerset House.—This is one of the noblest pieces of architecture which London can boast of; and, when you have seen St. Paul's basilica and the royal-looking palace of Somerset House, you seek in vain within the bills of mortality for any thing that can be compared to them. Foreigners,

used to the lofty ruins of ancient Rome, and of the high edifices of modern Paris, are naturally apt to find this building too low; and indeed, were it twenty feet higher, it would have much more effect and majesty. The celebrated and justly-admired hospital at Greenwich labours under the same defect. If Somerset House displays a noble appearance in the Strand, what shall we say of the view of it from the Thames? Here the astonished eye ranges from the rippling surface of the waves to the top of the "grand corps," which is the centre of the whole; and a noble terrace supported by arches, through which the curious sight winds along, as we row before them, into mysterious cavities, seems to defy other countries to boast of a more majestic fabric.

It was originally built, about the year 1549, by the duke of Somerset, uncle to Edward VI. and protector of England, who demolished the palaces of the bishops of Chester and Worcester, and an inn of chancery called Strand-inn, with the church of St. Mary le Strand, that stood there; and also the Strand-bridge. Mr. Pegge gives a particular account of these places respectively; and then proceeds—"What is now a street, called *the Strand*, was at that time no more than a highway, leading from London westward to the village of Charing, where stood queen Eleanor's cross, and a few houses; from whence, in a right line, you was led on, through open fields, to St. James's house, lately an hospital, but then a royal house. This highway, being the property of the crown, as such was easily modified to accommodate the king's uncle, and consequently there was little difficulty or hardship upon the subject in the change it underwent by levelling; and on the whole, perhaps, the road was rendered better by the change." By Stowe's account, there was not any current of water under this bridge; for, says he, in the autograph remaining in the British Museum, "then had ye, in the high street, a fair bridge, called Strand-bridge, and under it a lane, which went down to the Strand, so called from being a banque of the river of Thames." But here Stowe speaks of it as if it were in his own time, and not with reference to the reign of king Edward VI. or to any prior period. Maitland, on the other hand, tells us, that there was a rivulet under the bridge; for, says he, "a little to the east of the present Catharine-street, and in the high street, was a handsome bridge, denominated, from its situation, Strand-bridge, through which ran a small water-course from the fields, which, gliding along a lane below, had its influx to the Thames near Somerset-stairs." In this account we should incline to believe Maitland; because lanes do not often become rivers, though the beds of rivers, by a diversion of their courses, may become lanes.

Besides demolishing the places we have mentioned, the duke availed himself of the materials he obtained from the church of St. John of Jerusalem with its tower, (see p. 106.) and the cloisters on the north side of St. Paul's church, together with the chapel and charnel-house, all of which he caused to be destroyed for this purpose; and the building from him obtained the name of Somerset-house: but, the duke being soon after attainted, it fell to the crown.

In this palace Anne of Denmark, queen to James I. kept her court, whence it was called Denmark-house during that reign; but it soon after recovered the name of the founder. It was afterwards the residence of queen Catharine, dowager of Charles II. and, by an act passed in the second year of the reign of his present majesty George III. it was settled upon his queen for life; but has since been exchanged for Buckingham-house.

This palace consisted of several courts, and had a garden behind it situated on the bank of the Thames. The front next the Strand was adorned with columns and other decorations, and in the centre was a handsome gate that opened into a quadrangle. On the south side of this quadrangle was a piazza before the great hall, or guard-room: beyond which were other courts that lay on a descent towards the garden. The back-front next the Thames



Thames was added to it by Charles II. and was a magnificent structure of free-stone, with a noble piazza, built by Inigo Jones. In this new building were the royal apartments, which commanded a beautiful prospect of the river and the adjacent country. The garden was ornamented with statues, shady walks, and a bowling-green; but, as none of the royal family had resided there after queen Catharine, dowager of Charles II. several of the officers belonging to the court were permitted to lodge in it; and a great part of it was for some time used as barracks for soldiers. In Somers-et-yard, on the west side of the palace, were coach-houses, stables, and a guard-room for the use of the soldiers on duty; the gateway to which fronted Catharine-street.

The propriety of erecting the public offices, necessarily connected with each other, on the same spot, had long been perceived by the government; when, in 1775, the conveniency of this old building, which already belonged to the crown, pointed it out as the most eligible situation for the purpose. An act of parliament was therefore obtained for embanking the river Thames before Somers-et-house, and for building on the ground thereof various public offices which were specified, together with such others as his majesty should think proper. See the article ARCHITECTURE, vol. ii. p. 119, 20. To the account there given we have little to add.—The entrance from the Strand is by three arches, which open to a spacious vestibule, uniting the street with the back front, and serving as the general access to the whole edifice; but more particularly to the Royal Academy, and to the Royal and Antiquarian Societies; the entrances to all which are under cover. This vestibule is decorated with columns of the Doric order, whose entablatures support the vaults, ornamented with well-chosen antiques; among which the ciphers of their majesties and the prince of Wales are judiciously intermixed. Over the central doors, in this vestibule, are two busts, executed in Portland-stone, by Mr. Wilton; that on the Academy-side represents Michael Angelo Buonarrotti, the first of artists; that on the side of the learned Societies, sir Isaac Newton, the first of philosophers.—The Royal Academy, by the kindness of his present majesty, has been accommodated with the whole of the right side of the vestibule; where a lobby, decorated with casts of the best antique statues and bas-reliefs, opens on the right into the secretary's apartments and the Model Academy. Facing the entrance, the noble staircase presents itself, most majestically adorned with a gigantic cast of the famous Farnesian Hercules, fenced behind with brass-wire to prevent its receiving any injury. The rooms above are—the Library; the Antique Academy; the Council Room, containing the diploma-pictures of the academicians for several years; and above, the Large Room, where the students receive lectures upon the particular sciences connected with the art of painting, as anatomy, drawing, perspective, &c. and where they study the naked figure under the direction of able professors. See ACADEMY, vol. i. p. 46. The exhibition of paintings, drawings, and sculpture, is every year in the months of May and June.—On the other side, the Royal Society has part of the whole pavillion. An anti-chamber, which is common to them and the Society of Antiquaries, leads to the Meeting-room, where we find several portraits of the successive presidents.—The Antiquarian Society has its library on the ground-floor, which is open to the members every Wednesday. The day of meeting is every Thursday, except vacation-times. It is the same for the Royal Academy. See farther under the article SOCIETY.

Nearly opposite to Somers-et-house is Catharine-street, in which we find the Morning Herald, the Champion, the Morning Advertiser; and above, in Brydges-street, the News, the Antigallican; whilst below, in the Strand, and only a few yards from them, we meet the Morning Post and Morning Chronicle, as opposite in principles as in situation, the Courier, the Pilot, &c. &c. as if these paper-kites to which morning and evening the eyes of the cu-

rious are powerfully drawn, had tacitely agreed to nestle all together in one place.—Nothing can more plainly show the reading-character of the present times, than a statement of the number of newspapers printed and circulated. In London there are published seventeen newspapers daily, and eighteen or nineteen every Sunday, besides eighteen once or twice a-week. The following particulars are added from the Picture of London for 1812: "Of the morning-papers, there are sold about 17,000; of the daily evening-papers, about 12,000; and of those published every other day, about 10,000. There are also about 26,000 sold of the various Sunday papers; and about 20,000 of the other weekly papers: in all, the enormous number of 232,000 copies per week; yielding to their proprietors from the sale 5800l. and from advertisements 2000l. more; of which the revenue to government is full 4000l. and the net proceeds to the proprietors about 1000l. per week. The remaining 2800l. affords employment and subsistence to about 50 writers and reporters, 300 printers, 100 vendors, and 100 clerks and assistants; besides paper-makers, stationers, type-founders, &c. full 200 more. If to these be added the weekly calculation of 250,000 copies of provincial papers, yielding 10,000l. per week, and supporting the industry of 1500 persons;—what a wonderful idea is afforded of the agency and influence of the press in this empire; and how easily is it accounted for, that we are the most free and most intelligent people on the face of the earth!" See MAGAZINE, NEWSPAPER, and REVIEW; also JOURNAL, vol. xi. p. 273.

Catharine-street ascends by a gentle slope towards Russell-street, changing its name at the corner of Exeter-street, and assuming that of Brydges-street; on the north-east end of which, rose at last, from its nearly-forgotten ashes, the play-house of Drury-lane, which now stands in noble simplicity to greet our sight. But this building does not make at distance so fine an object as did the former one. From Blackfriars-bridge we could see that noble roof, crowned by the fane, upon which stood the statue of the god of music and poetry, who,

— when vengeful Vulcan's flames arose,  
And roll'd in raging volumes through the shades  
Of startled night, elate and fierce, assail'd  
His tripod-trampling feet, and sacred lyre—  
Indignant fell amidst the inferior blaze  
Of sublunary fire!—with dreadful crash  
He fell—and groan'd!—the parched walls around  
Shook to their bases, and return'd the sound.

The grand entrance is in Brydges-street, as before; and leads to a capacious hall, on one side of which, and fronting the entrance, is a large door leading to a rotunda, in which the passages to the different parts of the theatre are concentrated. This is surmounted by a hemispherical lantern, round the inside of which is a passage leading to the saloon. The saloon is a spacious room over the hall, and of the same dimensions as the hall beneath. A great advantage in point of decorum is obtained by this arrangement, as the company in the saloon is completely separated from the boxes, the whole diameter of the rotunda being interposed between them. The stairs are broad, capacious, and lead in the most convenient manner to the different tiers of boxes; the pit is smaller than that of Covent-garden theatre. From the stage to the back of the dress-boxes, the space is sixteen feet less than in that theatre; and, between box and box across, the distance is also less by seven feet. As in old Drury, there are private boxes round the pit, and under the dress circle. These are eight on each side, but with only four compartments in front, in the form of Saxon arches. There are three circles for boxes, each of which contains twenty-six boxes in thirteen compartments, except the front of the upper tier, in which the two-shilling gallery advances. The upper boxes project over the lower, the whole being supported by twelve gilt fluted columns, with Egyptian pedestals. The area of the boxes, following the form of



the whole building, are in the shape of a horse-shoe; but the extremities are not made to approximate in order to meet the narrow front of the stage, but, by taking a sweep in the contrary direction, afford to the company nearest to the performances an excellent view. Thus the audience-part forms three-fourths of a circle, which, making some little allowance for the deviation in the drop within the proscenium, may be said to be completed by the circular sweep which connects the outer wall of the boxes with the proscenium. The lustres by which the house is lighted, are made from designs formed by the architect. On the staircases, at each pillar, are placed antique lamps. Melpomene and Thalia are placed in the niches on either side of the proscenium, above the cornice; and the royal arms are painted on the semi-circular pannel formed by the arch which appears to surmount the two pillars over the proscenium. These are done with a most astonishing strength of relief, so that the eye can hardly decide whether they are carved or painted. The uniform shape of the back wall of the boxes gives an unobstructed range to the sound, at the same time that its thickness (three feet) is an effectual security against the spreading of flames. In the corridors which surround and lead to the boxes, the floors are formed of stone, and rest upon brick arches without any intermixture of timber. Another wall, three feet thick, surrounds these corridors. By an invention of Col. Congreve, water is laid on to all parts of the building: the reservoir will contain 200 hogheads, which will supply the pipes for half an hour; and the directors of the York-buildings Waterworks have engaged, by means of steam-engines, to replenish the reservoir. The scenes move on an iron railway. The whole amount of expenditure, including scenery, wardrobe, and all the other property necessary to be provided for opening the theatre for theatrical performances, amounted to about 150,000l.

Thus much of the interior, in which there is nothing wanting to elegance, convenience, comfort, or security. But experience has often taught us, that we should form very erroneous conceptions of the interior structure of the mind, both as to its elegance and utility of attainment, were we judge of it from the first impressions produced by the exterior frame in which it is embodied. It is thus with the new Drury-lane theatre. The façade or front exhibits a long square and almost-flat mass of stonework. It may be divided into a centre and sides. The sides about half the breadth of the centre; and each constituted by a pilastrade of two columns, supporting the plainest entablature possible. This entablature extends along the centre, but with only the moulding of the architrave in the latter. On the entablature is an unadorned parapet, or surmounting of the front. Between each pilaster is an aperture, or blank door, corresponding in circular shape and size with three doors in a line with these two; above which doors are five windows, the centre ones ornamented with pediments. The centre stands on an elevation of three steps. Two pedestals immediately project from the wall, in the shape of half a hexagon or six angled figure, on each side the middle door; they are each surmounted by an elegant iron tripod, on which rests a handsome lamp, and two cylindrical pedestals, surmounted by similar objects, are, except their bases, detached about two feet from the building. The side of the structure exhibits a long range of fifteen arched doors and windows, above which is another row of thirteen windows, running a little above the middle elevation of the wall, the remainder of which is ornamented with a cornice, and has an attic elevation at the corners. Two niches, in a line with the upper windows, appear in the wall immediately over the side doors. The whole is in unison with the front. In fine, the proportions are all symmetrical, harmonious, and agreeable; and its aspect would have been more pleasing, had the whole building been faced with artificial stone, instead of the front alone. But, if the appearance of a structure should be as expres-

sive as possible of its use, then this is not the exterior of a theatre, but rather of a Quakers' Meeting, for it exhibits very little indication of a place appropriated to dramatic amusements. Of all its deficiencies, its greatest is, its being without either colonade, arcade, or portico; not merely because those objects are in themselves beautiful, but because they are essentially useful to the visitors in rainy weather. For this useful purpose, porticos and ambulatories were generally attached to the Roman theatres. From an account published in the Monthly Magazine for Jan. 1812, it appears, that the entrance of this house was intended to be "surmounted by a fine colonade supported by eight pillars."

The beauty of the interior, the natural curiosity of the public to see a new thing, and the circumstance of there being but one other theatre in this vast metropolis, contributed to fill the house during the first season; and the second season, which has lately closed, has been rendered highly productive by the first appearance of Mr. Kean, whose powers of acting have rendered it extremely difficult to procure a seat in the theatre on his nights of performance. — This house is built to afford sitting-room for 2810 persons: 1200 in the boxes, 850 in the pit, 480 in the lower gallery, and 280 in the upper gallery. The architect is Mr. B. Wyatt.

Drury-lane, is so called from Drury-house, which stood at the south end of it near Little Drury-lane. Pennant, says, "It is singular that this lane, of later times so notorious for intrigue, should receive its title from a family-name, which, in the language of Chaucer had an amorous signification:

"Of bataille and of chevalrie,  
Of ladies love and *druerie*,  
Anon I wol you tell."

Some writers have lately found fault with Pennant for understanding here the word *druerie* in a sense so contrary, *they say*, so diametrically opposite, to its original signification, which they pretend is "modesty and decency of deportment." We must in this instance support Mr. Pennant, and observe, that the word, as used in Chaucer, is entirely French; and comes from the adjective *drû*, "well-fledged, strong, frolicsome;" as a bird that has all his feathers, and is ready for amorous strife. The French say, *Ce gaillard est drû*; meaning, that "he is a frolicsome young man, fit for love and courtship." Hence we conclude, that, if ever the word has obtained the other meaning, it must have been taken astray from the genuine signification.—This place was not less famous for intrigue formerly than it has been in later times. In the forty-sixth number of the Tatler it is thus humourously described: "There is near Covent-garden a street, known by the name of Drury, which before the days of Christianity, was purchased by the queen of Paphos, and is the only part of Great Britain where the tenure of vassalage is still in being. All that long course of building is under particular districts, or *ladyships*, after the manner of lordships in other parts, over which matrons of known abilities preside, and have, for the support of their age and infirmities, certain taxes paid out of the rewards of the amorous labours of the young. This seraglio of Great Britain is disposed into convenient alleys and apartments, and every house, from the cellar to the garret, inhabited by nymphs of different orders, that persons of every rank may be accommodated with an immediate consort to allay their flames, and partake of their cares."

A few yards from the front of Drury-lane theatre, we get a side view of that of Covent-garden; and approaching the south entrance of Bow-street, a place long famous for the attendance and transactions at the head office of the police kept there, we catch the aspect of that elegant play-house, as we have had it represented in Plate VII *d*. To our engraving, which, as far as the limits of the copper would allow, most faithfully represents this building, we shall join some observations upon the architecture, in-



terior and exterior, of this magnificent structure; and endeavour to explain those principles of science, by which alone such a building ought to be judged.

Mr. Smirke, jun. the architect, has selected, and upon very just grounds of preference, the Doric style of architecture, which, in majesty, simplicity, and strength, so much excels the other orders. The front of the theatre occupies one half of that side of Bow-street nearest to Covent-garden; and, upon our first approach, we are struck with the astonishing breadth and majestic simplicity of the building. The portico, in the centre, is of the same proportions as those in the portico of the temple of Minerva at Athens; and the characteristics of Greek architecture are preserved in the other parts of the front. The columns of the portico, we believe, with the exception of those of St. Peter's at Rome, and those in the temple of the Acropolis, are the largest of any existing building in Europe. The mouldings on the exterior of the building, the architraves round the windows, in short every part, are correct examples of Greek forms and purity. In the lower part of the front a suite of arcades extends from one end to the other; and there is no decoration introduced which does not tend to the general effect and character of the whole.—The front of the building is terminated at each end by two pilasters; and the figures of Comedy and Tragedy are placed in niches between them. There is a breadth of plain surface under each niche, by means of which the effect of the figures is very much assisted. The *basso-relievs* in front are each about forty-five feet long, and are executed with the same relief as those in the temple of Minerva, which were the work of Phidias. The projection of the most prominent figure not exceeding three inches, they have a peculiar effect from the plain surface behind them, and, being slightly indented, harsh shadows are avoided. They thus form a part of the general character and prevailing simplicity of the structure, and constitute a modest decoration and delicate enrichment. Under the portico, in the same relief as the other *basso-relievs*, the king's arms are introduced.

The main walls of the theatre, which are about one hundred feet in height, and of a proportionate thickness, rise considerably above the other parts of the front; and arched openings have been judiciously introduced, by which the chimneys are concealed, and the water is discharged from the great roof. In the other fronts of the building all architectural decoration has been omitted; but the same flowing lines, the same exactness of proportions and purity of parts, the same noble simplicity and character of severe grandeur, is preserved throughout.—The building is entirely insulated; but a communication has been preserved between Hart-street and Bow-street, and the piazzas in Covent-garden.

But in a work conducted upon principle, having said thus much, having praised the architect, not only for his taste and genius, but for his knowledge of the rule, and strict conformity to it; it is but justice to the public not to cover him with indiscriminate eulogy, but to apply the rule as well where it apparently makes against him as where it is in his favour. Ought not the entablature in the front of the building to have been one unbroken line? ought it to have been divided into compartments? In this style of building, the Doric order, nothing is admissible for the mere purpose of ornament. Every thing must have an immediate or presumable reference to utility. According to this principle, the entablature is supposed to be the strap, or *vinculum*, by which the parts are bound together. Now it is evident that this idea necessarily involves unity and continuity. There is no strength in a cord thus minutely snapped. This division, moreover, was not necessary for the purpose of comprehending the figures of the *basso-relievs*. According to all existing reliques of the pure Greek Doric, they might have been introduced in the interstices of the tryglyphs. Division always takes from effect: it belongs to ornament, but not to simplicity.

There is one peculiar praise which belongs to this building—It is the only existing specimen of pure Greek architecture, uncorrupted by Roman or Gothic appendages. It is filled up as it were from the remaining shell of the Acropolis at Athens. Mr. Smirke has caught from the temple of Minerva the general idea; the proportions, the parts, the finishing, are all his own; in a word, it is a building of which Athens would not have been ashamed, and of which England, therefore, may be reasonably proud.—Like every true work of art, it does not command attention by its mere mass; the effect is purely given to it by the art, the harmony, the mind, of the workman. The mass, the brick and mortar, and all that was done by the trowel and the plane, belong to Mr. Copeland; the order and effect, the *mens agitans molem*, to Mr. Smirke. It is he that has lifted the mass into lightness, and, like the Atlas in the fable, carries it with majesty and simplicity on his shoulders.

The specimens of the fine arts exhibited in the sculpture of the front are representations of the ancient and modern drama, in *basso-relievo*. The designs are classical, and the execution masterly. The piece representing the ancient drama is to the north of the portico, and that representing the modern drama is on the south side.

*Ancient Drama.*—In the centre three Greek poets are sitting. The two looking towards the portico are Aristophanes, representing the old comedy, and (nearest to the spectator) Menander representing the new comedy. Before them Thalia presents herself with her crook and comic mask, as the object of their imitation. She is followed by Polyhymnia playing on the greater lyre, and by Euterpe on the smaller lyre; Clio with the long pipes, and Terpsichore, the muse of action or pantomime. These are succeeded by three nymphs crowned with the leaves of the fir-pine, and in succinct tunics, representing the hours or seasons, governing and attending the winged horse Pegasus. The third sitting figure in the centre, looking from the portico, is Æschylus, the father of tragedy. He holds a scroll open upon his knee; his attention is fixed on Wisdom, or Minerva, seated opposite to the poet, and distinguished by her helmet and shield. Between Æschylus and Minerva, Bacchus stands leaning on his fawn, because the Greeks represented tragedies in honour of Bacchus. Behind Minerva stands Melpomene, or Tragedy, holding a sword and mask; then follow two Furies, with snakes and torches, pursuing Orestes, who stretches out his hands to supplicate Apollo for protection. Apollo is represented in the quadriga, or four-horsed chariot of the sun. The last-described figures relate to part of Æschylus's tragedy of Orestes.

*Modern Drama.*—In the centre (looking from the portico) Shakespeare is sitting; the comic and tragic masks, with the lyre, are about his seat; his right hand is raised, expressive of calling up the following characters in the Tempest: first, Caliban, laden with wood; next, Ferdinand, sheathing his sword; then, Miranda, entreating Prospero in behalf of her lover; they are led on by Ariel above, playing on a lyre. This part of the composition is terminated by Hecate (the three-formed goddess) in her car, drawn by oxen, descending. She is attended by Lady Macbeth, with the daggers in her hands, followed by Macbeth turning in horror from the body of Duncan behind him. In the centre (looking towards the portico) is Milton, seated, contemplating Urania, according to his own description in the Paradise Lost. Urania is seated facing him above; at his feet is Sampson Agonistes chained. The remaining figures represent the masque of Comus; the two Brothers drive out three Bacchanals, with their staggering leader Comus. The enchanted Lady is seated in the chair; and the series is ended by two tigers, representing the transformation of Comus's devotees. The designs of both *basso-relievs*, and the models of the ancient drama, are by Mr. Flaxman. The models of the modern drama, and the execution in stone, are by Mr. Rossi.



The composition and executive part of these bassos-relievos, are entitled to every praise; the characters, in the main, are marked with much boldness and precision: there is a spirit of poetical imagery in the allegorical and ideal appendages, which gives to this sculpture a kind of epic dignity, not unworthy the genius of the master, from whom the general idea has been caught. With respect, however, to character and propriety and that peculiar correctness which one expects to find in a work aiming at refinement, there is an error of such magnitude as to deserve pointing out. The artist has very properly introduced Shakespeare as the head of the modern drama, conjuring up his Prospero, his Caliban, and Ariel, and all the creation of the Tempest; but Prospero, Caliban, and Ariel, are real embodied characters—they have a dramatic personal entity, and are not, like the *air-drawn* dagger of Macbeth, the mere idea and notion of the mind, under the impulse of violent passion. But in the sculpture of the ancient drama the artist has confounded the two ideas, and given a personal form and representation to a mere notion and affection of the mind. In the Choephoroi of Æschylus, the Furies have no existence beyond what they assume in the terror of Orestes: he sees them in his mind's eye, and in the distracted vision of his fears and remorse. The fiction of poetry will allow this; but the sculptor must not out-herod Herod: he must not play the poet with the poet—he must not extend the extravagance, and give flesh and blood to what the poet has been contented to leave mere fancy and passion. This is certainly an error on the part of propriety.

Statues seven feet in height, representing Tragedy and Comedy, are placed in niches in the wings of the theatre. Tragedy, on the south wing, is a fine figure, holding the tragic mask and dagger: the sculptor is Mr. Rossi. Comedy holds the shepherd's crook or pedum on her right shoulder, and the comic mask in her left hand: this is the workmanship of Mr. Flaxman, and occupies the northern wing.—We have little to remark upon the statues. The figures are good in themselves; but, if we regard them distinctly from their appendages, they are not sufficiently characteristic: a statue or painting should declare itself, seen at any distance, without requiring a minute inspection of the attributes; but these statues, stripped of their attributes, convey no precise idea: they are what you please; a Muse or a Pomona. Let us carry our minds forward, and suppose that we should find these statues a hundred years hence, stripped by rapine or accident of their appendages—would it be possible to affix to either of them the character of Tragedy or of Comedy? Now Tragedy and Comedy are decided characters of themselves: the mask, the bowl, and buskin, should not be required to distinguish them. Sculpture and fancy have already assigned to them naked and abstract peculiarities. They are, moreover, too small for the building; as mere figures, the parts of them, the adjustment of the drapery, and the quantities, are excellent; we could only wish to have seen what would have distinctly marked them as Tragedy and Comedy. It was not correct, we think, nor consistent with the ample grandeur and severe dignity of the Doric order to mount them upon lofty pedestals, and to cut them down to the size of the human figure. It would have been better if they had no other pedestal than the basement of the niche in which they stand, and had mounted to the spring of the arch without artificial elevation.

*Interior of the Theatre.*—The entrance from the piazza is by a double flight of stone steps; the walls are also of stone, and the whole is lighted by antique lamps, placed on tripods of bronze. Taste and judgment have concurred in producing the union of beauty and convenience. Nothing can be more elegant than the ornaments, and nothing more perfect than the accommodation provided for the public. The communication from one part of the house to another is complete, being facilitated by staircases, by which one may go from the stage or the pit to

the upper gallery, in a few minutes. Large reservoirs of water have been judiciously formed, from which pipes lead to every part of the house. These conduits are of a very considerable diameter, and would in an instant inundate any spot to which it might be necessary to direct the flood. Within the solid parts of the walls, and indeed in the very heart of the building, are introduced ventilators, for the purpose of economising and distributing the air. The house, therefore, is always capable of being purified and refreshed, and, in figurative language, may even be said to *respire*.

The stage, in height, breadth, and especially in depth, appears to be of admirable dimensions, and excellently adapted to scenic show and processions. The boxes, except those over the side-doors, are not suffered to intrude upon the *proscenium*; a proper departure from the common practice. On each side of the proscenium are two lofty pilasters in scagliola, with light gilt capitals; between which, are the stage-doors and managers' boxes, &c. These support an elliptical arch, the centre of which rises to the height of the ceiling; the whole forming a species of cove. It is divided into compartments by burnished-gold mouldings and stiles with wreaths of oak and the double rose of England; the thistle and shamrock in gold are likewise introduced. In the centre of each compartment is a silver branch of palm; all these ornaments are carved in bas-relief. The king's arms are placed upon the entablature, in the centre, below the arch; they are carved into alto-relievo, and gilt. The drop curtain represents a grand national square, surrounded by the statues of military and naval officers, with characteristic basso-relievos. Standards taken from the foe appear suspended between the pillars of an open colonnade. A triumphal arch opens into the square, in the centre of which is a magnificent structure, encircled also with basso-relievos; and on a pedestal at the top of the dome stand three statues, representing the sister kingdoms pointing to their heroes, and their trophies of victory. The ventilator, which is the cap of the ceiling, is made upon an entirely new principle: instead of coming down, and forming a dark gap, as it did formerly, it is now level with the rest of the ceiling, and can be opened and shut at pleasure, according to the temperature of the house. The whole forms an union shield, the centre of which is the rose of England, encircled with the fleur-de-lis; and the other national ornaments are picked in with the union colours. The blue, which was found rather too dark at the first lighting up, has been softened, and now accords better with the general effect.

There are three tiers of boxes, which are disposed in a semicircular form, and afford a perfect view of the stage from every point. The front of the boxes was at first uniformly of a cream colour with Greek ornaments in gold upon a pink ground and gold mouldings. But at present, the ornament in the first circle of boxes consists of wreaths of oak, encircling the red and white rose; on the second circle is introduced the thistle, in octagon panels, with sprigs of oak in the spandrills; and on the third circle is the shamrock, impannelled by closely-woven laurel, and having sprigs of oak, as in the circle below. These ornaments are carved in bas-relief and gilt, and are laid on a ground of light stone-colour; they continue throughout each circle, separated only by small gilt pilasters, on which are carved a lion's head over a branch of palm, silvered on a panel of laurel foliage. These carry the columns, supporting each circle, which are of burnished silver. The horizontal mouldings on each circle are richly carved and gilt. The cushions and seats are scarlet, and the backs of the boxes are painted with a rich rose-coloured red. In each box there are three rows of seats, with light-blue coverings; but to the dress-boxes have been lately added an additional row of seats in the front; the basket boxes are consequently diminished, and thrown back. A skreen, to prevent the draught of air, has been made on each side. The three circles of  
boxes



Boxes are furnished with large chandeliers, elegantly mounted, made by Collins at Temple-bar: they are chaste and beautiful in their design, which appears to be after the style of Piranesi, forming a graceful canopy of the richest cut drops, of which there are at least five and twenty thousand: they were all modelled and cut for the purpose on an entire new fashion, and they produce a lustre almost equal to the diamond. The mountings are also costly and elegant, combining strength and beauty. They are forty in number, suspended from a rich silver bracket in front of the three tier of boxes and over the stage-doors; the latter are large and magnificent, bearing nine lights each; those in front of the boxes bear five and six lights each. The pit, besides its usual lateral passages, has two central ones, which extend through its whole length from the front boxes to the orchestra, an improvement, the advantage of which is most beneficially felt, both in egress and ingress, when the house is crowded. It ought also to be mentioned, that the seats in the pit are gradually elevated in a manner which greatly conduces to the convenience of the audience. The eye of each individual is raised so high, that the head of the person sitting before him will seldom intercept his view of the stage. The seats are twenty-five inches broad. The upper gallery is divided into five compartments, and may be thus considered a tier of five boxes, with a separate door at the back to each; these doors open into a spacious lobby, one side of which is the back of the gallery, and the other the exterior wall of the theatre, with the windows into the street. The lobby to the middle gallery beneath is similarly situated. One great advantage attends this construction; in summer, the doors of the galleries and the windows of the lobbies being left open, the audience in those parts cannot be oppressed by the heat, as in the former theatre. The flight of stairs to the upper gallery consists of 120 steps; and the number of bricks laid down in seven months amounted to seven millions; a circumstance which may afford an idea of the magnitude of the edifice, and the celerity with which it was built. The materials are of the best quality, and the building is most substantial and secure. Previous to its opening, its strength was tried by immense leaden weights placed on the several tiers, greatly exceeding the weight of the most crowded audience that could be compressed into the house, and yet the building did not in any point give way. In the construction of this splendid edifice, the calamitous fate of the late two great winter-theatres was not forgotten. Every means of safety against fire, or other accident, that ingenuity could devise, has been adopted. At all convenient intervals are strong party-walls, with iron doors, by which, if a fire were to break out, it would be confined within that particular compartment, and be prevented from spreading through the house. The fire-places are also made with the grates turning upon a pivot, by which means the front can be moved round to the back, and the fire is thus extinguished without the possibility of accident. Water-pipes are also insinuated into every part of the house, through which they are spread like veins through the human body. Great brass cocks, which, when turned, would pour the contents into the house, present themselves to the eye in the lobbies and other open places. We ought to have mentioned a very great improvement in the doors, which not only facilitates admission, but which affords the most satisfactory means of security, in case any accident should render the immediate evacuation of the theatre necessary: the doors, now, instead of opening backwards or forwards, upon touching a spring, slide laterally, and are wholly removed from the passages.

In spite of the late din of Bellona, the peaceful influences of Thalia and Melpomene have maintained their ascendancy in the British metropolis. The absurd modern dinner hours of 7, 8, and 9, o'clock, have doubtless interfered with the frequent attendance of the upper ranks at entertainments which take place between the hours of

six and eleven; yet two theatres, each capable of containing 3000 persons, are moderately filled, and often crowded, through a season of 200 playing nights. It is a prevailing weakness of mankind to depreciate the merit of every thing contemporary, and to refer all greatness to past ages. This prejudice tinctures the writings of dramatic not less than those of all other critics; yet we are convinced, that, in all the varied and essential features of dramatic entertainments, no age has approached the perfection of the present. We may not have as contemporaries a Shakespeare, an Otway, a Rowe, or a Congreve; neither were those men contemporaries of any single age; but we enjoy an equal degree of diverse genius in our contemporaries, Sheridan, Colman, Cumberland, O'Keefe, Dibdin, Tobin, Murphy, Inchbald, Cowley, Hoare, Morton, Holcroft, and Reynolds, names which characterize the age of George III. and which will be duly estimated by posterity when viewed in conjunction with their predecessors in the line presented by the common perspective of all past time. In like manner, if in regard to actors we do not enjoy the contemporaneous talents of such phenomena as Garrick, Booth, Cibber, Quin, Woodward, Foote, Shuter, Pritchard, and Clive; yet no age could boast in their respective lines of acting, of powers, greater than those exhibited by our own contemporaries—Henderfon, Kemble, Siddons, Edwin, Lewis, Munden, Fawcett, Cooke, Young, Farren, King, Bannister, Jordan, Emery, Matthews, Liston, Lovegrove, Elliott, and Kean. No single age ever possessed so great a variety of real excellence, or more originality, disciplined by education and by the improved taste of the public, which has reduced the business of the stage to the precision of a science. Greater public encouragement was certainly never bestowed on dramatic genius in all its departments, than in our days. Mr. Sheridan realized 3000l. by the sale only of his altered play of Pizarro; and authors of successful pieces receive from the theatre, from 250l. to 500l. and of the purchaser of the copy-right for publication, from 100l. to 400l. Each theatre employs as actors, artists, musicians, and mechanics, from 200 to 250 persons, at salaries, which vary from 30l. to 21. a week. Many favourite performers receive 50l. a night as often as they perform; and thirty or forty performers belonging to each house have benefit-nights, by which many of them net 5 or 600l. Nor are the liberal profits derived from the London boards the sole reward of favourite performers; for, during the summer recess, they make from 30l. to 100l. per week by engagements at various provincial theatres, many of which vie in size and splendour with the metropolitan establishments. The present theatres hold about 650l. each, and when crowded about 750l. The nightly expenses arising from salaries, and various incumbrances on the proprietors, are about 200l. so that, if the houses be taken at a mean of 400l. per night, the net profits of a season of 200 nights, can be little short of 40,000l. to the proprietors. Hence the reader will perceive, that, if dramatic genius were not respectable in the present day, it would not be for want of recompence; for the theatres in Goodman's Fields and Old Drury, in which Garrick acquired his fame and fortune, did not hold above 200l. and could not therefore be expected to net to the proprietors above 10,000l. per annum. And to go a little farther back, in the year 1731-2, the sum of ten or twelve thousand pounds was thought amply sufficient for building a new play-house; and the expected profits were about 3000l. per ann. See *Gent. Mag.* for Feb. 1732. and *Monthly Mag.* for June 1814.

We now come to Covent-Garden Market; and, had we the pen of the most elegant Persian poets, so fond of introducing flowers and fruit in their love-songs and erotic poetry; were we possessed of that glowing imagination with which they borrow similes from the daughters of the gardens to exemplify the sweet objects of their love; we could not give our readers an adequate idea of the aspect of this place at an early hour in the months of May, June, and



July. It seems as if Flora had transported thither the whole of her empire; and the perfumes of the divers fruits and flowers brought from under the dewy hands of morn, with all their native flavour and delightful bloom, is, without exaggeration, wafted by the rising zephyr to a great distance around.—We have sometimes surmised the presence of that combination of multifarious sweets from Temple Bar between four and five o'clock in the morning, when the wind blew gently from the west; and it reminded us of the pleasant groves of Portugal, Provence, Italy, and the Archipelago Islands. As an original description of this market will undoubtedly be relished by our readers, we shall endeavour to write it on the spot, as the present objects strike us, and the moving scene sets our mind also in sympathetic motion.

Approaching from Russel-street, we are at first invited to take a walk under the piazza, which extends from part of the east to nearly the whole northern side of the square. This piazza, which, we doubt not, the architect had in his mental view when he erected the Palais Royal at Paris, as it now stands, is a remaining proof of the skill of Inigo Jones, who here is more himself than where we mentioned him last. It was intended to go all round the square. Hotels, confectioners' shops, and auctioneers' rooms, occupy the ground-floor of the colonnade, if we may call it so, and add considerable life and agitation to the place. The south-east side of the market is occupied by the Hummums, a sort of bagnio, where, upon temporary emergencies, town and country gentlemen may find all sorts of accommodations consistent with morality and decency, if not more. The fourth side offers nothing worthy of our mention; but on the west we find the church of St. Paul, Covent-garden; for this distinctive appellation is generally and properly added, in order to prevent confusion. This church was erected by the earl of Bedford, for the use of his tenants, prior to the year 1638; in which year, as appears from a manuscript in the Harleian collection, a dispute between the earl and the vicar of St. Martin's in the Fields, relative to the right of patronage, was heard before the privy council; by whom it was determined, that it should be a chapel of ease to St. Martin's parish, until an act of parliament could be passed for making it parochial. After the settlement of this dispute, the chapel was consecrated by William Juxon, bishop of London, on the 27th of September in the same year. The unsettled period which followed prevented the passing of an act as agreed on; however, on the 7th of January, 1645, the lords and commons, sitting at Westminster, issued an ordinance, whereby it was separated from St. Martin's, and constituted an independent parish, with power to elect officers, and raise money for the necessary expenses of the new establishment. But, this being an illegal ordinance, an act of parliament was obtained immediately after the restoration of Charles II. for the same purpose, by which the patronage of it was vested in the earl of Bedford, his heirs and assigns.

This church is remarkable for its majestic simplicity. It is said, on the authority of lord Oxford, that, when the earl engaged Inigo Jones to build it, he told him that the parishioners had long importuned him with begging for a church, "were it even as plain as a barn." To which the architect replied, "Well, then, they shall have the handsomest barn in England." In the front is a plain but noble portico, of the Tuscan order, executed in the most masterly manner; the columns are massy, and the intercolumniation large. Though as plain as possible, the building is happily proportioned. The walls are of brick, but were cased with stone about the year 1783, at an expense of eleven thousand pounds, including the other repairs at that time. The windows are of the Tuscan order, to correspond with the portico; and the altar-piece is adorned with eight fluted columns of the Corinthian order. The roof was entirely of wood, and considered a most inimitable piece of architecture, being supported by the walls alone. Unfortunately this was destroyed by a

fire, which consumed the whole interior of the church on the 17th of September, 1795; since which it has been repaired, and is very little different from its original appearance. The patron of this parish enjoys the unusual privilege of nominating a churchwarden; the rector nominates another, and the parishioners elect a third.

In front of this church, whenever an election of members to serve in parliament for the city of Westminster takes place, temporary hustings are erected, wherefrom pledges of honour, of impartiality, and of patriotism chiefly, are verbally given to the gaping constituents and the multitude attending the ceremony—where the most gross abuse flies from the mouths, and sometimes the hands, of the liberty-boys and democracy-mad populace, to the very face and ears of the patient candidates, who, like martyrs in their agonies, bear the cruelty of their tormentors with cheerfulness and good grace, in hopes of obtaining the crown of victory. *Chairing* is a ceremony often performed round the market and adjacent streets, when, after a strenuous opposition and a labouring poll, some favourite of the free people is carried in a chair upon the shoulders of the mob; a scene not peculiar to Westminster, and so well represented by the celebrated Hogarth, that we need only refer our readers to it. From these hustings the populace generally repair to their public breakfasts, dinners, and other entertainments offered to the independent electors as far as can be done *circa* the limits of "bribery and corruption." And then we are reminded of what Montesquieu in his *Esprit des Loix*, tells us about "a people who are never free but one fortnight in seven years, and then do not know how to use their liberty:" an observation the depth of which is astonishing in a *foreign* author, and ought to have been made by a countryman of Locke. Yet justice compels us to own, that our best historian, and our best commentator on the English laws, were both Frenchmen. It is curious to remark, that the light and volatile spirits of that nation will sometimes take the trouble of thinking for others, when they generally shrink from the task of thinking for themselves.

Within the square is held the market for vegetables, flowers, and fruit; and it is indisputably the best for those articles in the metropolis. Several rows of booths and shops are erected transversely from north to south and from east to west. The herb-shops, and higher class of fruiterers, whose windows often exhibit the anticipated produce of summer in spring, and the hastened treasures of autumn at the beginning of summer, occupy the fourth row, with two or three delightful nursery-like shops for living plants, blowing and blossoming opposite to them; and where the decent matron purchases beauties to adorn her drawing-room; the humble mechanic mignonet and sweet-williams to decorate the little garden at the front of his house; and the Cyprian, a well-known index to her apartments in setting-off her window with flower-pots. This last custom, it is worthy of remark, was known so early as the times of Horace and Juvenal. The west side is occupied by flowers and nosegay-sellers; the north is more particularly devoted to roots and larger sorts of kitchen-garden produce, as cabbages, carrots, cauliflowers, artichokes, &c. whilst the east seems to have appropriated to itself the department of smaller merchandise, as peas and beans in their season, cherries and strawberries in their turn, &c. The centre (by what sort of accident and incongruous association, we cannot guess) is filled up with bird-sellers, dealers in old iron, and large displays of crockery-ware.

The place whereon the greatest part of the church and market is situated, was anciently a large garden, belonging to the abbot and convent of Westminster; whence it received the appellation of the Convent Garden, which it still retains, with a trifling variation. At the suppression of the religious houses by Henry VIII. this garden devolved to the crown; and, in the year 1547, Edward VI. conferred it upon the duke of Somerset. Upon his attainer, it returned into the hands of the king; who, on the



the 9th of May, 1552, granted it, with a field on the north side, denominated the Seven Acres, though, from its length, more commonly called the Long Acres, to John earl of Bedford. Long Acre is now a handsome street, abounding with coach-makers.—Soon after Edward had granted the precinct of Covent-garden to the earl of Bedford, he built a house therein for his town residence. This house, which, till the year 1704, stood on the north side of the Strand, where at present the lower end of Southampton-street is situated, was a mean wooden building, shut out from the street by a brick wall, and with a garden behind, under the north wall of which the market was kept; but, when Southampton-street, Tavistock-street, and Maiden-lane, were erected on the site of Bedford-house and gardens, the market was moved farther into the square.

Coming down again into the Strand, through Catharine-street, we turn west toward Exeter 'Change. Where Doiley's warehouse now stands, was a large mansion, erected by sir Edward Cecil, son of the first earl of Exeter, who was, by Charles I. created Viscount Wimbledon and Baron Putney. Stow, in his *Annales*, p. 1044, says, that it was burned quite down in November 1623; and that the day before his lordship had the misfortune of having part of his house at Wimbledon, in Surry, blown up by gunpowder. At the back of Doiley's, toward Exeter-street, there were formerly ruins, which were probably once a part of Wimbledon-house.—There have been few shops in the metropolis that have acquired more celebrity than Doiley's warehouse; which induces us to go a little into the history of it, indeed as far as the tradition of the neighbourhood has furnished us with the means. We have been told, that the original founder of the house (who probably was a refugee that, after the revocation of the edict of Nantz, sought an asylum in this kingdom) formed a connexion in the weaving-branch of business with some persons in Spital-fields, whose manufactures, most judiciously fostered by government, and most patriotically encouraged by the nobility, &c. were just then ascending toward that eminence which they afterward attained. Doiley was a man, it is said, of great ingenuity; and probably having also the best assistance, he invented, fabricated, and introduced, a variety of stuffs, some of which were new, and all such as had never been seen in this kingdom. He combined the different articles, silk and woollen, and spread them into such an infinite number of forms and patterns, that his shop became a mart of taste, and his goods, when first issued, the height of fashion. To this the *Spectator* alludes in one of his papers, when he says to this effect, viz. that, "if Doiley had not, by his ingenious inventions, enabled us to dress our wives and daughters in cheap stuffs, we should not have had the means to carry on the war."—In another paper, the gentleman that was so fond of striking bold strokes in dress characteristically observes, "A few months after I brought up the modish jacket, or the coat with close sleeves. I struck this first in a plain Doiley; but, that failing, I struck it a second time in blue camlet;" which also was one of Doiley's stuffs.—In Vanbrugh's *Provok'd Wife*, the scene Spring Gardens, Lady Fanciful says to Mademoiselle, pointing to Lady Brute and Belinda; "I fear those Doiley stuffs are not worn for the want of better clothes."—This warehouse was equally famous, indeed, in our very early times; it was the grand emporium for gentlemen's night-gowns and caps. In the former part of the eighteenth century, all the beaux that used to breakfast in the coffee-houses appendant to the inns of court struck their morning strokes in this elegant dishabille, which was carelessly confined by a fash of yellow, red, blue, green, &c. according to the taste of the wearer; these were also of Doiley's manufacture. This idle fashion was not quite worn out even in the year 1765; we can remember having seen some of those early loungers, in their night-gowns, caps, &c. at Will's, (Lincoln's-inn-gate, Serle-street,) about that period.

It appears, by the plan of London published in the year 1600, that the great width of the Strand lay before the (at that time) magnificent palace of Somerfet-house; which width continued exactly as it does at present, to the buildings of the earl of Exeter, the wall of whose court made the same angle as is now to be observed at the corner of Polito's Menagerie. The ground behind the adjoining houses, and extending to the backs of those on the fourth side of Exeter-street, for a great number of years lay entirely waste. When the surveyors, appointed by Messrs. Garrick and Lacey to examine Old Drury, reported that that theatre was in a very infirm state, they contemplated the purchase of this ground in order to erect a new one upon it. But whether the two managers wanted to make too good a bargain, or the proprietor had too great an idea of its value; or whether, upon a closer inspection, they found, by lightening the upper works and extending the lower, (that is, taking off half the shilling-gallery and adding it to the boxes, thus inverting the column of society and placing the capital at the base,) Drury, as Quidnunc says, "would last their time," is uncertain; but certain it is, that the negotiation failed; and, although they did not wish to pull an old house over their heads, still they thought the chance of it was a less evil than the risk of building a new one: they therefore, by the help of propping, patching, and plastering, supported, in its declining state, the old fabric which had long supported them.

Upon the incorporation of the Society of Artists in 1765, a part of the ground that we have mentioned was taken by James Paine, esq. who had just then finished Salisbury-street, and who built upon it that elegant fabric which is now the LYCEUM. This was intended for an academy and exhibition-room to anticipate the royal establishment then in contemplation; and we think that there were several annual exhibitions in it. To erect this building the last vestiges of Exeter-house were demolished. These consisted of a large room, and one or two smaller, which had been used for a variety of purposes. As, for instances; one time, in an evening, a square paper lantern, in illuminated characters, informed the public, that books, &c. were to be sold by auction; at another, the ingenious Mr. Flockton, with a brazen trumpet and a brazen face, announced that the facetious Mr. Punch and his merry family were ready to receive company of any description. This room had first been used as a Roman-catholic private chapel; and in our own times had, we think, been a receptacle of wild beasts, a school of defence, the audience-chamber of those beautiful Houynhms the panther mare and colt, the apartment wherein the white negro girl and the porcupine man held their levees; and, in short, applied to many other purposes equally extraordinary.—The Lyceum itself, to come to our own time, has been employed for various purposes, having had no fixed designation. In the year 1789, the veteran Dibdin (lately deceased) first occupied a part of it, where he produced his *Whim of the Moment*, the first of a series of entertainments of a similar kind (under other names and at different places), of which the whole was written and composed, recited and sung, by himself. Here he produced his *Poor Jack*, his *Greenwich Pensioner*, *Chelsea Pensioner*, and many more of the best songs in the English language; and some persons will still contrast the excellence of these songs with the trifling (not to say despicable) nature of the recitations by which they were strung together and introduced.—This place has been more recently used for exhibitions of views on the panorama principle, *Monf. Philippsall's Phantasmagoria*, and other marvellous shows. It was occupied by the Drury-lane company while that theatre lay in its ashes; and at present it is fitted up for the performance of English operas, under the direction of Mr. Arnold, son of the late sound musician, Dr. Arnold.

Exeter 'Change was erected as a new mart for millinery, clothes, trinkets, hangings, books, &c. with an intention



tention to rival, or rather to supplant, the Bourse of Britain, or New Exchange, the building of which is noticed a little farther on. At any rate it has survived it. It was originally a handsome building, with an arcade in front, and two ranges or stories of shops, one above the other. But, as the plan did not succeed so well as might have been expected, the arcades were filled up, and the place now contains two rows of dark shops, principally for hardware, with a paved passage between them. The upper story is chiefly used as lodgings for the shopkeepers; and at the east end is an exhibition of living subjects of natural history. On this spot formerly stood the parsonage-house of the parish of St. Martin; but Sir Thomas Palmer, a dependent of the protector Somerset, emulating the example of his patron, obtained it by composition, and began to erect a stately mansion of brick and timber. This afterwards came into the hands of the lord-treasurer Burleigh, who finished it in a very magnificent manner, and adorned it with four square turrets. He died here in 1598; after which it descended to his son, and took the name of Exeter House from his title.—The passage, as it now stands, is much frequented, particularly in showery weather, and being at all times a pleasanter road than the narrow part of the Strand outside, which now remains to remind us of what the path by St. Clement's once was. The shops, or stalls as some are so rude as to call them, are very smart; and a great deal of money is taken there. The congregation above, under the direction and correction of Mr. Polito, is at times rather noisy, and becomes a nuisance to the sedentary shopwoman below.

Opposite to Exeter 'Change, a passage with steps leads us to the old Savoy palace, the ruins of which are still extant. We have often, for more than twenty years, taken great pleasure in pacing the remains of this ancient place. The contrast arising from the stately and solid edifice of Somerset-house and of the Adelphi Terrace, and the fallen grandeur of the Savoy, when seen on an evening from the water, brings to the mind a melancholy train of ideas upon the subject of transactions long gone by, and by most people forgotten. Some of these transactions we must endeavour to renew in the mind of the reader, by the history of this celebrated palace. It was named, records say, from Peter earl of Savoy and Richmond, who built it about the year 1245, and afterwards transferred it to the Friars of Montjoy; of whom queen Eleanor, the wife of Henry III. purchased it for her son, Henry duke of Lancaster. The duke, in 1328, enlarged and beautified it, at the expense of fifty-two thousand marks; and so superb was it, at that time, as to exceed in magnificence every other structure in the kingdom. In this palace John king of France resided, when a prisoner in England in the year 1357, as also on his return thither in the year 1363. In 1381, this stately palace, with all its furniture, was destroyed by the Kentish rebels; but, the ground devolving to the crown, Henry VII. began to rebuild it in the manner it now appears, as an hospital for the reception of one hundred distressed objects. He says, in his will, he intended, by this foundation, "to do and execute VI out of the VII works of pitie and mercy, by means of keeping, susteynyng, and mayntenyng, of common hospitallis; wherein, if they be duly kept, the said nede pover people bee lodged, visited in their sicknesses, refreshed with mete and drinke, and, if nede be, with clothe, and also buried, yf thei fourtune to die within the same; for lack of theim, infinite nombre of pover nede people miserably daillie die, no man putting hande of helpe or remedie." That prince, however, not living to see it completed, his son Henry VIII. in the year 1511, not only granted his manor of the Savoy to the bishop of Winchester, and others, executors of his father's will, towards finishing the hospital; but by his charter, dated July 5, 1513, constituted them a body politic and corporate, to consist of a master, five secular chaplains, and four regulars, in honour of Jesus Christ, the Virgin Mary, and St. John the Baptist; and at the

same time directed, that the foundation should be called, "The Hospital of King Henry VII. late King of England, of the Savoy." This hospital was suppressed in the reign of Edward VI. when the revenues amounted to 529l. 15s. 7d. per annum; which, with all its furniture, that prince gave to the citizens of London, towards the new foundations of Bridewell and St. Thomas's Hospitals. Upon the demise of Edward, his sister Mary re-founded this hospital, and endowed it anew; when her ladies and maids of honour completely furnished it with all necessaries, at their own expense; but it was again suppressed on the accession of Elizabeth to the crown. At present, the Savoy is the property of the crown; an act of resumption having passed in the 4th and 5th of William and Mary. Part of it is used as habitations and warehouses for private people, and part as a prison for deserters from the army, and other military offenders. Here is also the ancient chapel belonging to the hospital, which was originally dedicated to St. John the Baptist; but, when the old church of St. Mary-le-Strand was destroyed by the protector Somerset, the inhabitants of that parish united themselves to those of the precinct of the Savoy; and, this chapel being consequently used as their parish-church, it acquired the name of St. Mary-le-Savoy. This structure, being built of squared stone and boulder, in the Gothic style, has an aspect of great antiquity. Contrary to the general construction of religious edifices, its greatest length is north and south; and the altar is placed at the north end. The roof is remarkably fine, being adorned with carved figures of the Holy Lamb, shields of arms, and other decorations, within elegant circular compartments. It was completely repaired in the year 1721, at the expense of king George I. who also inclosed the burial-ground with a wall; and it has been repaired and beautified within a few years. There are many ancient monuments in this chapel, some of which are very magnificent. This precinct is extra-parochial, and the right of presentation to the chapel is in the lord high-treasurer, or the commissioners for executing that office.—Within the Savoy are also two German chapels: a Lutheran, in which is a very fine organ with pedals; and a Calvinist.

Farther to the west, on the same bank of the river, are wharfs for coals, which waggons with long teams of horses bring up to the Strand, wherefrom they deal them out chiefly in the western part of the town. There we find also a small neat place called Beaufort Buildings, of some notoriety in the latter end of the last century, where for a few years Mr. Thelwall gave proofs of his democratic eloquence to a numerous assembly, till a bill of parliament put an end to these patriotic conventicles, and "all was hushed." On the site of Beaufort Buildings was formerly the mansion-house of the earls of Worcester. Speaking of this place, Pennant says, "The earls of Worcester had a very large house, between Durham-place and the Savoy, with gardens to the water-side. The great earl of Clarendon lived in it before his own was built, and paid for it the extravagant rent of five hundred pounds a-year. This was pulled down by their descendant, the duke of Beaufort; and the present Beaufort Buildings rose on its site. This had originally been the town-house of the bishops of Carlisle."

Immediately after quitting the duchy of Lancaster, which we have just surveyed, and several parts adjoining to it, we enter the large parish of St. Martin, once in the fields, but now nearly in the centre of what is generally called the west end of the town, and which in ancient times included the whole liberty of Westminster.—This famous convent had under its direction, and indeed in its possession, the whole of Thorney, Charing, and all the adjacent places, down to their garden on the borders of the duchy. St. Martin's was at first a fort of chapel of ease, where the monks performed mass for the inhabitants of the neighbourhood; and, these having considerably increased, and the parish displayed itself to a great extent, it generated, in course of time, other parishes. St. James, St. George,



George, St. Anne, and St. Paul, are offsprings of St. Martin.

Cecil-street, as we mentioned before, is the western boundary of the duchy of Lancaster; and built upon the site of Great Salisbury House, a memento of which remains in Salisbury-street. Adjoining to it was, on the west, Durham House, built by Thomas Hatfield, bishop of Durham in 1345; but, according to others, it was built originally by Anthony de Beck, patriarch of Jerusalem, and bishop of Durham, in the reign of Edward I. and designed by him for the town-residence of him and his successors; and was rebuilt by Hatfield in 1381. In the 26th of Henry VIII. bishop Tonstal conveyed this house to the king, and received, in exchange, Cold-Harborough, and other houses in London. About the second year of his reign, Edward VI. gave Durham House to his sister Elizabeth, for life. Queen Mary, however, restored it to the see, by granting the reversion to the bishop; and, upon the death of Elizabeth, Toby Mathew, the then bishop, afterwards archbishop of York, entered into possession of it, under the authority of an opinion of the judges, against the claim of sir Walter Raleigh, to whose use it was granted by queen Elizabeth. In 1640, it was purchased of the see by the earl of Pembroke, who pulled it down, and converted it into a range of buildings and wharfs, which were called by the general name of Durham-yard.

These buildings having become very ruinous, three brothers of the name of Adam, purchased the ground, and covered it with a magnificent mass of buildings, which, in honour of their fraternal partnership, was called the ADELPHI, the Greek word for *brothers*. In the year 1773, the whole was disposed of by lottery, the tickets in which fold for fifty pounds each. The great descent to the river, that ran down Durham-yard, is entirely removed by these buildings being raised on strong lofty arches. Fronting the Thames is a most beautiful row of houses, before which is a spacious terrace, secured by very handsome iron rails. At the east end of the Terrace is Adam-street, which communicates with the Strand. John-street extends between the river and the Strand, parallel to the Terrace; and leads to York Buildings. In this street is a very handsome edifice, used by the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce. The exterior is in a noble style of architecture; but that is in a great measure lost from its being of brick, ornamented with stone, a mixture inconsistent with grandeur. The interior is peculiarly elegant, and very commodious for the uses of the society; the chief objects of which are, to promote the arts, manufactures, and commerce, of this kingdom, by giving premiums for all useful inventions, discoveries, and improvements; and, in pursuance of this plan, the society has already expended near fifty thousand pounds, advanced by voluntary subscriptions of their members, and legacies bequeathed. The society distributes premiums for any new discovery in agriculture, chemistry, dyeing, mineralogy, the polite arts, manufactures, and mechanics; also premiums for the advantage of British colonies, and for the settlements in the East Indies, and a correspondence in each branch is maintained; and the Transactions of the society are published annually. But that which characterises this building, and has rendered it and the society to which it belongs, celebrated on the continent, is the great room of the society. This is a finely-proportioned apartment, being forty-seven feet in length, forty-two feet in breadth, and forty feet in height. It is lighted at the top by a dome. The walls are ornamented with a series of exquisite pictures, by the late Mr. Barry, designed to illustrate this maxim, "That the attainment of happiness, individual and public, depends on the cultivation of the human faculties." The first picture represents Mankind in a Savage State, with its attendant misery; the second, a Grecian Harvest-home, or a thanksgiving to Ceres and Bacchus; the third, the Victors at the Olympic Games; the fourth, Navigation; the fifth, the Society of Arts, &c. and the last, Elysium, or the state of final retribution. These pictures are among the chief orna-

ments of this capital, whether national or foreign; and, to the honour of our country, are the production of the English school. The Society for the Encouragement of Arts, &c. was instituted in 1753. The idea was suggested by Mr. Shipley, an ingenious artist, and eagerly patronized by the late lord Folkestone and the late lord Romney. The institution consists of a president, twelve vice-presidents, various officers, and an indefinite number of subscribers, it being supported solely by voluntary subscriptions. Among many liberal rules of this society, there is one of peculiar merit, by which strangers are permitted to be present at the sittings of the society, on the introduction of members; the stranger's name being proposed for that purpose, and no objection made.

Nearly opposite to this building is Robert-street, leading to the west end of the Terrace. The end and central houses of the Terrace are particularly handsome, and are distinguished by being ornamented with pilasters and cornices of artificial stone. The centre-house is still occupied by the reliet of our famous actor David Garrick—the is 90 years of age, and enjoys all her faculties.

The vaults under the houses are very extensive, and are converted into ranges of warehouses, coach-houses, and stables, with proper subterraneous communications between, lighted from the back yards of the houses above. From the old entrance to Durham-yard is a wide passage for carriages, under the houses, down to these warehouses, and to a spacious wharf below the Terrace; and there is another entrance that opens to the street, on the side next York Buildings. The summits of the arches, fronting the river, are adapted as counting-houses for the warehouses below, or as kitchens to the houses above.

From this Terrace, Westminster-bridge on the right, Blackfriars on the left, exhibit a charming view; and the rising STRAND-BRIDGE in its embryo shape, with its timber erections waiting to receive the stone-work—its fire-engines putting wheels in rattling motion night and day to dry the bottoms of the dams—presents a most interesting aspect. This bridge, which is now constructing in the form of the ancient Roman bridges, that is, entirely flat from one end to the other, will be, when completed, the largest upon the Thames, and perhaps in the world. It is to consist of nine arches, all of equal size: their elliptical form, which can already be seen from Blackfriars-bridge and other parts near it, will be an ornament to the metropolis; and its utility very considerable.—We are happy to have it in our power to gratify our readers with an exact representation of this bridge, engraved after a drawing with which we have been favoured by Mr. Rennie himself, as well as with the dimensions of the different parts of this majestic building.—They are as follow: Nine arches, each 120 feet span; the piers, each 20 feet thick. Width of the bridge, with the parapets, 42 feet; of the foot-path, 7 feet; of the road-way, 28 feet. Height of columns, including capital, 26 feet; capital of columns, 2 feet 9 inches; diameter of column, at top 4 feet 4 inches, at bottom 5 feet 8½ inches. Height of the cornice above the columns, 9 feet; height of the parapets, including blocking, 5 feet 6 inches. Depth of arch-stones, at top 5, at bottom 10. See Plate VII n.

The ceremony of laying the first stone was performed on the 11th of October, 1811. Several gold and silver coins of the present reign were deposited underneath, and covered with a plate of block-tin, bearing the following inscription: "This Foundation-stone of the Strand-bridge was laid on Friday the 11th day of October, A.D. 1811, by the directors for executing the same; Henry Swann, Esq. M.P. Chairman; in the 51st year of the reign of King George III. and during the Regency of H. R. H. George prince of Wales. The money for building which was raised by Subscription under the authority of an Act of Parliament. John Rennie, Architect."—This will open an excellent communication from the Strand and the west and north of the town to Southwark, and the whole county of Surry. The north abutment will



be nearly level with the Strand; but the fourth end will require a long slope to make an easy ascent. The ornaments will consist of a couple of Tuscan columns before each pier; and the balusters will be executed in the most elegant manner. We are sorry that some very preponderant reasons weigh against ornamenting our bridges with the statues of our heroes and worthies; and we hope to see these reasons soon removed.

Between Durham-house and the Strand, was the old stabling belonging to the mansion, which being a great eye-sore in so conspicuous a situation, Robert earl of Salisbury, lord high treasurer to James I. purchased it, and, under the auspices of his royal master, in the year 1608, erected a magnificent stone building upon the site, nearly on a similar plan to that of the Royal Exchange; there being an open paved walk, with rows of shops below and above, and cellars beneath. When this building was finished, the king, attended by the royal family, and many lords and ladies of his court, honoured its opening with their presence, and bestowed on it the name of *Britain's Bourse*, which was afterwards changed to that of the *New Exchange*. The building was taken down in the year 1737, and a handsome and uniform row of houses erected in its stead, which form a part of the street.

Westward from the Adelphi are several streets, which are included under the denomination of York Buildings, from having been built upon the site of the town mansion of the archbishops of York. This had originally belonged to the bishops of Norwich; but, about the year 1556, Nicholas Heath, archbishop of York, purchased it for the use of himself and his successors, in consequence of Whitehall, their ancient palace, having been sold by Wolfsey to Henry VIII. Mathew Toby, who had before exchanged Durham-house with the crown, also exchanged this, and received several manors in lieu of it. After this, it was granted to Villiers duke of Buckingham, whose son George disposed of it to builders; and they converted it into streets and alleys, in which his name and title are still preserved; they being called George-street, Villiers-street, Duke-street, Of-alley, and Buckingham-street.

At the bottom of these streets, next the river, is a neat gravelled walk, or terrace, for the inhabitants and their children to promenade in. There is a lodge at one end of it, where a porter is kept, to open and shut the gates, and to prevent the intrusion of improper company. This post was enjoyed for many years by Mr. Hugh Hewson, a man of no mean celebrity, though no funeral escutcheons adorned his hearse, or heir expectant graced his obsequies. He was no less a personage than the identical Hugh Strap, whom Dr. Smollett has rendered so conspicuously interesting in his *Life of Roderic Random*. He had kept a barber's shop in the parish of St. Martin for more than forty years. He was a very intelligent man, and took delight in recounting the adventures of his early life. He spoke with pleasure of the time he passed in the service of the doctor; and it was his pride, as well as boast, to say that he had been educated in the same seminary with so distinguished a character. His shop was hung round with Latin quotations; and he would frequently point out to his customers and acquaintances the several scenes in *Roderic Random*, relating to himself, which had their foundation, not in the doctor's inventive fancy, but in truth and reality. The meeting in a barber's shop at Newcastle-upon-Tyne, the subsequent mistake at the inn, their arrival together in London, and the assistance they experienced from Strap's friend, were all of that description. We understand, that Hewson left behind him an interlined copy of *Roderic Random*, pointing out these facts, showing how far they were indebted to the genius of the doctor, and to what extent they were founded in reality. He could never succeed in gaining more than a bare subsistence by his trade; but he possessed an independence of mind superior to his humble condition. At length he gained this retreat, where he continued to be much re-

spected; and where he tranquilly ended his days in the month of March, 1809, at the ripe age of eighty-five.

From this terrace there is a very elegant stone gate to the stairs. The design of this gate is greatly admired, and is every way worthy of its architect, Inigo Jones. It is of the Tuscan order, and ornamented with rustic work. The stairs have fallen into disuse within the last twenty years, from the causeway to them having been so long neglected, as to render the approach of boats almost impossible, except at high water. Near these stairs, at the bottom of Villiers-street, is the machinery of the York-buildings Water-works. The company to whom it belongs, were incorporated by act of parliament in the year 1691.

Hungerford Stairs lie a little farther west, and below the market of that name. Several boats ply there, in order to "waft over the gentle waves" the calculating man, who finds that a hackney-coach would cost him three times as much to jolt him as far as Blackfriars-bridge.—The market is not handsome, but some good shops and thriving stalls are to be found there.—In this place was anciently a large house and garden belonging to the Hungerfords of Fairleigh in Wiltshire. In the reign of Charles II. sir Edward pulled down the family-mansion, and converted it into several buildings, and among them this market, which, from its proximity to the Thames, and the conveniency of the stairs for gardeners to land their goods at, was principally designed as a market for vegetables: the plan, however, failed, and the market never flourished. Here is a good market-house; and on the north side of it is still remaining a bust of one of the Hungerfords, in a large wig.

The north side of the Strand does not furnish us with any interesting object from Exeter 'Change down to Charing Cross. Many very handsome shops—Southampton-street, that leads to Covent-garden—Bedford-street, whose entrance is steep and narrow—the little theatre called Sans Pareil, created and almost entirely supported by Miss Scott, a young lady of multifarious talent, a poetess and an actress, and the very *genie* of the place—these are the only objects of attention on that part of the Strand.—Behind these, farther on the north, are Maiden-lane, well-known for a cellar where every one, for a few pence, is entered in a book as a member of a society, which is now so extensive that it loses its characteristics—and farther on, Chandos-street, well known also for the Society of the Eccentrics, who held their evening meetings there for many years, and used to amuse themselves and their visitors with all that extempore wit can produce. We shall not mention a notorious establishment which even the flames of a conflagration could not burn out of the place, but, like a deep-rooted disease, baffled the skill of the physician, and re-appears. A Key to what we mean will be found at p. 142.

Chandos-street leads us to St. Martin's lane, which has its principal opening at the west end of the Strand, opposite to Northumberland-house. The origin of St. Martin's church is nearly as ancient as the convent of Westminster, and is connected with the history of it: but we have, on that account, very little upon record. We find, however, that in 1222 there was a serious contention between the abbot of Westminster and the bishop of London, who claimed the jurisdiction of it; but the abbot and monks retained the disputed patronage till the time of Henry VIII. when the endowments of the church shared the fate of the monastery to which it was attached. A small church was built there at the king's expense; but, this structure not being capacious enough to accommodate the parishioners, it was greatly enlarged in 1607, by the addition of a spacious chancel, which was erected at the expense of prince Henry (son of James I.) and some of the nobility. At length, after many expensive repairs, the whole of that building was taken down in 1721, and soon after the first stone of the present edifice was laid. Five years completed the work, and in 1726 it was consecrated. On lay-



ing the first stone, his majesty king George I. gave one hundred guineas, to be distributed among the workmen; and some time after, he also gave fifteen hundred pounds to purchase an organ, which has been lately replaced by a new one, not so good as the old one. The whole expense of building and decorating this church, amounted to 60,891l. 10s. 4d. of which, 33,450l. were granted by parliament, and the rest raised by voluntary subscriptions, added to the above royal benefaction. The church of St. Martin in the Fields is a very elegant edifice, built with stone. In the west front is an ascent, by a long flight of steps, to a very noble portico of Corinthian columns, that support a pediment, in which are the royal arms in bas-relief. The same order is continued round in pilasters; and in the intercolumniations are two series of windows, surrounded with rustic. The doors on the sides are near the corners, and are ornamented with lofty Corinthian columns: the roof is concealed by a handsome balustrade, and the spire is stately and elegant. The decorations within are extremely beautiful; the roof is richly adorned with fret-work; slender Corinthian columns, raised on high pedestals, in the front of the galleries, serve to support both them and the roof, which, on the sides, rests upon them in a very ornamented arch-work. The east end is richly adorned with fret-work and gilding, and over the altar is a large window finely painted. With respect to this edifice, the author of the *Critical Review* remarks, that it would be a great advantage to the building, if the front were laid open to the Mews. "The portico," says he, "is at once elegant and august; and if the steps, rising from the street to the front, could have been made regular, and on a line from end to end, it would have given it a very considerable grace; but, as the situation of the ground would not allow it, this is to be esteemed a misfortune rather than a fault. The round columns at each angle of the church are well contrived, and have a very fine effect in the profile of the building; the east end is remarkably elegant, and very justly challenges a particular applause." In the steeple of this church is a ring of bells greatly admired for the harmony of their found. The church is a vicarage, the patronage of which is in the gift of the bishop of London.

At the south-west corner of the Strand, opposite to the end of St. Martin's lane, stands Northumberland-house, which was erected on the site of the hospital of St. Mary Rounceval, a cell to the priory of the same name in Navarre, founded and endowed by the earl of Pembroke in the reign of Henry III. This hospital was suppressed, with other alien-priorities, by Henry V. but was re-founded, in 1476, by Edward IV. After the general suppression of religious houses, Edward VI. in the year 1549, granted the chapel, with its appurtenances, to sir Thomas Cawarden. After this, it came into the possession of Henry Howard earl of Northampton, who, in the reign of James I. erected three sides of the quadrangle. After the death of this nobleman, it became the property of his relation, the earl of Suffolk, and was then known by the name of Suffolk-house. In the reign of Charles I. Algernon earl of Northumberland, lord high admiral, married the daughter of the earl of Suffolk, and, about the year 1642, became the proprietor of this house; from which time it has borne its present name. This earl, finding it inconvenient to reside in the apartments built by lord Northampton, on account of their nearness to the street, completed the quadrangle by building the fourth or south side, which is at such a distance from the street as to avoid the noise of the carriages, &c. and enjoy all the advantages of retirement. This part was built under the direction of Inigo Jones, as the other three sides had been under that of Bernard Janßen. The front, next the street, was begun to be rebuilt by Algernon duke of Somerset, who became possessed of it in 1743, in right of his mother, the daughter and heiress of the earl of Northumberland; and from him it descended to his son-in-law and daughter, the late duke and duchess of Northumberland, by

whom the new front was completed, and such improvements made, as have rendered this building an object of admiration for its elegance and grandeur.

The front of this building, next the street, is exceedingly magnificent. In the centre of it is a grand arched gate, the piers of which are continued to the top of the building, with niches on each side of the ground, decorated with carvings, in a sort of Gothic style. They are connected at the top, by uniting to form an arch in the centre, opening from the top of the house to a circular balcony, standing on a small bow-window over the gate beneath. Over the arch, on a pedestal, is a lion in stone, the crest of the duke of Northumberland's arms. The building, on each side the centre, is of brick, containing two series of regular windows, five on each side, over a like series of niches on the ground story. At each extremity is a tower, with rustic stone corners, containing one window each in front, corresponding with the building. These towers rise above the rest of the front, first with an arched window, above that a port-hole window, and the top is terminated with a dome, crowned with a vane. The centre is connected with the turrets over the building, by a breast-work of solid piers, and open lattice-work, alternately, corresponding with the windows beneath, which have stone-work under them, carved in like manner. The four sides of the inner court are faced with Portland-stone; and the two wings, which extend from the garden-front towards the river, are above one hundred feet in length. The principal door of the house opens to a vestibule, about eighty-two feet long, and upwards of twelve feet wide, ornamented with columns of the Doric order. Each end of it communicates with a stair-case leading to the principal apartments, which face the garden. They consist of several spacious rooms, fitted up in the most elegant manner: the ceilings are embellished with copies of antique paintings, or fine ornaments of stucco, richly gilt: the chimney-pieces are of curious marble, carved and finished in the most correct taste: the rooms are hung either with beautiful tapestry or the richest damasks; magnificently furnished with large glasses, settees, marble tables, &c. with frames of exquisite workmanship, richly gilt. They also contain a great variety of pictures, executed by the most distinguished masters, particularly Raphael, Titian, Paul Veronese, Salvator Rosa, Rubens, Vandyke, &c. Among these is the Cornaro family, painted by Titian, which was sold to Algernon earl of Northumberland, in the reign of Charles I. by Vandyke, for one thousand guineas. In some of the rooms are large chests, embellished with old genuine Japan, which being great rarities, are esteemed invaluable. The gallery, or ball-room, in the east wing, is decorated in a very elegant manner. It is one hundred and six feet long, and twenty-seven feet wide. The ceiling is carved and ornamented with figures and festoons, richly gilt. The flat part of the ceiling is divided into five compartments, ornamented with fine imitations of some antique figures; particularly, Fame, blowing a trumpet; a Diana; a Triumphant Car, drawn by two horses; a Flora; and a Victory, holding out a wreath of laurel. The entablature is Corinthian, and of most exquisite workmanship. The garden lies between the house and the Thames; and, with a little expense, might have a terrace-walk on the bank of the river, equal, in the extent and beauty of its prospect, to either Somerset-house or the Adelphi. Some years back it was hoped that this improvement would have taken place, the duke having obtained all the ground from the garden to the river from the crown, in exchange for lands in Northumberland, which were wanted for the erection of batteries to protect that coast.

From Hungerford Market, behind Northumberland House, is a way to Whitehall, well known to those who wish, by threading narrow streets, passages, and alleys, to make the best use of their time, and to spare their legs. There we find Scotland-yard, which derives its name from a magnificent palace built for the reception of the  
Scottish



Scottish monarchs, whenever they visited this capital. It was originally given by Edgar of England to Kenneth III. of Scotland, for the humiliating purpose of his making an annual journey to this place to do homage for his kingdom of Scotland. In after-times it was used by his successors when they came to Westminster to do homage for the counties of Cumberland and Huntingdon, and other fiefs held by them of the crown of England.

These passages lead us to a court behind the Banqueting-house, where we have always admired an excellent statue in brass, of the ill-advised James II. executed the year previous to his abdication, by Grinlyn Gibbons. Now that all the strife about the Stuarts has been put an end to by the death of the last of the family, it is a pity this statue, the workmanship of which is admirable, should be thus buried in an obscure place, behind the magnificent house which his grandfather built, and his father so gorgeously decorated.

The old palace of Whitehall, to which this building was annexed, owes its origin to Hubert de Burgh, earl of Kent, who, in the year 1242, bequeathed it to the black friars in Chancery-lane, Holborn, in whose church he was interred. But in 1248, these friars having disposed of it to Walter de Grey, archbishop of York, he left it to his successors, the archbishops of that see, for their city mansion; and hence it obtained the name of York Place. This mansion, with two gardens, three acres of land, and the appurtenances, were seized by Henry VIII. in the twenty-first year of his reign, when cardinal Wolsey incurred the punishment by which all his goods and possessions were forfeited to the crown; and, when the king afterwards restored the possessions of the archbishopric of York to him, this place was reserved. Henry was no sooner possessed of this palace, than he enclosed the park for the use of this and the palace of St. James; and also built a beautiful gate across the street, with a magnificent gallery for the accommodation of the royal family, the nobility, and great officers of state, who sat there to see the tournaments and military exercises performed in the tilt-yard; and, soon after, the king, who had a greater taste for pleasure than for elegance in his mansions, ordered a tennis-court, a cockpit, and bowling-greens, to be formed, with other places for different kinds of diversion. The design of the gate was by Holbein. It was built with bricks of two colours, glazed and disposed in a tessellated fashion. The top of it, as well as those of an elegant tower on each side, were embattled. On each front were four busts in baked clay, in proper colours, which resisted every attack of the weather to the last. When this gate was taken down, about fifty years ago, William duke of Cumberland had all the parts of it numbered, with an intention of rebuilding it at the top of the long walk at Windsor; but this design was never carried into execution.—From the time of Henry, Whitehall became the royal residence of the kings of England; and so continued till the year 1697, when, by an accidental fire, it was entirely destroyed, except the present edifice, which had been added to the old King James I. in the year 1619, according to a design of Inigo Jones.

This magnificent structure is built entirely of stone, and is divided into three stories. The lowest story has a rustic wall with small square windows, and serves as a basis for the orders. On this is raised the Ionic, with columns and pilasters; and between the columns are well-proportioned windows, with arched and painted pediments. Over these is placed the proper entablature, on which is raised a second series of the Corinthian order, consisting of columns and pilasters like the other. From the capitals are carried festoons, which meet with masks and other ornaments in the centre. This series is also crowned with its proper entablatures, whereon is raised a balustrade with attic pedestals between, which crown the work. This building was only a small part of king James's plan for rebuilding the royal palace; the remainder was left unexecuted on account of the turbulence of the times. It

was to have consisted of four fronts, each with an entrance between two square towers. The interior was to have contained five courts; viz. a large one in the centre, and two smaller at the ends; and between two of the latter, a beautiful circus with an arcade below, the pillars of which were to have been ornamented with caryatides. The length of this palace was to have been 1152 feet, and the depth 874.

Part of this edifice is converted into a military chapel, in which service is performed every Sunday morning and afternoon; George I. having granted a salary of thirty pounds per annum to each of twelve clergymen, selected equally from Oxford and Cambridge, who officiate a month in turn. The ceiling is richly painted by Rubens: the subject is the Apotheosis of James I. which is treated in nine compartments, and for boldness of design and successful execution cannot be too much admired. This fine performance is painted on canvass, and is in fine preservation. A few years since, these paintings were retouched by Cipriani, with so much address as to leave no apparent difference in the work. The altar-piece was preserved from the fire which destroyed Whitehall, and given to this chapel by queen Anne. The cost of erecting the Banqueting-house was seventeen thousand pounds, Rubens received three thousand pounds for painting the ceiling; but the remuneration to the architect was very disproportionate; who, according to Mr. Walpole, received only eight shillings and four-pence a-day as surveyor of the works, and forty-six pounds per annum for house-rent, a clerk, and incidental expenses. This place was chosen by the regicides who brought Charles I. to the block, for the last act of his mortal existence. On the morning of his execution he was conducted hither from St. James's; and, after passing a space in his bed-room, went from thence through a breach in the wall at the north end of the room upon the scaffold. The passage still remains, and is the door of a small additional building.

The old palace lay in ruins for many years. At present the site of it, with a part of the privy-garden, is covered by the dwelling-houses of different noblemen and gentlemen, among which, those of the dukes of Richmond and Buccleugh, and the earl of Eife, are the most conspicuous; the embankment behind the latter is a great improvement to this part of the bank of the Thames, and commands a very extensive view of the water between Blackfriars and Westminster Bridges. Several improvements have been made of late in front of these houses; railings, letting in the light to grounds planted with shrubs and trees, have taken the place of dead walls covered with lottery-bills and ballads; and the circulation of the air, perfumed by these plants and plots of flowers, has become more free and wholesome.

Nearly opposite to Scotland yard, is situated the Admiralty-office, a massy building of brick and stone. It has two deep wings, and is entered by a lofty portico, supported by four very tall stone columns, with Ionic capitals, to which there is an ascent by a few steps; but this portico, which was intended as an ornament to the building rather disgusts than pleases, in consequence of the immoderate height of the columns. It is said that the architect who built this portico had made the shafts of a just length, when it was observed that the pediment interrupted the light of some of the apartments, in consequence of which he was compelled to violate every rule of architectural proportion, and carry his columns to the roof of the building. Happily, however, this clumsy pile is concealed from view by a very handsome screen, built by Messrs. Adams, in the centre of which is an arched gateway, over which runs a balustrade. On each side of the gate is a niche, surmounted by a pedestal, on which is the figure of a winged sea-horse. In front of the screen is a colonnade of the Doric order; and at each extremity are three niches, above which are triangular pediments; in one of these pediments is a basso-relievo of the prow of a Roman galley, and in the other the bow of a British three-decked



man-of-war. Besides a hall and other commodious apartments for transacting business in the main building, the wings are formed into six spacious houses, and are adapted for the residence of the lords commissioners of the admiralty. This office was originally held in the large house at the south end of Duke-street, Westminster, which overlooks St. James's Park; but in the reign of king William it was removed to Wallingford-house, on the same spot as the present building, which was erected in the late reign.

Next to the Admiralty, on the same side of the street, we find the Horse-Guards, so called on account of the circumstance of the king's guard of horse being stationed there.—It is a very solid, not to say heavy, sort of building, answering to no particular order of architecture. It consists of a centre and two wings. In the middle is an arched passage into St. James's Park, with a postern on each side for foot-passengers; above is a pediment, having the royal arms in bas relief in the tympanum; and over all is a cupola, serving as a clock-tower. At each extremity of the centre is a pavilion. The wings are plainer than the centre; they consist of a front projecting a little, with ornamented windows in the principal face, and a plain one in the sides. Each has its pediment, with a circular window in the centre. At the front to the street is a noble iron railing, on each side of which stands a sort of stone watch-house or sentry-box, where a horse-centinel is doing duty day and night. This has a noble appearance. The view from the street through the archway towards the Canal and Buckingham-house in St. James's Park, reminds us of a similar aspect through the main archway of the Thuilleries towards the garden and the equestrian statue of Louis the Fifteenth, the grandfather of the present king.—This leads us to the recollection of an epigram placed at the foot of that statue when the king was forgetting his duties in the arms of a courtesan, which the kings of France, from time immemorial, have been very apt to do. The king was on horseback, and the four cardinal virtues standing one at each corner of the pedestal. The sarcastic epigram was as follows:

Autour et sur ce piedestal,  
Les Vertus font à pied, et le Vice à cheval.

“Around and upon this pedestal, the Virtues are on foot and Vice on horseback.”—The author was never discovered; and the craving gates of the Bastille, Fort l'Eveque, and Salpetriere, gaped in vain to receive him in their unrelenting jaws—*fauces Acherontis avari*. All the cunning of the *mouchards*, or police-officers, (the Townsends, the Adkins's, the Vickeries, of that country and time;) all the conjurations of Sartine himself, then at the head of the police-department, were defeated—for the author had declared upon his paper, *J'étois seul quand je le fis*; “I was alone when I did it.” And, since no accomplice, in that case, could turn king's evidence; since the author did not think proper to get the reputation of a wag at the expense of his life; the secret was never revealed, and the mystery buried in eternal oblivion.—We are obliged to confess, that the epigram met with as many applauders as admirers.

This digression, in which we have indulged for the very purpose of relieving our readers from the monotony of a survey, leads us to the TREASURY.—The whole front of this edifice, which follows the Horse-guards in a line towards the south, is rustic; it consists of three stories, of which the lowest is of the basement kind, with small windows, though they are contained in large arches. This story has the Tuscan proportion; and the second the Doric, with arched windows of a larger size; the upper part of this story is, with great inconsistency, adorned with the triglyphs and metopes of the Doric frieze, though the range of ornament is supported by neither columns nor pilasters. Over this story is a range of Ionic columns in the centre, supporting a pediment. A variety of offices are under the roof of this building, among which is the council-chamber, commonly called the cockpit, where, until within

a few years, his majesty's intended speech was read to certain members of both houses on the evening previous to opening the parliament. There are vaulted passages through this building into Downing-street and Parliament-street. The front towards the street is very old, but the entrances have been restored to their classical and elegant gothic style, with heads at the drops of the water-tablets, and with pure ogee-branches in the vaulting of the tops.

On the south of this large and elegant opening, is a continuation of it more particularly called Parliament-street, which leads to one of the finest spots that any metropolis in the world can boast of. At the end of Parliament-street the eye is struck at once by so many grand and interesting objects, that the traveller is at a loss which to examine first. On his left hand he sees the avenue to Westminster-bridge, and part of that noble fabric—on the right his view extends to the Birdcage, (or *Bocage*, as it ought to be called,) a shady and solitary walk in St. James's Park—before him bursts at once a wonderful cluster of grand edifices: Westminster-hall, the House of Lords, Westminster-abbey and Henry the Seventh's chapel, St. Margaret's, and the Sessions-house, all nearly on the same point of view.—Several of these great objects will be found in Plate I. but it is erroneously stated, in some copies of that engraving, that the view is taken from Westminster-bridge; the point of sight is near the bridge, and in a situation where the objects might be grouped with the greatest advantage.—The survey of each of these magnificent objects will be successively offered to our readers: but first we shall introduce a few remarks upon the antiquity and present government of the city of Westminster.

Westminster received its name from the abbey, or minster, situated westward of the city of London; and, according to several historians, was thus denominated to distinguish it from the Abbey of Grace, on Tower-hill, called *Eastminster*; but Maitland proves this to be a mistake, by showing that the former is called Westminster in an undated Charter of Sanctuary granted by Edward the Confessor, who died in 1066; and that the latter was not founded till 1359; he therefore supposes, that the appellation of Westminster was given to distinguish it from St. Paul's church, in the city of London, which lay so far to the east of it.

In ancient times, this was a mean unhealthy place, remarkable for nothing but the abbey, which was situated on a marshy island, surrounded on one side by the Thames, and on the other by what was called Long Ditch. This ditch was a branch of the river, which began nearly where Manchester-buildings now stand; and, crossing King-street, ran westward to Delahay-street, where it turned to the south, and continued its course along Princes-street, until it crossed Tothill-street, from whence it passed along the south wall of the abbey-garden, to the Thames again. It has, however, been arched over for many years, and is at present a common sewer. This island was, exclusive of the minster, an entire waste, and so overgrown with thorns and briars, that it obtained the appellation of *Thorney Island*.

In process of time, however, a few houses were erected round the monastery, which, at length, grew into a small town, called in ancient books “The town of Westminster.” But the principal cause of the increase of Westminster, was the continual jealousy of the government against the privileges and immunities claimed by the citizens of London. To this cause must be attributed the establishment of the wool-staple at Westminster, in preference to London, which occasioned a great resort of merchants thither. Another cause of its growth, was, the royal residence being general here; for which reason, most of the chief nobility also erected *mans*, or town-houses, in its vicinity, the sites of many of which still retain the names of their former owners.

Westminster continued for many ages a distinct town from London; and the road between them, on the sides of which the street called the Strand was afterwards built, passed along the river side, and through the village of



Charing. This road, however, from the frequent passing of horses and carts, had become so dangerous both to men and carriages, that, in the year 1353, a toll was laid on all merchandise and provisions carried to the staple of Westminster, for repairing it. In 1385, it was new paved from Temple-bar to the Savoy; and some years after, by the interest of sir Robert Cecil, who had an elegant mansion where Cecil-street now stands, the pavement was continued as far as his house. In course of time Westminster became a place of some consideration; but it received its most distinguished honours from Henry VIII. who, on the dissolution of the monastery of St. Peter, converted it into a bishopric, with a dean and twelve prebendaries; and appointed the whole county of Middlesex, except Fulham, which was to remain to the bishop of London, for its diocese. On this occasion Westminster became a city; for the making of which, according to lord-chief-justice Coke, "nothing more is required, than to be the seat of episcopal power."

The old palace, near the abbey, having been nearly destroyed by fire in 1512, Henry VIII. took up his residence at Whitehall, which he purchased, in 1530, of cardinal Wolsey. He also built the palace of St. James; and inclosed a fine spot of ground, which he converted into a park, for the accommodation of both palaces. From this period, the buildings about Westminster began greatly to increase; but it did not long enjoy the honour of being a city; for it never had but one bishop, Thomas Thirlby, who being translated to the see of Norwich, by Edward VI. in 1550, the new bishopric was dissolved. However, Westminster is still considered as a city, and is so styled in our statutes.

The city of Westminster, properly so called, consists but of two parishes, viz. St. Margaret, and St. John the Evangelist; but the liberties contain seven parishes, which are as follow: St. Martin in the fields, St. James, St. Anne, St. Paul, Covent-garden, St. Mary-le-Strand, St. Clement Danes, and St. George Hanover-square; to which must be added, the precinct of the Savoy, and that of St. Martin-le-grand. The government of both the city and liberties of Westminster is under the jurisdiction of the dean and chapter of St. Peter's, as well in civil as in ecclesiastical affairs, whose authority also extends to some towns in Essex; and the whole of their district is exempt from the jurisdiction of the bishop of London, and of the archbishop of Canterbury. Since the Reformation, the management of the civil part of the government has been in the hands of laymen, elected, or, when appointed by their principals, confirmed, by the dean and chapter.

The form of the civil government of Westminster was settled by an act of parliament passed in the 27th of queen Elizabeth, entitled, "An Act for the good Government of the City and Borough of Westminster;" which directs the appointment of twelve burgesses, and twelve assistants, annually, to preside over the twelve wards into which Westminster was at that time divided; and gives power to the dean, high steward, or his deputy, and the twelve burgesses, or any three of them, whereof the dean, high steward, or his deputy, to be one, to hear, determine, and punish, according to the laws of the realm, or laudable and lawful customs of the city of London, all matters of incontinency, common scolds, inmates, common annoyances, &c. and to commit persons, offending against the peace, to prison; but to give notice, within twenty-four hours, to some justice of the peace for the county. All good orders and ordinances, made by the dean and high steward with the assistance of the burgesses, concerning the government of the inhabitants, and not repugnant to the queen's prerogative or the laws of the land, to be of full force and strength. Though the increase of the liberties of Westminster has rendered some alterations in this statute necessary, yet the substance of it is still the basis of the government of this city.

The first of these magistrates is the high steward, who is usually one of the chief nobility, chosen by the dean and chapter. His office has some affinity to that of a chan-

cellor of an university; and he holds his place during life. On his death or resignation, a chapter is called for the election of another, in which the dean sits as high steward until the election is determined. The deputy steward is appointed by the high steward, and confirmed by the dean and chapter. He is chairman of the court-leet; by which the high constable, the petty constables, and the annoyance-juries, are appointed. The high-bailiff is nominated by the dean, and confirmed by the high steward, and holds his place for life. He is returning-officer at the election for members of parliament; and enjoys considerable profits from fines, forfeitures, &c. The burgesses are at present sixteen in number, each of whom has an assistant. They are nearly similar to the aldermen and deputies in the city of London; but the exercise of their office is now principally confined to attending the court-leets, &c. Under the high constable, who cannot hold his office more than three years, are eighty petty constables, appointed annually, at Michaelmas, viz. fourteen for the parish of St. Margaret; four for that of St. John the Evangelist; twelve for St. George, Hanover-square; fourteen for St. Martin's in the Fields; fourteen for St. James's; eight for St. Anne's, six for St. Paul's Covent-garden; six for St. Clement Danes; and two for St. Mary-le-Strand. Before the year 1696, the inhabitants of Westminster were liable to be called upon to serve as jurors at the quarter-sessions for the county of Middlesex; but a clause was introduced into an act, passed in that year for regulating jurors, by which they were exempted from this duty.—Notwithstanding the great extent of Westminster, the government of it bears but little resemblance to that of a large city. The inhabitants have no exclusive corporation-privileges, nor are there any trading-companies within its jurisdiction. The two members who represent it in parliament, like those of a common-country borough, are chosen by the inhabitant-householders at large; and the only courts held in Westminster, are, the court-leet, the quarter-sessions, and two courts of requests for the recovery of small debts. Westminster has, however, long been the seat of the royal palace, of the high-court of parliament, and of our law-tribunals.

WESTMINSTER ABBEY.—In whatever point of view we consider this edifice, whether in regard to its antiquity, the great and worthy personages whose ashes it contains, or the beauty of its architecture, it equally claims our respect and admiration. No building in the world can rival it under the aspect of these three points. If the abbey of St. Denys, when it existed unimpaired and unspoiled by the more-than-barbarian hands of the French themselves, could approach Westminster in respect to its antiquity, and the high estimation of its august contents, yet for its architecture that sacred pile could not have the least pretensions to a comparison. Besides, there the partiality of the French for rank and hereditary honours, had consecrated the tombs exclusively, with very few exceptions, to royal relics. None but crowned heads, or bodies closely allied to royalty, were allowed to crumble to dust in that place; and it was by a most special condescension that the bones of the great Turenne were allowed to rest there. But here, the hand that guided the pen or struck the lyre withers contiguous to that which wielded the sword or held the scepter: here, kings, princes, orators, poets, warriors, statesmen, and magistrates, lie undistinguished, on an awful level. Any one who has deserved well of his country may hope for a place here; and in the dreadful hour of fight the hero keeps Westminster-abbey in view as the spot where his honoured remains may be laid. "A peerage or Westminster-abbey!" exclaimed Nelson just before he entered upon the battle of the Nile.

Were we to compile and relate all the miraculous stories that have been told and written concerning the origin of this famous abbey, and listen for any considerable time to its legendary historiographers, we might, in this self-called enlightened age, give offence to those who will read nought but what they can believe; and perhaps lull into



unwarranted belief the opposite class of readers, whose fondness for romantic assertions is ready to swallow the marvellous without difficulty or discrimination. We shall content ourselves with presenting to our readers whatever we can gather of a warrantable nature; and therefore merely mention the following story of the dedication of the church as a matter of curiosity.

It cannot be denied, as far as historical authority can retain its weight, that Sebert king of the East Saxons, (see p. 56 of this volume,) who died in 616, being, by Augustine's preaching and his uncle Ethelbert's example, converted to Christianity, threw down the temple of Apollo, west of London, and there most devoutly erected a church, which he dedicated to St. Peter; and appointed Mellitus, then bishop of London, to consecrate it accordingly. Ranulphus, indeed, does not particularly mention Sebert, but has these remarkable words; "That *some one*, at the instigation of Ethelbert, built a church to the honour of St. Peter, in the west part of the city of London, in a place called Thorney, which signifies an island of thorns, but is now called Westminster."

We are told that sir Christopher Wren rejects as fabulous the notion of a temple to Apollo in Thorney-island; and the rather, because it is said to have been destroyed by an earthquake in the reign of Antonius Pius, in order to make way for a Christian church to be erected by king Lucius upon its ruins. Sir Christopher declares, that when he was employed to survey Westminster-abbey, though he examined both the walls and ornaments about it with the nicest care, yet he could not discover the least fragment of cornice or capital, to indicate the work of a Roman builder, which he thinks he must undoubtedly have done had the fact been true, as earthquakes break few stones, though they overturn edifices.—Now, though we have a respect for the authority of sir Christopher Wren, we do not see how his arguments, which are merely negative, can refute statements which are positive as to the worship of Apollo having been held in great repute in Thorney. The *not finding* of ruins at the place, is no proof that no temple existed there. Besides, we are not told that this temple was an immense edifice, like those in Greece and Italy: a simple *jacellum* (and we could expect nothing more in an island where, before the arrival of the Romans, little, if any thing, was known of the ancient polytheism) would have been enough to authorise the writer quoted page 397, to say that this part of Great Britain sacrificed to Apollo; and the authors who followed him to admit the existence of a temple where the abbey now stands, as well as of a temple to Diana on the site of St. Paul's.—Had sir Christopher Wren been allowed to examine, stone by stone, the deep foundations of either or both of these edifices, he might have found some fragments of rude architecture, denoting that a building had preceded them; and yet he might have been still unable to decide whether it had been a temple, a villa, or a *corps de garde*.

As to the dedication of the abbey, it is reported that the king had ordered Mellitus to perform the ceremony; but St. Peter, as the legend says, was beforehand with him; for over-night he called upon Edricus, a fisherman, and desired to be ferried over to Thorney, which happened to be then flooded round by heavy rains. The fisherman obeyed; and the apostle then consecrated the church, amidst a grand chorus of heavenly music, and a glorious appearance of burning lights; of which Edricus was both an ear and an eye witness. The saint then discovered himself to the fisherman; and bade him tell Mellitus what he had heard and seen; giving him at the same time a specimen of his divine mission, by a miraculous draught of salmon, of which kind of fish, when in season, the apostle assured him, none of his occupation should ever want, provided they honestly made an offering of the tenth fish to the use of the newly-consecrated church. This custom appears to have been continued until the end of the fourteenth century.—That this romantic tale was generally credited

for many ages after, is evident from two royal charters. The first is a charter of king Edgar, which says, "This church was dedicated by no less than St. Peter, the prince of apostles, to his own honour." The other is a charter of Edward the Confessor, which is still more explicit, affirming it to be "dedicated by St. Peter himself, with the attendance of angels, by the impression of the holy cross, and the anointment of the holy chrism."

This church and its monastery were repaired and enlarged by Offa king of Mercia; but, being destroyed by the pagan Danes, they were rebuilt by Edgar, who endowed them, and, in the year 969, granted them many great privileges. But, having again suffered by the ravages of the Danes, Edward the Confessor pulled down the old church, and erected a most magnificent one, for that age, in its place, in the form of a cross, which was begun in the year 1049, and became a pattern for that kind of building. The work being finished in the year 1066, he caused it to be consecrated with the greatest pomp and solemnity; and by several charters not only confirmed all its ancient rights and privileges, but endowed it with many rich manors and additional immunities; and the church, by a bull of pope Nicholas I. was constituted the place for the inauguration of the kings of England. And, as an abbey in those days would have been nothing without relics, here were to be found the veil and some drops of the milk of the Virgin; the blade-bone of St. Benedict; the finger of St. Alphage; the head of St. Maxilla; and half the jaw-bone of St. Anastasia.

William the Conqueror, to show his regard to the memory of his late friend king Edward, no sooner arrived in London, than he repaired to this church, and offered a sumptuous pall, as a covering for Edward's tomb. He also gave fifty marks of silver, together with a very rich altar-cloth, and two caskets of gold; and the Christmas following was solemnly crowned there, which was the first coronation performed in that place.

The next prince that undertook to enlarge this great work was Henry III. who built a chapel to the Blessed Virgin, then called the New Work at Westminster, the first stone whereof he laid himself on the Saturday before his coronation in the year 1220. But, about twenty years after, finding the walls and steeple of the old structure much decayed, he pulled them all down, with a design to enlarge and rebuild them in a more regular manner. He commenced this great work in 1245, in the style of architecture which began to prevail in his days, but did not carry it further than four arches west of the middle tower; and the vaulting of this part was not completed until 1295. He did not live to accomplish his design. It was continued by his successor, and carried on slowly by succeeding princes; and from the portcullises on the roof of the last arches it appears, that either Henry VII. or VIII. had some concern in it, that being the device of these monarchs. The building was never finished; the great tower and the two western towers remaining incomplete at the reformation, after which the two present towers were erected.

About the year 1502, Henry VII. began that magnificent structure, which is now generally called by his name. For this purpose, he pulled down the chapel of Henry III. already mentioned, and an adjoining house called the White-Rose Tavern. This chapel, like the former, he dedicated to the Blessed Virgin; and, designing it for a burial-place for himself and his posterity, he carefully ordered in his will, that none but those of royal blood should be permitted to lie therein: and, for the health of his soul, he procured a bull from the pope, for uniting to this abbey the collegiate church of St. Martin's-le-Grand, and the manor of Tykill in Yorkshire, for the maintenance of a chantry of three monks and two lay brethren. This was the origin of the jurisdiction of the dean and chapter of Westminster in St. Martin's-le-grand.

At the head of seventeen monks, William Benson, the abbot, surrendered the abbey to Henry VIII. at the general suppression of religious houses, in the year 1539, when



when its revenues amounted, according to Speed, to 3977l. 6s. 4d. per annum, a sum at least equal to twenty thousand pounds a-year of present money. Besides its furniture, which was of inestimable value, it had, in different parts of the kingdom, no less than two hundred and sixteen manors, seventeen hamlets, with ninety-seven towns and villages; and, though the abbey was only the second in rank, yet in all other respects it was the chief in the kingdom, and its abbots had a seat in the house of lords. It has been often observed, that most of these great conventualities (since, with all the gluttony and other capital sins attributed to monks, they could not swallow the whole revenue of their property) used to do a great deal of good to the surrounding country, by relieving the poor; and that, since their suppression, here as well as in the sister kingdoms, beggars sprang up every-where, on account of the subtraction of that daily support which the cottage received from the neighbouring abbey; and that thus our *poor-laws*, which did not subsist before, became necessary; for Dugdale remarks, that, while the convents stood, there was no act for the relief of the poor, so amply were they provided for by these houses; whereas in the next age there were no less than eleven bills brought into the house of commons for that purpose. That the monasteries afforded relief to the poor is a position maintained also by Smith and Blackstone; and the latter attributes to the dissolution of these the numerous statutes made in the reign of Henry VIII. and his children, for providing for the poor and impotent. Indeed from the 22d of Henry VIII. to the 43d of Elizabeth, hardly a parliament met, in which some laws that regarded the poor were not enacted.—As for the abbots of Westminster having a seat in the house of lords, that was perfectly in unison with the established religion of those times. Abbots, as well as bishops, were prelates of the realm; they were the heads of communities holding immense landed property, and therefore intimately connected with and interested in the welfare of the kingdom. Their contributions were often very acceptable to the minister and his king. The only difference that, in exterior ornaments, distinguished them from bishops, was that the latter wore the crozier with its spiral without, and the abbot with the spiral within, to show the jurisdiction of the first was abroad, and that of the second at home. A fact the more interesting, as it is little known.

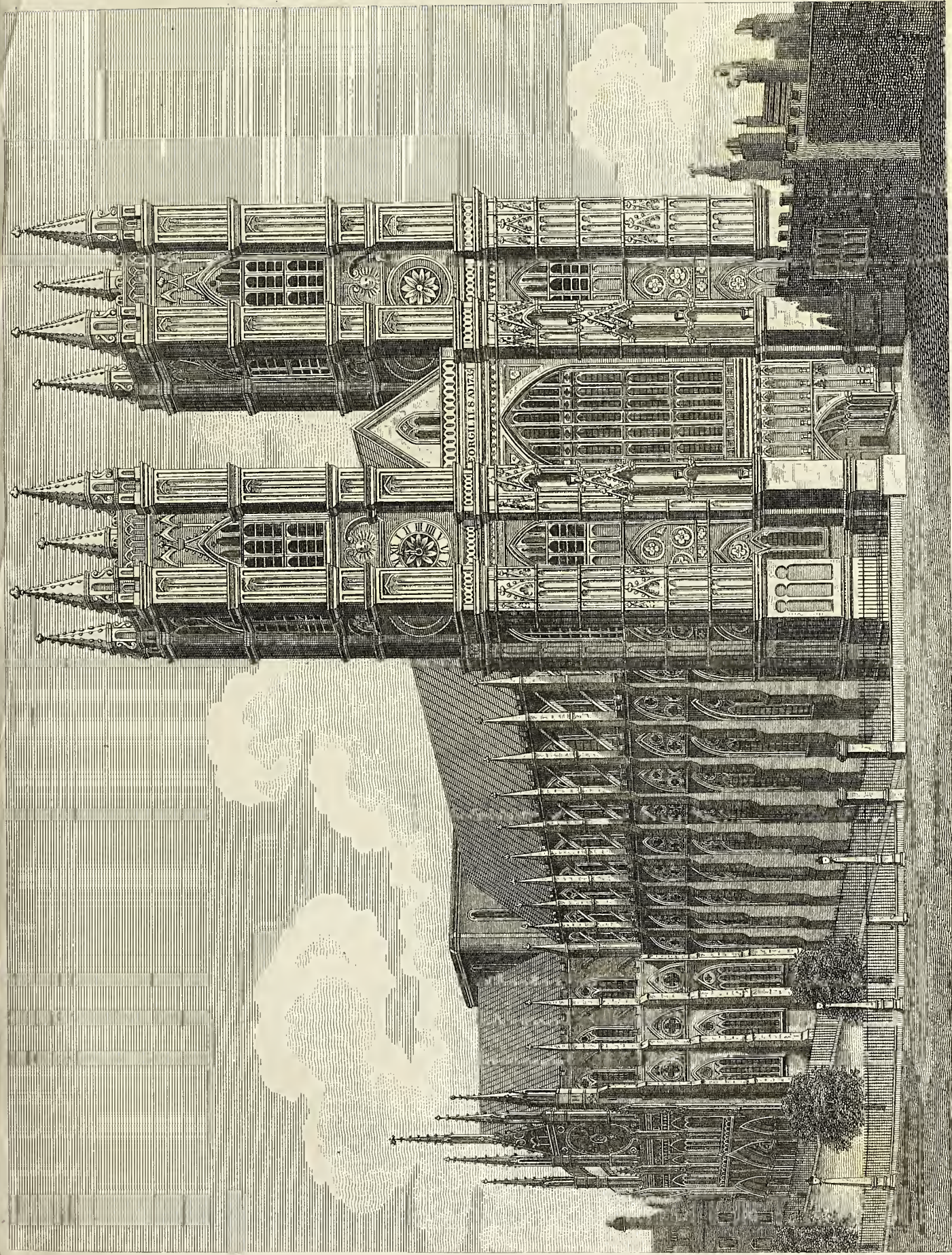
After the dissolution of the abbey, the sickle monarch Henry VIII. erected it first into a college of secular canons, under the government of a dean, an honour which he chose to confer on the last abbot; and the accepting of which plainly shows the character of the monk, who, like some churchmen in the course of the temporary revolution in France, quietly made this interested calculation, viz. that it is better to be any thing than nothing at all. This establishment, however, was of no long duration; for two years after Henry converted it into a bishopric, as we have noticed before. His son Edward VI. broke the crozier, and again reduced the establishment to a deanery, which continued till Mary's accession to the crown. After a lapse of eighteen years, the conventual existence was restored; and the cloisters again saw the monks pacing their gloomy walks. No scenery in a playhouse shifts faster than the successive situations of this abbey; for, three years after, the monks were obliged to pack up their cowls, rosaries, and breviaries, and leave their dear convent, by order of Elizabeth. In 1560 she re-erected Westminster-abbey into a college as before, under the government of a dean and twelve secular canons, or prebendaries. She also founded a school for forty scholars, denominated *the Queen's*, to be educated in the liberal sciences preparatory to their going to the university, and to have all the necessaries of life, except clothing, of which they were to have only a gown each year. To this abbey belong choristers, singing-men, an organist, twelve almshouses, &c.—We might add several particulars to this epitome of the origin, building, and his-

tory, of Westminster-abbey; but we find not, in many of them, that appearance of truth which ought to be the guide of an historian; and we shall therefore proceed with our survey.

The appearance of the west front is extremely magnificent. The gate is wrought with much delicacy; and the screen above it wants neither elegance nor lightness, and agrees with the large window which it supports, in tracings and other ornaments peculiar to Gothic architecture. The two towers, it is plain, are of later construction; and indeed, the execution of some of the parts is so clumsy, that it clashes considerably with the original slenderness of mouldings, as well as depth of carvings, so justly admired throughout the whole work. Sir Christopher Wren repaired these two towers; and, although his fame stands almost unparalleled in the stately monument he raised to his own reputation when he built St. Paul's, yet it is plain that he could not step out of the five ancient orders of architecture into that fantastical one, which, when well executed, is, as well as the others, worthy of admiration. Here we do not find that delicacy, that whimsical originality of tracery, so conspicuous in ancient buildings of that description; and the two towers look like a second-hand fac-simile, or the worn-out cast of a once-elegant mould. The north side, which is the only one exposed to view, (the other being so incumbered with buildings, that even its situation can hardly be distinguished,) presents a noble range of substantial buttresses; but to a certain height, the *edacity* of time, *Tempus edax*, has flattened the boldly-raised mouldings, and levelled all to a plain surface, except where the drippings of water, the pickings of pigeons at sunrise, and (as some people say and believe) the worm-like-eating beams of the moon, have excavated little holes in the stone, and properly honey-combed these noble supports of one of the noblest piles which the world can boast of in this style of architecture. The top and canopied pinnacles of these buttresses were, each of them, adorned with a statue of one of our kings, of no bad workmanship. Some of them have been presented upon paper, in their justly-supposed original shapes by several antiquaries and draughtmen, among whom we are proud to mention that very zealous and undaunted defender of the ancient honours of, as he calls it, English architecture, Mr. John Carter; and we would advise that portion of our readers who may be fond of such pursuits to follow his very interesting observations and profound strictures in several numbers of the Gentleman's Magazine.—Had the restless hand of Time itself crumbled into dust the representatives of those whom he had long before reduced to their original clay, we could have no license to complain—but here it is not the case.—They were statues of kings; and, when the majesty of the people is allowed to reign with unlimited and truly-unqualified sway, statues of kings are condemned as idols; submission to power, superstition; and loyalty, a deadly sin. Most of these statues were brought down by the raging hands of an infuriated and blind multitude in those unhappy civil commotions that defaced, in childish revenge, the beauty of most of the religious edifices in this kingdom.

This beautiful range of buttresses leads the eye gently and pleasingly to the north transept, projecting out with great promineny. Three large windows on each stage add light to the interior, and ornament to the exterior.—When we turn to the aspect of the north porch, we let loose the reins of our praising faculties; for the portico, that leads into the north cross, is looked upon as magnificent, and has been called the *beautiful*, or *Solomon's Gate*.—Now this is very fine; but, as no men are more ready to do justice to real merit and beauty than we are, (and we are conscious of having, throughout our work, given reiterated proofs of it,) and yet, as we declared it from the beginning, (see p. 396.) none less apt or liable to swerve from truth, we must indeed confess that we do not see any ground for comparing this handsome Gothic gate with what we may suppose the *Porta formosa* of the Temple of Jerusalem.





*North-west View of Westminster Abbey.*

*Published as the Act directs Feb 24 1835*







to have been.—Raphael, in his famous cartoon of Peter and John curing the lame man at this gate, endeavoured to give an idea of what this portico was; and from scattered fruits and capitals, architraves and broken columns, he made out what he had some right to call “beautiful.” The prints after this celebrated cartoon are common; and we therefore leave our readers at liberty to compare. It is probable that this gate was built by Richard II. as we are told that his arms, carved in stone, were formerly over it. Above the portico is a most elegant window of modern date, and admirably well executed. It is in the form of a rose, made by the intersection of concentric lines; but such roses are to be seen in nearly all ancient buildings.—On the south side is a window set up in 1705, which is likewise very masterly executed, and is no disparagement to the other. It is now undergoing a repair.

Following the north flank of this beautiful building, we come to the side of the choir, and then to Henry the Seventh’s chapel, a most elegant appendage to the whole building. It is a pleasing task for us to record that, within these few years, the buttresses and intermediate part of this chapel are, by the liberality of the dean and chapter, undergoing a thorough repair; and we have the satisfaction to suppose, that from old drawings, originally made, it is said, at the time of building the buttresses, and lately discovered, the whole is to be restored to its original neatness.—Surely we cannot pass unnoticed the whimsicality of the ornaments. We do not mean the portcullises and roses—all these are historically and heraldically right; but that terrible running-down of starved dogs, creeping cats, rats, mice, frogs, and non-descript monsters, on the elbow of the buttresses, will certainly bring a smile on the face of the minute observer. However, this must be the essence of the style; for, if you take it away, you destroy all the charm. To reduce them to another style would be as preposterous as to transform *Hudibras* into an epic poem.

Now that we have walked round this venerable pile as far as the incroachments of buildings on the south side (where a small court leads snugly to the east flank of the south transept called “Poets’ Corner”) have permitted us, we must, with *uncalculated* feet, and impressed with due respect, enter this celebrated and awful abode of the dead, this grand and bold exertion of mental power in architecture. Indeed we think we read, engraved on the sacred threshold, *Procul o procul, este profani*; “Ye profane, stand aloof!” for, at whatever door we enter, we may conceive the venerable shade of some great man to hover over us, and to bid us hide our “diminished heads.” The majestic shade of some worthy stalks before us in the gloomy aisles, and, pointing to the surrounding monuments, makes us say with Addison, “When I look on the tombs of the great, every emotion of envy dies in me: When I read the epitaphs of the beautiful, every inordinate desire goes out. When I meet with the grief of parents on a tombstone, my heart melts with compassion; when I see the tombs of parents themselves, I consider the vanity of grieving for those we must quickly follow. When I see kings lying by those who deposed them; when I behold rival wits placed side by side, or the holy men that divided the world with their contentions and disputes; I reflect with sorrow and astonishment on the little competitions, factions, and debates, of mankind. When I read the several dates of those who died but as yesterday, and some six hundred years ago, I consider that great day when we shall all of us be contemporaries, and make our appearance together.”—We are sorry, however, that the increasing multitude of modern monuments has so much crowded all the parts of Westminster-abbey; and indeed, if we go on at this rate, the edifice will look like a tomb-warehouse, where goods of that description will appear as if piled one upon another in the expectation of customers, and create a sort of confusion most inimical to the solemnity of the place.

The length of the building, from east to west, is three hundred and seventy-five feet, measuring from the steps

leading to Henry the Seventh’s chapel. The length of the cross, from north to south, is a hundred and ninety-five feet; and the breadth of the nave and side-aisles is seventy-two feet. The height, from the pavement of the nave to the inner roof, is a hundred feet, and from the choir-pavement to the roof of the lantern, a hundred and forty.

On entering the west door, the whole body of the church presents itself at one view; the pillars which divide the nave from the side-aisles being so curiously formed as not to obstruct the side-openings; nor is the sight terminated to the east, but by the fine painted window over the portico of Henry VIIth’s chapel, which anciently, when the altar was low, and the beautiful shrine of Edward the Confessor was included in the prospect, must have afforded one of the grandest sights the imagination can paint. These pillars terminate toward the east by a sweep, thereby inclosing the chapel of Edward the Confessor in a kind of semi-circle; and it is worthy of observation, that, as far as the gates of the choir, the pillars are filleted with brass, but all beyond with free-stone; from which circumstance, some take occasion to determine the bounds of the different enlargements of this church at different times, but with much uncertainty. Answerable to the middle range of pillars are others in the walls, which, as they rise, spring into semi-arches, and are everywhere met in acute angles by their opposites; thereby throwing the roof into a variety of segments of arches, decorated with ornamental carvings at the closings and crossings of the lines. On the arches of the pillars are galleries of double columns fifteen feet wide, covering the side-aisles, and lighted by a middle range of windows, over which there is an upper range of larger windows; by these and the under range, together with the four capital windows, facing the north, east, south, and west, the whole fabric is admirably lighted. At the bottom of the walls, between the columns, are shallow niches, arched about eight or ten feet high, on which the arms of the original benefactors are depicted; and over them, in Saxon characters, their titles, &c. but these are almost all hid from the sight, by the monuments of the dead being placed before them.

The next objects of attention, are, the fine paintings in the great west window, of Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob; Moses and Aaron, and the twelve patriarchs; the arms of king Sebert, king Edward the Confessor, queen Elizabeth, king George II. and dean Wilcox, bishop of Rochester. This window was set up in the year 1733; and is very curious. To the left of it, in a smaller window, is a painting of one of our kings, supposed to be Richard II. but, the colours being of a water-blue, the features of the face cannot be distinguished. In the window on the other side the great window, is a lively representation of Edward the Confessor, in his robes; and under his feet his arms painted. These are the most perfect of the many remains of this ancient art to be seen in the different windows of the abbey.

After surveying this part of the church, the next thing to be noticed is the choir, which may always be seen during divine service, and at other times is shown to those who pay for seeing the monuments in the north cross and western end of the abbey. The grand entrance to it is by a pair of beautiful iron gates; and the floor is paved with black and white marble. The stalls in this choir were formerly painted of a purple colour; and in it, near the pulpit, was an ancient portrait of Richard II. six feet eleven inches high, by three feet seven inches broad. Latterly, the choir has undergone a considerable alteration in the position of the stalls and seats, which are rendered much more commodious for public worship; and are so contrived, that they can be removed to make room for the celebration of any service which requires greater space, and can be replaced without injury, or much expense. Since this improvement, the portrait of Richard has been hung up in the Jerusalem Chamber. Beyond the choir is the fine altar, surrounded with a curious balustrade,



lustrade, within which is a pavement of Mosaic work, made at the charge of abbot Ware, and said to be the most beautiful in its kind of any in the world. By some Latin verses it appears, that it is composed of porphyry, and some other stones of various colours; and that it was laid in the year 1272. This beautiful pavement sustained irreparable injury during a fire, which destroyed the roof of the lantern above it; on the 9th of July, 1803.

On each side of the altar are marble doors, opening into St. Edward's chapel, where, at the coronation, our kings retire to refresh themselves.—The chapel of St. Edward the Confessor is inclosed in the body of the church, at the east end of the choir, and directly behind the altar. The principal object in this chapel is the ancient shrine, erected by Henry III. to the memory of Edward the Confessor, the last of the Saxon race. He died in the year 1066, and was canonized in 1269, by pope Alexander III. who issued his bull to the abbot Lawrence, and the convent of Westminster, enjoining, "That his body be honoured here on earth, as his soul was glorified in heaven." A bold assertion indeed, but not so bad as some writers will have it, viz. that the bull ordered "his soul to be glorified in heaven!" A cloistered life was his sole happiness; and, though married eighteen years to one of the most accomplished women of her time, daughter to earl Godwin, yet it is said, she confessed on her death-bed, that he suffered her to live and die a virgin; a circumstance not uncommon in those days; and which sometimes arose from the folly of the husband, as in the above instance; and sometimes (still more incredible) when a young woman had made an early vow of chastity, and yet complied with the wish of her friends to marry, as was the case with St. Cecilia.—This shrine, which was once esteemed the glory of England, is now much defaced and neglected. It was composed of stones of various colours, beautifully enriched with all the cost and art that human imagination could project; and consists of three rows of arches, the lower pointed, the upper round; and on each side of the lower is a most elegant twisted pillar; a lamp was kept continually burning before it till the breath of the reformation put it out. On one side stood a silver image of the Virgin, which, with two jewels of immense value, was presented by queen Eleanor, the wife of Henry III. On the other side stood another image of the Virgin, wrought in ivory, presented by Thomas Becket, archbishop of Canterbury. To this shrine Edward I. offered the regalia and chair in which the kings of Scotland used to be crowned. About the year 1280, Alphonso, third son to Edward I. offered here the golden coronet of Llewellyn prince of Wales, and other jewels. The beautiful mosaic pavement of this chapel was the performance of Peter Cavalini, inventor of that species of ornament. It is supposed that he was brought into England by the abbot Ware, who visited Rome in 1256. Weever, in his Funeral Monuments, says; "He brought from thence certain workmen, and rich porphyry stones, whereof he made that curious, singular, rare, pavement before the high altar; and with these stones and workmen he did also frame the shrine of Edward the Confessor." This shrine is now so stripped as to afford but little satisfaction, except to the curious; however, some of the stone-work with which it was adorned is still to be seen. This stone-work is hollow within, and now encloses a large chest, which Mr. Keep, soon after the coronation of James II. found to contain the remains of St. Edward; for, it being broken by accident, he discovered a number of bones; and, turning them up, found a crucifix richly ornamented and enamelled, with a gold chain twenty inches long, both which he presented to the king, who ordered the bones to be re-placed in the old coffin, and inclosed in a new one made very strong, and bound with iron.

In this chapel are several other memorials of deceased royalty. On the south side of the shrine lies Editha, queen to St. Edward, one of the most accomplished women of her age, who survived her husband eight years,

and beheld all the miseries consequent on his dying without issue. She was however treated with great respect by William the Conqueror, who allowed her an apartment in his palace at Winchester, where she died, and was interred here by his express orders.—On the north side of the chapel is the tomb of Henry III. the panels of which are of polished porphyry, surrounded by mosaic work of scarlet and gold. At the corners are twisted pillars, gilt and enamelled; and upon it is the effigy of that king in brass, gilt, finely executed, and supposed to be the first brazen statue cast in this kingdom. At the feet of Henry III. is a table-monument of grey marble, on which lies the effigy, of Eleanor, queen to Edward I. Her body was interred here, and her heart was placed in the choir of the Friars Predicants in London, according to ancient and even modern custom.—Here is also a large plain coffin of grey marble, composed of seven slabs; four of which form the sides, two the ends, and one the cover. This rough unpolished tomb incloses the remains of Edward I. just mentioned, who was named in honour of the Confessor, and surnamed Longshanks, from his tall and slender habit of body.—On the fourth side of this chapel is a black marble monument to the memory of Philippa, queen of Edward III. to whom she was married forty-two years, and bore him fourteen children. Edward bestowed a profusion of expense on her tomb, round which were placed, as ornaments, the brazen statues of thirty kings, princes, and noble personages, her relations. Adjoining to this, under a gothic canopy, is the tomb of Edward III. himself. The effigy of this prince is placed recumbent upon a table of grey marble; and, though his tomb is distinct from that of the queen, yet their bodies were deposited in the same grave, according to her request on her death-bed. Like the former, this tomb is surrounded with statues, particularly those of his children; and at the head of it are placed the sword and shield carried before him in France. The sword is seven feet long, and weighs eighteen pounds.—Next to this is a tomb erected to the memory of Richard II. and his first consort Anne; over which is a canopy of wood, remarkable for a curious painting, still visible upon it, of our Saviour and the Virgin Mary. The robing of his effigy is curiously wrought with peascods open and the pease out, the badge which this prince had adopted for reasons we have not been able to ascertain.—In this chapel are deposited the coronation-chairs of our kings and queens, the most ancient of which, as has been already mentioned, was brought with the regalia from Scotland, by Edward I. in the year 1297, and offered at the shrine of St. Edward. Under the seat of this chair is a square stone, which, according to the Scots tradition, is believed to have been Jacob's pillow. The other chair was made for Mary II. At the coronation, one or both of these chairs, as circumstances require, are covered with gold tissue, and placed before the altar, behind which they now stand.—Along the frieze of the screen of this chapel are fourteen legendary bas-reliefs respecting the Confessor. Their subjects are, of course, of that nature, which, for invention and execution, may have pleased our ancestors; but, in our improved and enlightened days, a long and minute description of them would not excite that interest which was so lively eight centuries ago. We have other objects of wonder and belief; and indeed no mean ones. The doubtful story of a queen of England walking bare-footed among burning plough-shares, (a representation of which forms the first of these legendary sculptures,) vanishes now, like the morning mist before the sun, when compared with the miraculous feats of Miss Josephine Girardelli. The swallowing of swords had its run; and was even lessened in the consideration of the curious by the fact of a sailor having, in our time, swallowed, and, *mirabile dictu!* half digested, more than a dozen of clasp-knives, (see vol. xi. p. 784) But now we are to witness, in Bond-street, the drinking of boiling oil and melted lead, the washing of the hands with aqua fortis, walking deliberately upon iron bars in





The Great Monk on his shoulders. A carving in wood supporting one of the ends of the ceiling of the Bath in Henry VII's Chapel. It is much mutilated.



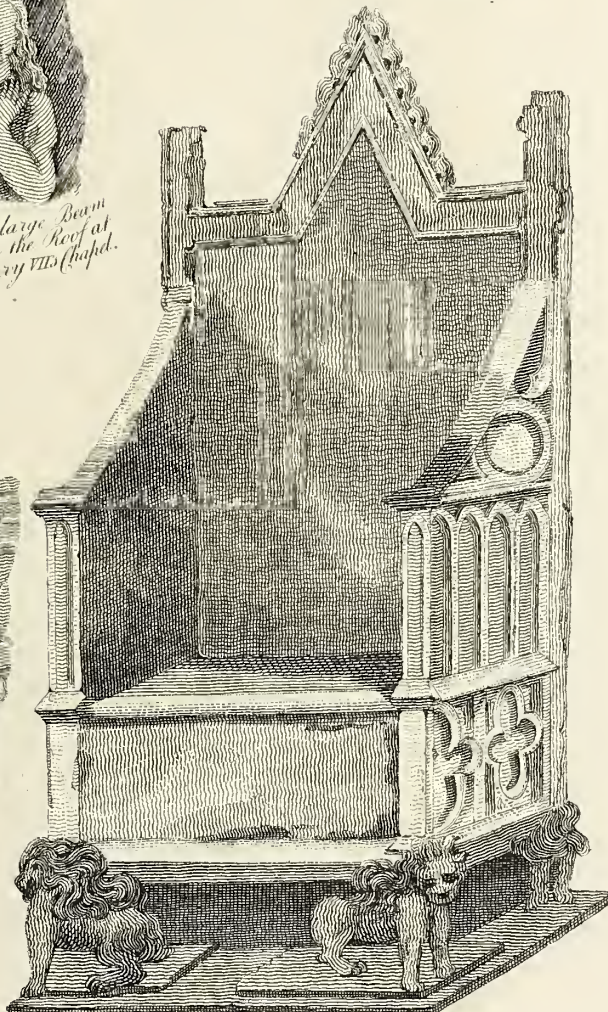
A Monk at his prayers. In the Chapel of St. Paul.



Philip the Duke of York died Anno 1333. St. Nicholas Chapel.



Head which supports a large Beam in the Chamber under the Roof at the east end, near Henry VII's Chapel.



The Coronation Chair. See pa. 546.

Thomson sculp. & Bury. S. Blomby



A woman beating a Monk with her distaff. A carving in wood under one of the seats of the Knights of the Bath in Henry VII's Chapel.

Interesting Antiquities in Westminster Abbey. Drawn on the spot and presented to this Work by J. Smith Jun. Esq.







the full perfection of *incandescence*; and therefore are ready to exclaim with the high priest in the *Athalia* of Racine, *Et quel temps fut jamais plus fertile en miracles!* Whilst some thousands of our cotemporaries are at this moment gaping in all the ardour of hope, the heat of desire, and the complacency of confidence, for a second birth of the Messiah!

To return to our survey. We next visit the chapel of Henry the Fifth, which is separated from that of St. Edward only by an iron screen, on each side of which are images as large as life, guarding, as it were, the staircase ascending to the chantry over it. In it is his monument, which is of black marble, surrounded with iron rails and gates; and on it is placed his statue made of heart of oak; but the head, with the sceptre and regalia, being of silver, were stolen, according to the account of the guides, in the time of Oliver Cromwell. The beautiful gothic inclosure of this tomb was erected by Henry VII. in compliment to his illustrious relation and predecessor; but he paid less respect to the memory of his grandmother, Catharine, the relic of this prince, who was interred in the Chapel of the Virgin. When Henry VII. ordered that to be pulled down to make way for his own magnificent chapel, he neglected her remains, which he suffered to be carelessly flung into a wooden chest, and removed into this chapel. The reason was, she had disgraced herself by marrying a private gentleman, after having been the wife of the conqueror of France. On each side of this chapel is a winding staircase, inclosed in a turret of iron-work, the tops of which spread into roofs of uncommon elegance. These stairs lead to a chantry, over the chapel, from which the inner part of the Confessor's shrine can be seen. Here are a helmet, shield, and saddle, which are believed to be those used by Henry V. at the battle of Agincourt, and brought here, as the custom was, at his funeral. The various models designed by sir Christopher Wren and other eminent architects, which had remained for many years in an obscure part of this church, were brought here in 1779. The section of the abbey, with the spire, as designed by sir Christopher, is greatly admired.

Around the chapel of St. Edward are nine chapels, besides that of Henry the Seventh, which appear not to have been comprehended in the original plan of the building, though they were erected by Henry III. Beginning at the north cross, and passing round to the south, they are in the following order: St. Andrew's; St. Michael's; St. John the Evangelist's; Islip's, or St. John the Baptist's; St. Erasmus's; St. Paul's; St. Nicholas's; St. Edmund's, and St. Benedict's. These chapels, with the whole of the area, the aisles, the nave, and the north and south crosses, are filled with such a wilderness of monuments, that it would require a volume to give the descriptions of them all; we shall therefore confine ourselves to noticing some of the most remarkable.

In St. Michael's chapel is a monument to the memory of Joseph Gascoigne Nightingale and his lady, which is one of the capital performances of that great master in sculpture, Roubiliac, and is visited and admired by all judges of elegance and ingenuity. Above is represented a lady expiring in the arms of her husband; and beneath, sily creeping from a tomb, the king of terrors presents his grim visage, pointing his unerring dart to the dying figure, at which fight the husband, struck with astonishment, horror, and despair, endeavours to ward off the fatal stroke from the distressed object of his care.—If we are not mistaken, there is in the church of St. Sulpice at Paris, a monument of one of the Harcourt or Harecourt family, which presents nearly the same animated and beautifully-allegorical theme: the skeleton of death is dragging down a beloved object to the grave, while the surviving one strives to keep him off.

In the centre of the chapel of St. John the Evangelist is a curious monument, erected to the memory of sir Francis Vere, a gentleman well skilled both in learning and arms; but, being brought up from his youth in the camp, he dedicated his study to the art of war, in which

he was equalled by few, and not excelled by any. The monument is a table, supported by four knights kneeling; on which lie the several parts of a complete suit of armour; and underneath the effigy of sir Francis, in a loose gown, lying on a quilt of alabaster. He died in the fifty-fourth year of his age, on the 28th of August, 1603.—In former times, there were many ancient monuments in this chapel, of which only one is now remaining. It has the figure of an abbot, in his pontifical habit, curiously engraved on brass, representing John de Eastrey, who died on the 4th of March, 1498. By the records of the church, he appears to have been a great benefactor to it. He adorned the west window with many grand paintings on glass, a small part of which still remains: he built the screen to this chapel, and presented two images, gilt, for the altars of St. Peter and St. Paul; and one for the Chapter-house. In breaking up the grave in the year 1706, the body of this abbot was discovered in a coffin quilted with yellow satin, dressed in a gown of crimson silk, fastened round his waist with a black girdle. On his legs were white silk stockings, and over his face a clean napkin, doubled up and laid corner-ways. The face was in some degree discoloured, but the legs and arms were firm. We could quote many facts of this nature, as to the long preservation of dead bodies under peculiar circumstances; but we need only refer to that of king Charles I. at p. 361 of this article.

In the chapel of Islip are two monuments deserving of notice; that of John Islip, abbot of Westminster, and founder of this chapel, and that of sir Christopher Hatton.—Islip's monument is a plain marble table, supported by four pillars of brass: above it, on the roof, was formerly a fine painting of our Saviour on the cross; which was destroyed in Cromwell's time by the puritans, who, thinking they possessed the "inward and spiritual grace," were enemies to every "outward and visible sign." Islip was employed by Henry VII. in decorating his new chapel, and in repairing and beautifying the whole abbey, to which he added several embellishments, especially the statues of our kings along the buttresses. He also projected a most superb dome, or lantern, to be erected in the centre of the cross; but the pillars were found too weak to support it. His own chapel he dedicated to St. John the Baptist; and died the second of January, in the year 1510.—The other monument is to the memory of sir Christopher Hatton, (a descendant of sir Christopher Hatton, who was chancellor of England in the reign of queen Elizabeth.) According to the inscription, he died on the 10th of September, 1619. He is represented with his lady under a handsome and well-wrought canopy, in the centre whereof is a scroll with their arms held up by naked boys. A curious conceit, and not a bad one, accompanies these two little figures: the one over the knight holds the hymeneal torch put out and reversed, to show that sir Christopher died first; the other holds his torch erect and burning over the lady, to signify that she survived him.

To please the curious and gaping multitude, in a chantry over this chapel are some oaken presses, containing the effigies in wax of queen Elizabeth, king William and queen Mary, queen Anne, general Monk, the earl of Chatham, &c. But we really think that, in the present day, such an exhibition might be dismissed to the neighbourhood of Temple Bar, to increase the stock of the celebrated Mrs. Salmon. However, a similar exhibition of crowned heads was shown at St. Denis in France; and it must be confessed that the custom of keeping waxen images of departed sovereigns, noblemen, and heroes, has been consecrated by high antiquity, since it goes back to the Augustan age, and indeed one or two centuries before the Christian æra. The funeral obsequies of the great, in ancient times, were so constantly adorned with these waxen effigies, that the word *imagines* became synonymous with *nobility*; and when, they were well executed, they really seemed to smile at the power of death.



Against the south wall of St. Erasmus's chapel is an antique stone monument, on which, under a Gothic canopy, lies the figure of a bishop properly habited, and supposed to be Thomas Ruthal, made bishop of Durham by king Henry VIII. He had been secretary of state to Henry VII. and was made a privy-counsellor, and sent abroad on various embassies by Henry VIII. He died in the year 1524. Bishop Goodwin relates the following circumstance, relative to the discovery of his possessions, which occasioned his death: Being commanded to write down a true state of the kingdom in general, for his majesty's private information, he took great pains in the performance; and, having fairly transcribed it, caused the book to be bound in vellum, gilt, and variously ornamented; and, at the same time, having taken an account of his own private estate, with an inventory of his jewels, plate, and money, he caused that likewise to be bound and ornamented exactly like the other, and laid them both carefully together in his closet. It so fell out, that the king, on some occasion, sent cardinal Wolsey in haste for the national tract which he had so long expected from Ruthal; but, by mistake, Wolsey received the book containing the schedule of the bishop's own wealth. The cardinal soon discovered the mistake, but, being willing to do Ruthal, to whom he had no liking, an ill turn, he delivered the book to the king, just as he received it, telling his majesty, that now, if he wanted money, that book would inform him where he might command a million; for so much did the bishop's inventory amount to. When the bishop discovered his error, and the trick of his enemy, it affected him so much, that he died soon after.

In the middle of this chapel is a large table-monument, erected to the memory of Thomas Cecil, earl of Exeter, a privy-counsellor to king James; on which is his effigy, in his robes, with a lady on his right side, and a vacant space for another on his left. Dorothy Nevil, his first wife, who was daughter of lord Latimer, lies on his right side; and the vacant place was intended for his second wife, Frances Bridges, of the noble family of Chandos: this lady, however, gave express orders in her will, that, as the right side was taken up, her effigy should not be placed on the left; but the bodies, agreeable to the inscription, are buried together in one vault.—On the south side of this chapel is a monument to the memory of Col. Edward Popham, and his lady; the statues of whom are in white marble, as large as the life, and stand under a lofty canopy, resting their arms in a thoughtful position on a marble altar, on which lie the gloves of an armed knight. This gentleman was an active officer in Cromwell's army, and his achievements were inscribed on his tomb. At the time of the restoration, the inscription was ordered to be defaced, and the whole monument destroyed; but at the intercession of some of his lady's relations, who had been particularly useful to his majesty, the stone on which the inscription was engraved was only inverted, and the monument received no other injury.

Nearly in the centre of St. Paul's chapel is a magnificent monument of alabaster, with pillars of Lydian marble, gilt; on the table of which lies the effigy of an old man, in a chancellor's habit, with the figures of his eight children, four sons and four daughters, kneeling on the base. This monument was erected to the memory of sir Thomas Bromley, privy-counsellor, and eight years chancellor, to queen Elizabeth, in which office he died April 12, 1587.—Here is also a monument of black touchstone, remarkably different from any other in the abbey. On the top is a circular frame of gilt brass, which encloses the bust of Anne lady Cottington, wife to Francis lord Cottington. Beneath, on a table monument, lies the effigy of her husband, resting on his left arm; and over the head of a satyr is the following inscription: "Here lies Francis lord Cottington, of Hanworth, who, in the reign of king Charles I. was chancellor of his majesty's exchequer, master of the court of wards, constable of the Tower, lord high treasurer of

England, and one of the privy-council. He was twice ambassador in Spain, once for the said king, and a second time for king Charles II. now reigning, to both which he most signally shewed his allegiance and fidelity, during the unhappy civil broils of those times; and for his faithful adherence to the crown (the usurper prevailing) was forced to fly his country, and during his exile died at Valladolid in Spain, June 19th, 1752, in the 74th year of his age; whence his body was brought, and here interred, by Charles Cottington, esq. his nephew and heir, in 1679." This great man was secretary to Charles prince of Wales, whom he attended on his journey to visit the infanta of Spain. Lady Cottington died on 22d of February, 1633, in the 33d year of her age.

Adjoining to the east wall of the chapel of St. Nicholas is a stately monument of various-coloured marble, erected to the memory of Anne duchess of Somerset, wife to Edward duke of Somerset, brother to Jane Seymour, third wife of Henry VIII. uncle to Edward VI. and sometime regent during his minority; from whom Somerset-house took its name, as related at p. 528 of this volume; and of whose disgrace and death we have spoken at large under the article ENGLAND, vol. vi. p. 644, 5. The inscription on the tomb is in Latin and English, and describes the noble lineage of this great lady, who died at Hanworth, the 16th of April, 1587, in the ninetieth year of her age.—At the door of this chapel lie the remains of that great and learned antiquary, sir Henry Spelman, who died at upwards of eighty years of age, in the year 1641.

At the entrance of St. Edmund's chapel, on the right hand, is the ancient monument of William de Valence, whose effigy lies in a cumbent posture on a chest of wainscot placed upon a tomb of grey marble; the figure is wood, covered originally with copper gilt, as was the chest in which it lies; but the greatest part has been taken away; and, of thirty small images that were placed in little brass niches round, scarcely one remains entire. He was treacherously slain at Bayonne in the year 1296; but his body, being brought to England, was interred in this chapel, and an indulgence of one hundred days granted to all devout people who should pray for the welfare of his soul.—Near this is a most magnificent monument, partly inclosed, to the memory of Edward Talbot, eighth earl of Shrewsbury, who died February the 8th, 1617, aged fifty-seven; and his lady, Jane, eldest daughter and coheirs of Cuthbert baron Ogle, whose effigies in their robes lie on a black marble table, supported by a pedestal of alabaster. This monument is finely ornamented, and the carving on the various-coloured marble is exquisite. The inscription contains nothing more than his titles and character, which is indeed very high: he was honourable without pride; potent without ostentation; religious without superstition; liberal both in mind and bounty; warded ever against fortune, his whole life was a path of justice; and his innocence, escaping envy, continued through the whole course of his life.—On the east side of this chapel is a monument erected to the memory of John of Eltham, second son of king Edward II. and so called from Eltham in Kent, the place of his nativity. His statue is of white alabaster, the head encircled in a coronet of greater and less leaves, and his habit is that of an armed knight. He died in Scotland at the age of nineteen, unmarried, though three different matches had been proposed to him; the last of which, to Mary, daughter of Ferdinand king of Spain, he accepted, but did not live to consummate it. His funeral was so magnificent and costly, that the prior and convent demanded one hundred pounds (a great sum at that time) for a horse and armour presented there on the day of his interment.

On the east side of St. Benedict's chapel, where once stood the altar of St. Benedict, is a beautiful monument, composed of various kinds of marble, erected to the memory of Frances countess of Hertford, who is here represented in her robes in a cumbent posture, with her head resting on an embroidered cushion, and her feet on a lion's back.



back.—Between this chapel and the next, against the wall, is a monument of mosaic work, the sides in plain panels, but the top of the table wrought in figures, said to be done with the same kind of stones as the floor before the altar, and erected for the children of Henry I. and Edward I. Over this tomb is something which seems to have been a piece of church-persepective, but now almost defaced. This certainly was once a rich and costly monument; for in the records of the Tower, there is the king's order for erecting such a one in this place, and for allowing Master Simon de Wells five marks and a half, to defray his expenses in bringing from the city a handsome brass image to set upon his daughter Catharine's tomb; and for paying to Simon de Gloucester, the king's goldsmith, for a silver image for the like purpose, the sum of seventy marks.

On the north side of the area, adjoining to St. Andrew's chapel, is the superb monument erected at the expense of the nation to the memory of general Wolfe. The front of the pediment represents the landing of the troops at Quebec, and the difficulties they had to encounter in getting up their cannon and climbing the rocks; and in the background is a representation of the city, with the engagement. The monument is supported by lions; and on each side of it is a medallion, with a wolf's head. The general appears in the agonies of death, supported by a grenadier, who seems to express, by pointing with his finger to a distance, that the victory is gained. Behind the general is the faithful Highland serjeant who attended him, leaning on his halbert, and looking at the dying hero with admiration and grief. At the feet of the general lie his hat, fusée, gorget, &c. Near these is the representation of a tent, underneath which is a group of figures. Behind the tent is seen a large tree, and by it lie a tomahawk, scalping-knife, and hatchet, the Indian weapons of war. On the top of the monument is the figure of Victory descending with a crown of laurel to immortalize the dying victor. See the article ENGLAND, vol. vi. p. 725.

Nearly opposite to these are three ancient tombs, now almost obliterated.—The first of free-stone, made like a close bed, was walled up, and another tomb placed against it. This monument was covered with an ancient Gothic arch, the sides adorned with vine-branches in relief, and the roof within springing into many angles, under which lies the image of a lady in a very antique dress, her feet resting upon lions, and her head on pillows supported by angels, sitting on each side the effigy, gilt and painted. On the side of the tomb are six niches, in which seem to have been painted monks, and on the pedestal are still to be seen some remains of paintings. This monument covered the remains of Aveline countess of Lancaster, who died the 4th of November, 1293, the very year of her marriage. This lady was daughter to William de Fortibus, earl of Albemarle and Holderness, and married Edmund earl of Lancaster, son to king Henry II.—Adjoining to this is another ancient monument of grey marble, erected to the memory of Aymer de Valence, second and last earl of Pembroke of this family, who was poisoned in France, by the contrivance of the earl of Arundel, the 23d of June, 1324. He had been three times married, but had no issue by either of his wives. In the time of Edward I. he was a great general; and not only attended that prince in his expedition to Flanders, but likewise accompanied him to Scotland, where that king died.—The third is an ancient monument to the memory of Edmund Crouchback, fourth son to Henry III. so called, as is supposed by some, from the deformity of his person; while others imagine it arose from his attending his brother in the holy wars, where they wore a crouch, or cross, on their shoulders, as a badge of Christianity. On the base of the tomb, towards the area, are the remains of a curious, and perhaps the most antique English painting extant, but much defaced; being ten knights armed with banners, surcoats of armour, and cross-belted, representing undoubtedly his expedition to

the Holy Land, the number exactly agreeing with what Matthew Paris reports, namely, Edward and his brother, four earls and four knights. It was originally a very lofty monument, painted, gilt, and inlaid with stained glass. The inside of the canopy has been a sky with stars, but by time is changed into a dull red.—From this prince the house of Lancaster claimed their right to the crown.

In this area lie the remains of many persons of note, among whom may be mentioned Anne of Cleves, who was married to Henry VIII. on the 9th of January, 1539, and in July following divorced, with liberty to retire to the continent, and to marry again; but she remained in England, and saw the rival who had supplanted her in the king's affection suffer a worse fate. (See vol. vi. p. 640.) She died in 1557, four years after the king.—Near the ashes of this lady lie those of a more unfortunate queen, Anne, daughter of the great earl of Warwick, and wife to Richard III. She was poisoned by her husband to make way for his marriage with Elizabeth, daughter of his brother Edward IV. This marriage, however, was never consummated, Richard being slain at the battle of Bosworth.—Here are also the remains of an ancient monument, erected to the memory of Sebert king of the East Saxons, who first built this church, and died in July 616, as mentioned more than once in our survey. This monument is one of the most respectable in the whole minister, on account of its antiquity; but is little remarked, because of its simplicity, except when the verger, with his learned wand, chooses to descant upon it. We find, above this small monument, four canopies supported with slender columns, and in the middle an ancient painting of some saint, as we suppose by the faded honours of a halo round the head; but we are told that it is the effigy of Sebert himself, and we see no harm in believing it. We first noticed this precious specimen of ancient painting about two and twenty years ago; it seemed to have been painted about the time of building this part of the church; and, when we surveyed it lately, found the colours much more faded. We take it to be painted on wood, and in water-colours.

Leaving this, we proceed to one of the most interesting spots in the whole church; since it is not a long descent of royal ancestors, or the splendour of titles, or the immensity of wealth, that has obtained a place in this south part of the transept, but genius, wit, and individual worth; on that account it is called the Poets' Corner. Here the monuments, as we remarked before in general, are so particularly crowded upon each other, that they obscure or entirely conceal from the view some of the most ancient; as if it were, with the dead as with the living, an unavoidable rule, that new comers should supersede the old ones. And besides, the confusion amongst those which are visible is such as to bewilder the eye of the spectator, and cause him to pass over, unheeded, many beautiful specimens of sepulchral architecture, which, were they isolated, would command his admiration. What must be our feelings of respect and regret, when we consider that we are treading the ashes and surrounded by the effigies of the favorites of the muses, whose works have immortalized their names, and with them the country which gave them birth. Could the wand of the verger call these worthies out of the "chambers of Death," how should we shrink at the sight of the *magna umbra*, the venerable shade, of the father of our poetry, Chaucer; of the elegant Spenser; of the first dramatist in the world, Shakespeare; of the most elevated epic writer, Milton! Dryden and Addison, Cowley, Prior, Butler, Rowe, Gay, Goldsmith, Mason, Thomson, and others, would surround us; whilst our attention would be taken up by the acting of Garrick, and the melodious sounds vibrating in the air about the ghost of Handel!

To return to the monuments. Several of them are very elegant, and do honour at once to their objects, their erectors, and the artists who executed them. That to the memory of Matthew Prior is beautiful, and richly ornamented. On one side of the pedestal stands the figure of Thalia, one of the nine muses, with a flute in her hand; and



on the other, History, with her book shut; between both is the bust of the deceased upon a raised altar of fine marble. Over this is a handsome pediment, on the ascending sides of which are two boys, one with an hour-glass in his hand run out; the other holding a torch reversed. On the apex of the pediment is an urn, and on the base of the monument a long inscription, setting forth the principal employments in which he had been engaged; all which he executed with uncommon address, and the most firm integrity. On the outermost side of the bust is a Latin inscription, importing, that, while he was busied in writing the history of his own times, death interposed, and broke the thread of his discourse and of his life, on the 18th of September, 1721, in the 57th year of his age.

The design and workmanship of Shakespeare's monument are both extremely elegant. In the figure of the immortal bard the sculptor has most delicately expressed his attitude, his dress, his genteel air, and fine composure. The heads on the altar on which he leans, which are likewise proper ornaments to grace the tomb, represent Henry V. Richard III. and queen Elizabeth. In short, the taste here shown does honour to those great names under whose direction, by the public favour, it was so elegantly constructed; namely, the earl of Burlington, Dr. Mead, Mr. Pope, and Mr. Martin. It was designed by Kent, and executed by Scheemakers; and the expense defrayed by the grateful contributions of the public. Instead of a long and labour'd inscription, the following appropriate lines, from his own play of the Tempest, appear on a scroll:

The cloud-capp'd towers, the gorgeous palaces,  
The solemn temples, the great globe itself;  
Yea, all which it inherit, shall dissolve,  
And, like the baseless fabric of a vision,  
Leave not a wreck behind.

The monument erected in 1762 to the memory of the elegant poet of the Seasons, &c. is well designed and well executed. The invention we owe to Mr. Adam, the workmanship to Michael Henry Spang. Thomson is represented sitting with his left arm leaning on a pedestal; holding a book in one hand, and in the other the cap of Liberty, in allusion to his poem of that name and his independent principles. Bas-relievs on the pedestal exhibit the four seasons, to which a boy points with his finger, and offers a crown of laurel to the genius who sang them so well. An ancient lyre and a mask are deposited at the feet of the figure; and the whole is supported by a socle, upon which we read the following inscription: JAMES THOMSON, Ætatis 48. Obiit 27 Aug. 1748. "Tutored by thee, sweet Poetry exalts her voice to ages, and informs the page with music, image, sentiment, and thought, never to die."

Against the fourth wall of this cross is a lofty and magnificent monument, inclosed with rails, and decorated with figures as large as life, erected to the memory of John duke of Argyle and Greenwich. The figure of Minerva is on one side of the base, and that of Eloquence on the other; the one looking sorrowfully up at the principal figure above, the other pathetically displaying the public loss at his death. On the top is the figure of History, with one hand holding a book, and with the other writing, on a pyramid of finely-coloured marble, the titles of the hero whose actions are supposed to be contained in the book; on the cover of which, in letters of gold are inscribed the date of his grace's death, Oct. 1743. On the pyramid is the epitaph in verse; under which is written in large letters,

JOHN DUKE OF ARGYLE AND GR  
at which point the pen of History stops; the latter title having become extinct on his death.

On the west wall is Handel's monument, the last which that eminent statuary Roubiliac lived to finish; and it is a curious fact, that this ingenious sculptor first became conspicuous, and afterwards closed his labours as an artist, with a figure of this extraordinary man. The first was erected in the gardens at Vauxhall, (see LAMBERT, vol. xii. p. 804.) and the last is this monument; in which

the whole figure is very elegant and highly finished, and the face is said to be a strong likeness. The left arm is resting on a group of musical instruments, and the attitude is expressive of great attention to the harmony of an angel playing on a harp in the clouds over his head. Before it lies the celebrated Messiah, with that part open, where is the much-admired air, *I know that my Redeemer liveth*. Underneath is the following short inscription: "George Frederic Handel, born February 23, 1684, died April, 14, 1759."

Near this is a very elegant monument, erected to the memory of that eminent divine and philosopher, Dr. Stephen Hales. In the front are two beautiful figures in relief; the one representing Botany, the other Religion. The first is presenting a medallion of this great explorer of nature to public view; the latter is deploring the loss of the divine. At the feet of Botany, the winds are displayed on a globe, which alludes to his invention of ventilators. See vol. ix. p. 171.

On the same side is the monument erected to the memory of David Garrick. It consists of a figure of this unrivalled actor, in an animated position, throwing aside a curtain, which discovers a medallion of the great poet whom he has illustrated; while Tragedy and Comedy, adorned with their respective emblems, and supported by a pedestal, seem to approve the tribute. The caressing attitude, airy figure, and smiling countenance, of the Comic Muse, is indicative of the satisfaction she derives from at length beholding a memorial of her favourite; while Melpomene, with a more majestic and dignified mien, raising her veil, gazes with characteristic admiration on the "sovereign of the willing soul," whom she at once delights in and deplors. The similitude to Garrick will be felt by every spectator who holds the features of the original in remembrance; and where is the person of taste, who has seen him, even once, and can forget the resemblance? The back ground is formed of a beautiful dove-coloured marble, to relieve the figures, which are in pure statuary marble. Garrick died in January 1779, when he wanted about a month to complete his 62d year, though on this monument he is declared to be 63 years old, and on that in Lichfield cathedral 64.

The tomb to the memory of Geoffrey Chaucer was erected by, and at the expense of, Nicholas Bingham, in 1556. It is elegant; and, though small, displays the luxuriance of the Gothic style of that time.

A plain tablet with a pediment, and supported by two consols with wreaths of laurel, constitutes the monument of Spenser. The following inscription is neatly engraved on the tablet. "Here lyes (expecting the second comynge of our Saviour Christ Jesus) the body of EDMOND SPENSER, the prince of poets in his tyme; whose divine spirit needs noe othir witnesse then the works which he left behind him. He was born in London in the yeare 1510, and died in the yeare 1596." According to Camden, the original inscription was in Latin; and, as Spenser was buried near the tomb of Chaucer, the following allusive epitaph was added to the inscription; though it tastes a little of the monkish style, it has yet so much point about it that we think it worthy of being preserved in our survey. It runs thus:

*Hic prope Chaucerum situs est Spenserus, ut illi,  
Proximus ingenio, proximus et tumulo.  
Hic prope Chaucerum, Spensere poeta, poetam  
Conderis, et versu quam tumulo proprior.  
Anglica, te vivo, vixit viguitque poësis:  
Nunc peritura timet, te moriente, mori.*

Dart, in his beautiful History of the Antiquities of Westminster Abbey, has it translated as follows:

Here plac'd near Chaucer, Spenser claims a room;  
As next to him in merit, next his tomb.  
To place near Chaucer, Spenser lays a claim:  
Near him his tomb, but nearer still his fame.  
With thee, our English verse was rais'd on high;  
But, now declining, fears with thee to die.



The next monument, which calls our attention, is that of Butler, the justly-celebrated author of "Hudibras." His fame, like the report of a gun in the vales and on the lakes of Scotland, Wales, or Cumberland, still resounds in our ears, long after the flash has vanished from the sight. Many of the allusions which were so plain to our ancestors, have lost their sharpness of point; yet the composition is so original, and the verse so pleasingly quaint, that the work will be read and admired as long as our tongue shall last. It is a plain monument, consisting merely of a pyramidal slab of marble; and a bust crowned with ivy, to denote his propensity to satirize; for it must not be forgotten, that the ivy-leaf was used to adorn the heads of the satiric, as the laurel did the temples of the lyric poets. Two antique masks support the inscription, which is in Latin, and ends to the following purport: "Lest he, who (when alive) was destitute of all things, should (when dead) want a monument, John Barber, citizen of London, took care, &c." It will be seen, by referring to our article BUTLER, vol. iii. p. 550, that a subscription was solicited, but in vain, for his interment in this place; and that it was not till fifty years after that an admirer of wit and talent was found to erect a monument to his memory at his own expense. Our printer desires us to add, that Mr. Barber was a printer, and lord-mayor of London; and that no printer since his time has attained that high honour.

It is curious enough to find here a monument erected to a French nobleman. *Mons. de St. Evremond*, so well known for his bravery and his literary talents, (see vol. vii. p. 82.) has here his bust and an elegant inscription. The whole is in marble. A curious prominence is very conspicuous between his eyebrows, and gives a sort of frown to the countenance of a man who was so eminent for his amiability.

Cowley's memory is preserved by a simple funeral urn elegantly carved and adorned with a laurel wreath. Under it, is a long and elegant Latin epitaph.—Dryden's bust is adorned with a laurel-branch encircling his head; here good sense has prevailed for once over the rage for long epitaphs; and it has been esteemed a sublime thought to place only his name under his image. The fame is remarked on the grave of the author of the "Jerusalem Delivered:" *Ossa di Tasso*, "The bones of Tasso."—And indeed, why should more be said upon the sepulchres of men whose fame extends over the literary world, and will survive the hardest marble; of men who may say with Horace, *Execi monumentum ere perennius, non omnis moriar*; "I have achieved a monument more durable than brass—I shall not entirely die." Indeed we are told that this very ode was sung over his remains previous to interment. See DRYDEN, vol. vi. p. 96.

The author of the "Splendid Shilling" has not been forgotten; and indeed, though his works are not very numerous, they perhaps make up in quality for what they may appear to want in quantity; a medallion, containing his profile, is surrounded by a laurel-tree on one side and the branches of an apple-tree on the other; this last, in allusion to his native country Herefordshire, and his ingenious poem on Cyder. Above we read this motto from Virgil's Second Eclogue: *Honus erit huic quoque pomo*; "Honour shall also be paid to this apple;" a very happy and appropriate allusion.—Our modern poet Mason has here his profile in a circle, with two ancient masks; and Addison has of late received the long-merited honours of a statue which is very masterly executed: he stands aloft on a high pedestal, as an intelligent "Spectator" of what surrounds him, and seems to utter what we quoted above in speaking of Dryden's monument. The inscription is elegant and classical, but too prolix for our columns.

At the north-west corner of this cross is an ancient monument to the great recorder of our antiquities, William Camden, who is represented in a half-length; in the habit of his time, with his left hand holding a book, and in his right his gloves, resting on an altar, on the body of

which is a Latin inscription, setting forth his indefatigable industry in illustrating the British antiquities, and his candour, sincerity, and pleasant good humour, in private life. This monument has been repaired and beautified, and inclosed with iron rails, at the expense of the university of Oxford, where he received his education.

Among the stones which compose the pavement of this cross, are many memorials of "the silent tenants of the house appointed for all living;" which barely record their names and ages. The most remarkable of these, is that which covers the ashes of Thomas Parr, who was born in the county of Salop, in the year 1483. He lived in the reigns of ten princes, namely, Edward IV. Edward V. Richard III. Henry VII. Henry VIII. Edward VI. queen Mary, queen Elizabeth, James I. and Charles I. and, having attained the great age of 152 years, was buried here, November 15th, 1635. One of the extraordinary circumstances attending the life of this wonderful old man, is, that at the age of one hundred and thirty, a prosecution was instituted against him for bastardy, and with such effect, that he did penance publicly in church for that offence.

Almost at the south-west corner, is an ancient stone of grey marble, on which, by the marks, has been the figure of a man in armour. It covers the remains of John Haule, a soldier of fortune in the reign of Richard II. and Henry IV. At the battle of Najara in Spain, he, together with John Shakel, his comrade, took the earl of Denia prisoner, who, under pretence of raising money for his ransom, obtained his liberty, leaving his son as surety in their hands. Upon their coming to England, John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, demanded him for the king; but they refused to deliver him up without a ransom, and were therefore both committed to the Tower; from whence escaping, they took sanctuary in this abbey. Sir Ralph Ferreris and Alan Buxal, the one governor, the other captain, of the Tower, with fifty men, pursued them; and having, by fair promises, gained over Shakel, they attempted to seize Haule by force, who made a desperate defence; but, being overpowered by numbers, was slain Aug. 11, 1378, in the choir, before the prior's stall, commending himself to God the avenger of wrongs; and, at the same, a servant of the abbey fell with him. Sudbury, archbishop of Canterbury, made this breach of privilege the ground of a complaint to parliament; and the church was shut up for four months, till it was purified from this profanation. The offenders were excommunicated, a large sum of money paid to the church, and all its privileges, confirmed in the next parliament. Shakel had been thrown into prison, but was afterwards set at liberty; and the king and council of England agreed to pay him, for the ransom of his prisoner, five hundred marks, and one hundred marks per annum. Some years afterwards Shakel died, and was likewise buried here, in 1396.

In the south aisle is a stately monument to the memory of sir Cloudesey Shovel; on the base of which is represented in bas-relief the ship Association, in which the admiral failed, striking against a rock, with several others perishing at the same time. See the article ENGLAND, vol. vi. p. 705.—The execution of this monument has been censured by many men of judgment, and among others by Mr. Addison, who complains, that, instead of the rough bravery which should characterize a seaman, the figure of the gallant admiral is represented in the garb of a beau, reposing on velvet cushions under a canopy of state; he likewise objects to the inscription, which, instead of reciting the long and faithful services of which this memorial is said to be the just reward, relates only the manner of his death, from which he could not obtain any glory. But, with all these defects, the aggregate is not undeserving of notice.

Within the gates which separate the western part of the church from the south cross is a neat monument in statuary marble, composed of a sarcophagus elevated on a pedestal, to the memory of major André, who was hanged



as a spy during the American war. The story is told on the front of the sarcophagus; but several of the figures have been mutilated by party-hands.

General Hargrave's monument is the production of Roubiliac. It consists of the representation of the resurrection of a body from a sarcophagus, and of a conflict between Time and Death, wherein the former, proving victorious, divests his antagonist of his power by breaking his dart, and tumbling him down. Above is a great pile of building in a state of dissolution, and a cherub in the clouds sounding the last trumpet. The whole is finely imagined, and as ingeniously executed. This gentleman was lieutenant general of his majesty's forces, colonel of the royal English fusileers, and governor of Gibraltar; who, having been fifty-seven years a commissioned officer, died the 21st of January, 1748, aged 79.

Over the door which opens into the cloisters is a very stately monument for general Wade. In the centre is a beautiful marble pillar, enriched with military trophies exquisitely wrought. The principal figures represent Fame pushing back Time, who is eagerly approaching to pull down the pillar, with the ensigns of honour that adorn it. Wade had deserved a monument for the improvement he made in the roads through the Highlands of Scotland, and afterwards for his services during the rebellion. See the article ENGLAND, vol. vi. p. 718. The general's head is in a medallion; and the inscription bears, that he died March 14, 1748, aged 75.

Between the pillars on the south side of the nave, stood very awkwardly for some time a monument to the memory of captain Montague, who was killed in the engagement on the 1st of June, 1794, under earl Howe. A majestic figure of the captain stands on a marble pedestal, with his hand resting on a sword. Over his head is a figure of Victory descending with a crown of laurel. In front of the pedestal is a representation of the engagement; and on the back of it a trophy of naval flags waving over a group of prisoners. This is a very classical composition, and does honour to the artist, Mr. Flaxman, who first introduced detached monuments into this abbey.—Directly opposite, and in a similar situation, was a monument to the memory of captains Harvey and Hutt, who died of the wounds they received in the same action. It is composed of two colossal figures of Britannia and Fame, placed one on each side of a large vase, on which are medallions of the deceased captains. Britannia is decorating the vase with laurel, while Fame points to the names of the heroes engraved on the base which supports it. On the front of the pedestal is a representation in alto-relievo of that part of the action in which they were engaged; over which is a small flying angel, with a palm-branch in one hand, and a pair of scales in the other. The design of this monument, which is by Mr. Bacon, jun. is very happy; and the figures are very elegantly sculptured.—Both of these monuments were erected at the public expence: they have since been removed from their unsightly position, and carried against the wall on the north side.

On the south side is a very magnificent monument to the memory of admiral Tyrrell, designed and executed by Mr. Read, who was pupil to the celebrated Roubiliac. On the top of the monument is an archangel descending with a trumpet, summoning the admiral to eternity from the sea. The clouds, moving and separating, discover the celestial light and choir of cherubs, who appear singing praises to the Almighty; the back-ground representing darkness. The admiral's countenance, with his right-hand to his breast, is expressive of conscientious hope; his left arm significant of seeing something wonderfully awful. He appears rising out of the sea from behind a large rock, whereon are placed his arms, with the emblems of Valour, Prudence, and Justice. The sea is discerned over the rock at the extremity of sight, where clouds and water seem to join. On one side the rock, an angel has written this inscription: "The sea shall give up her dead, and every one shall be rewarded according to their works." In her

left hand is a celestial crown, the reward of virtue, and her right hand is extended towards the admiral. Hibernia is leaning on a globe, with her finger on that part of it where his body was committed to the sea, lamenting the loss of her favourite son. On one side the rock is the Buckingham (the admiral's ship), the masts disabled; on the other side a large flag, with the trophies of war, near which is the following inscription; "Sacred to the memory of Richard Tyrrel, esq. who was descended from an ancient family in Ireland, and died rear-admiral of the white on the 26th day of June, 1766, in the 50th year of his age. He distinguished himself as an able and experienced officer in many gallant actions, particularly on the third of November, 1758, when, commanding the Buckingham of 66 guns, he attacked and defeated three French ships of war. In this action he received several wounds, and lost three fingers of his right hand. Dying on his return to England from the Leeward Islands, where he had for three years commanded a squadron of his majesty's ships, his body, according to his own desire, was committed to the sea, with the proper honours and ceremonies."

On the same side, near the great west door, is a noble monument to the memory of captain Cornwall, who was killed in the battle between the English fleet under Matthews and Lestock, and the combined French and Spanish fleets. This monument, which is thirty-six feet high, has at the back of it a pyramid of rich Sicilian marble, beautifully variegated and finely polished, standing upon a base of the same marble. Against the pyramid is a rock, embellished with naval trophies, sea-weeds, &c. in which are two cavities: in the one is a Latin epitaph; in the other, a view of the sea-fight before Toulon, in basso relievo; in the fore-ground whereof, the Marlborough, of 90 guns, is seen fiercely engaged with admiral Navarro's ship, the Real, of 114 guns, and her two seconds, all raking the Marlborough fore and aft. On the rock stand two figures: the one represents Britannia under the character of Minerva, accompanied with a lion; the other is expressive of Fame, who, having presented to Minerva a medallion of the hero, supports it, whilst exhibited to public view. The medallion is accompanied with a globe, and various honorary crowns, as due to valour. Behind the figures is a lofty spreading palm-tree, whereon is fixed the hero's shield or coat of arms, together with a laurel-tree; both which issue from the naturally-barren rock, as alluding to some heroic and uncommon event.

Over the door is the monument voted by parliament to Mr. Pitt, which was opened on Sunday, the 8th of August, 1813; and of which we have spoken slightly at p. 142 of this article. Mr. Carter, in the Gentleman's Magazine for that month, has spoken of it also, and in the following terms: "The Pittite groupe, hoisted so far above the ken of human sight, is a composition of the enormous kind, in bringing out a colossal Statesman, Anarchy as a true monster, and History, moulded in a Patagonian frame, destitute of grace or delicacy. Mr. Pitt's brawny and athletic contour makes the beholder tremble; who, doubtful whether the uplifted arm is intended to enforce attention, or to fell the foes of Old England into dust and atoms, shrinks from the investigation of the skill of the artist; and, as he re-treads his steps towards the door, looks up apace, and sees the leg-like arch of mortal frame—striding over the subdued foe to his country's peace, fell Anarchy. If I cannot delight in certain strokes of the chisel in this portion of the sepulchral analogy, what will be expected from me in describing the beauties of the statue of History? Indeed, were we not told that such is the intention of the character, no one could possibly discover the same. A huge *masculine* female form, sitting, most unmannerly, with the back towards you, and what is more, towards the altar; scorning to show her face (not through bashfulness forsooth) or the employ she is engaged in." We know that the City of London turns her back to the people at Guildhall on the monuments of lord Chatham and of Nelson: the first was forgiven on



account of the beauty of the execution; the second was severely and justly reprov'd in the public prints at the time; and we are sorry to find here the same *preposterous* attitude. Were this figure to turn about, and were a high pyramidal slab of grey marble placed behind, the whole would assume an air of grandeur and a fitness of composition which are now wanting.—The figure of Anarchy is a good one, but not well defined; and a friend has suggested that it is meant for the Demon of War; but to this we cannot assent; for Mr. Pitt gained no advantage over the Demon of War, but that personage most assuredly slew Mr. Pitt at (or by means of) the battle of Austerlitz. To this our friend replies, that it may have been designed prematurely and prophetically, and that it has turned eventually to the honour of the prophetic mind of the artist, because Mr. Pitt's plan of foreign coalition has ultimately, though *posthumously*, prostrated the Demon of War, and given peace to Europe. We must leave the reader to judge between our friend and us, according to the rule of his own political creed. We have but one more remark to make; viz. it is not true that the higher an object the more conspicuous; and this is another defect attached to this monument: it is placed too high to be seen with advantage.

We looked on every side for the monument of Mr. Pitt's great rival, Mr. Fox, whose friends might have long ago honoured the eloquent marble with the faithful expression of their regret; but our search was fruitless.

Turning, therefore, right to the north, we visit the monument of Gen. Killigrew, a fine piece of sculpture, the embellishments very picturesque, and the inscription modest. It is as follows: "Robert Killigrew, of Arwenack, in Cornwall, esq. Page of Honour to Charles II. Brigadier-general of her Majesty's Forces; killed in Spain, in the Battle of Almanza, April 14th, 1707. *Ætatis suæ* 47. Militavit Annis 24." But the greatest singularity of this monument is, that it is cut out of a single stone.

In the north cross, on the west side of the screen of the transept, is a monument to the memory of the benevolent Jonas Hanway, erected by the voluntary subscription of his friends and of the Marine Society, of which he was one of the founders. It consists of a pyramid of black marble, standing on a pedestal of the same. At the top of the pyramid is a lamp, emblematic of eternal light; and on the face of it is a medallion of the deceased, immediately under which is a sarcophagus, supposed to contain his remains. It is decorated at the top with his arms, festoons, &c. and on the body of it is a relieve of Britannia, seated on her lion, and surrounded by the emblems of Government, Peace and War, Trade and Navigation, with a benign countenance, distributing clothing to an almost-naked boy, alluding to the charitable purpose for which the Marine Society was instituted. A second boy is supplicating for the like bounty, his distress is visible in his imploring countenance; and a third, who appears to be made happy, by being fitted out, and trained for sea, supports a ship's rudder with one hand, and, with the other, points up to his benefactor. Above the sarcophagus, on the right-hand side of the pyramid, flies the British flag over a conquered one; and on the other side is the banner of the Society, with its motto, "Charity and Policy United." See HANWAY, vol. ix. p. 217, 18.

On the east side of the screen, near the north door, is a most magnificent monument erected by a vote of parliament to the memory of the late earl of Chatham, and executed by Mr. Bacon, the same ingenious artist that was employed to erect his lordship's monument in Guildhall. It consists of six principal figures: in a niche, in the upper part of a grand pyramid, is placed the statue of the earl of Chatham, in his parliamentary robes; he is represented in the action of speaking, the right-hand thrown forward, and elevated, and the whole attitude strongly expressive of that species of oratory for which his lordship was so deservedly famed. On a sarcophagus, underneath, recline Prudence and Fortitude; and below these

is Britannia seated on a rock, with Ocean and the Earth at her feet; intended to depict the effect of his wisdom and fortitude in the greatness and glory of the nation. Prudence has her usual symbols, a serpent twisted round a mirror: Fortitude is characterized by the shaft of a column, and is clothed in a lion's skin: the energy of this figure is strongly contrasted by the repose and contemplative character of Prudence. Britannia, as mistress of the sea, holds in her right hand the trident of Neptune, while her left is supported by her own shield. Ocean is represented leaning on a dolphin, with a severe countenance and an agitated action, which is opposed by the great ease in the figure of the Earth, who reclines on a terrestrial globe, with her head crowned with fruit, which also lies in profusion at the foot of the pyramid.

Adjoining to this is another national monument, erected to the memory of three captains, who lost their lives in the engagements between the British fleet under lord Rodney, and the French fleet under count de Grasse, in the West Indies, in April 1782. The back ground is formed by a tall pyramid, before which stands a rostrated column of black marble, on which a genius hangs three medallions, containing the portraits of the captains. Round the upper one is inscribed, LORD ROBERT MANNERS, aged 24; and round the other two, CAPTAIN WILLIAM BAYNE, aged 50, and CAPTAIN WILLIAM BLAIR, aged 41. At the foot of the column is the figure of Neptune, sitting on a sea-horse, and pointing out the portraits of the heroes to Britannia, (who stands on the other side, with a countenance finely expressive of sorrow,) as examples for posterity to emulate, and worthy of their country's gratitude. On the top of the column is an elegant figure of Fame, holding a crown of laurel. On the right side of the pedestal, which supports the pyramid, is a globe, &c. and on the left a naval trophy.—Considered as a whole, this monument, which is by Nollekins, has a grand and impressive effect. The figure of Neptune is particularly classical, the left hand and arm imitatively executed; and the grouping of the figures does great honour to the taste, talents, and genius, of the sculptor.

Between this monument and the nave, is that erected to the memory of the earl of Mansfield, and the first which was placed between the pillars of the abbey, without a wall to block up the arch, and destroy the beauty of the building for the sake of the monument. This monument is by Flaxman. The earl is represented in judge's robes, sitting on the judgment-seat, which is placed on a circular elevation of peculiar elegance: in his left hand he holds a scroll of parchment; his right hand rests on his knees, and his left foot is a little advanced. This attitude is taken from the celebrated painting by sir Joshua Reynolds; but is executed with so much judgment and spirit by the sculptor, that it has the appearance of being done from the life. On his right hand, Justice holds a balance equally poised; and on his left hand, Wisdom is reading in the Book of Law. Between the statues of Wisdom and Justice is a trophy, composed of the earl's family-arms, surmounted by the coronet, the mantle of honour, the fasces, or rods of justice, and the currana, or sword of mercy. On the back of the chair is the earl's motto, *Uni Æquus Virtuti*, inclosed in a crown of laurel. Under it is a figure of Death, as sometimes represented by the ancients; a beautiful youth, leaning on an extinguished torch; and on each side of this figure is a funeral altar.

Sir Peter Warren's is a most superb monument of white marble, executed by Roubiliac. Against the wall is a large flag hanging to the flag-staff, and spreading in natural folds behind the whole monument. In the front is a fine figure of Hercules placing sir Peter's bust on its pedestal; and on one side is a figure of Navigation, with a wreath of laurel in her hand, gazing on the bust, with a look of melancholy mixed with admiration. Behind her is a cornucopia, pouring out fruit, corn, the fleece, &c. and by it is a cannon, an anchor, and other decorations.



Through a certain policy of the vergers or of those under whose orders they act, the public has been long excluded from the chapels, and the aisles which surround the choir; but, till lately, the nave and the monuments which it contains were still accessible to public curiosity; and we remember the time when, from Poets' Corner to the other part of the transept, we could freely indulge in meditative contemplation upon the havock death has made among our worthies: the west door was kept open from morning till dusk. But now, that policy has shut us out almost entirely from the abbey. Poets' Corner and a few yards of the south aisle are the only places of free admittance; and it is curious to see the *cicerones* of freebribery exhibition running after their customers, and keeping a vigilant eye upon strangers and stragglers, lest they should steal into these sacred abodes without paying their one-and-ninence, the present fee to see the tombs.

In that little nook of the south aisle, we have remarked, among others, two new but small mementos in white marble.—The first is to the worthy Isaac Watts, D.D. A tablet with a plain inscription, containing his name; the time of his birth, July 17, 1674; and of his death, Nov. 25, 1748; is surmounted by a very striking likeness of this celebrated man, who was at once a profound philosopher, a respectable divine, and an elegant poet. Under the inscription is a sort of medallion allusive to his poetical genius, well designed and executed by Mr. Banks: but we are sorry to find, that, though placed, as it was supposed, out of the reach of boys, the delicacy of the figures has yielded to the destructive hands of carelessness or wantonness. The head of the Genius who seemed to inspire the writer, has been knocked off.—Nearly opposite, half hidden from sight by the prominence of the pillar and the *cartouche* of another monument, we find the bust of Paschale Paoli, with a long epitaph. This Corsican, who, in his time made some noise, and was most benevolently treated by our monarch, was, we understand, the godfather of another Corsican, who has likewise made a very great noise in the world; and, after swaying nearly the whole of the continent of Europe, is now quiet in the neighbouring island of Elba, where, like the empty shell of a bomb after its explosion, he remains silent; but, perhaps at a future time he may again rise, again astonish and terrify, and then sink for ever into oblivion.—Under the tablet which contains the inscription, is a small shield surmounted with a ducal coronet. The bearing is a dexter arm in armour holding a sword. Whether these are family-arms, or a device adopted by Paoli, we have not been able to ascertain. Why the ducal coronet should be there, is, to us, another problem; upon which we can only remark, that, in general, the coronet commonly set upon arms in Italy and some other foreign countries, resembles the ducal coronet of the English blazon.

On the north side of the entrance into the choir is a beautiful monument erected to the great sir Isaac Newton. He is represented in a recumbent posture, leaning his right arm on four books, thus titled: Divinity, Chronology, Optics, and Phil. Prin. Math. and pointing to a scroll supported by winged cherubs. Over him is a large globe, projecting from a pyramid behind, whereon is delineated the course of the comet in 1680, with the signs, constellations, and planets. On this globe sits the figure of Astronomy, with her book shut, and in a thoughtful and composed mood. Beneath the principal figure is a most curious relief, representing the various labours in which sir Isaac chiefly employed his time; such as discovering the cause of gravitation, settling the principles of light and colours, and reducing the coinage to a determined standard. The device of weighing the sun by the steel-yard, has been thought at once bold and striking; and, indeed, the whole monument does honour to the sculptor. The inscription on the pedestal is in Latin, short, but full of meaning; and intimates, that, by a spirit nearly divine, he solved, on principles of his own, the motion and figure of the planets, the paths of the comets, and the ebbing

and flowing of the sea; that he discovered the dissimilarity of the rays of light, and the properties of colours from thence arising, which none but himself had ever thought of; that he was a diligent, wise, and faithful, interpreter of nature, antiquity, and the holy scriptures; that by his philosophy he maintained the dignity of the Supreme Being; and, by the purity of his life, the simplicity of the gospel. He was born on the 25th of December, 1642; and died on the 20th of March, 1726-7. See the article NEWTON.—On the other side of the entrance into the choir is a magnificent monument, erected to the memory of James earl of Stanhope; the principal figure of which represents the earl leaning upon his arm, in a cumbent posture, holding in his right hand a general's staff, and in his left a parchment scroll. Before him stands a boy resting upon a shield. Over a martial tent sits a beautiful Pallas, holding in her right hand a javelin, and in the other a scroll. On the middle of the pedestal are two medals, and one on each side the pilasters. Under the principal figure is a Latin inscription, setting forth the merits of this great man as a soldier, a statesman, and a senator. He died in 1721, in the 47th year of his age.—These two monuments at the entrance of the choir, and appearing each a companion to the other, are certainly a great ornament to the nave of the abbey: they present themselves to the view as soon as you enter the west door, and produce a grand effect.

Near the gate leading to the chapels is a handsome memorial of the celebrated Dr. Busby. On it is the figure of the doctor, in his gown, looking earnestly on the inscription. In his right hand he holds a pen, and in his left a book open. Underneath, on the pedestal, are a variety of books, and at the top his family-arms. The inscription is elegantly written, and highly to his praise: it intimates, that whatever fame the school of Westminster boasts, and whatever advantages mankind shall reap from thence in time to come, are all principally owing to the wise institutions of this great man. See the article BUSBY, vol. iii. p. 515.

And now, having described the principal monuments in this part, we shall return to Henry the Seventh's chapel, which, as has been already mentioned, is a distinct building from the abbey. This chapel, which is styled by Leland the Wonder of the World, is situated to the east of the abbey; to which it is so neatly joined, that, on a superficial view, it appears to belong to the same building. It is supported without by fourteen Gothic buttresses, all beautifully ornamented, and projecting from the building in different angles; and is lighted by a double range of windows, that throw the light into such an advantageous disposition, as at once to please the eye and inspire reverence. The buttresses extend up to the roof, and are made to strengthen it by their being crowned with gothic arches. In these buttresses are niches, in which formerly stood a number of statues; but, being greatly decayed, they have been long taken down. We have already noticed the repairs which are going on at this moment.

The entrance to this edifice is from the east end of the abbey, by a flight of steps of black marble, under a very noble arch that leads to the gates opening to the body or nave of the chapel; for, like a cathedral, it is divided into a nave and side aisles, to which there is a passage by a door on each side. The gates, at the entrance of the nave, are of brass framè-work, curiously wrought, and have, in every open pannel, a rose and portcullis alternately. Being entered, the eye is naturally directed to the lofty ceiling, which is wrought with such astonishing variety of figures as almost to exceed description. The stalls are of brown waincot, with gothic canopies, most beautifully carved, as are the seats, with strange devices; more particularly the carving under the seats, which are monstrous representations of beasts, in a similar style with the buttresses, as noticed at p. 545.—The pavement is of black and white marble, laid at the charge of Dr. Killigrew, once prebendary of this abbey, as appears from two inscriptions, one on a  
brass



brass plate, near the founder's tomb, and the other cut in the pavement. The view from the entrance presents the brass chapel and superb tomb of the founder; the work of Pietro Torregiano, an Italian sculptor, who had, for his labour and the materials, one thousand pounds; and round it, where the east end forms a semi-circle, are the chapels of the dukes of Buckingham and Richmond.

This chapel is composed of a choir and two narrow aisles running on each side and meeting at the east end. It is astonishing to what a pitch of perfection the Gothic or English style had arrived at the time when the piety of our otherwise not very commendable king Henry VII. prompted him to build this chapel; for in no country of the Christian world is there any thing to be compared to it, not only for the grandeur of the design upon so small an area, but even for the fertility of invention in furnishing the ornamental parts. The roof, which is fan-work, a sort of luxuriance which is not found before that period, is astonishing. The drop at the centre of every fan seems suspended in the air; and the tracery and imagery are every-where most beautiful. The walls are adorned with the most curious clusters of slender columns, rising in all the elegance of healthy vegetation, and running to feed in beautifully-carved crockets and finials. Within these compartments we reckon a hundred and twenty statues of patriarchs, saints, martyrs, and confessors; under which are angels supporting imperial crowns, besides innumerable small ones; all of them esteemed so curious, that the best masters are said to have come from abroad to take copies of them. The roof of the side aisles is flat, and supported by arches turning upon twelve stately Gothic pillars, curiously adorned with figures, fruitage, and foliage. The windows, besides a spacious one at the east end, are thirteen on each side above, and as many below; and were formerly of painted glass, having in each pane a white rose, the badge of the house of Lancaster, an H, the initial letter of the founder's name, or portcullises crowned, the badge of the Beaufort family; of which there are some still remaining.

The length of this chapel, within, is ninety-nine feet, the breadth sixty-six, and the height fifty-four. The original intent of it was as a sepulchre, in which none but the remains of the royal family were to be deposited; and so far has the will of the founder been observed, that none have yet been interred there but those of high quality, whose descent may generally be traced from some of our ancient kings. In the middle of the east end of the nave is situated the magnificent tomb of Henry VII. and Elizabeth his queen. It is inclosed in a curious screen of cast brass, beautifully designed and well executed. This screen is nineteen feet in length, eleven in breadth, and the same in height; and ornamented with statues, of which those only of St. George, St. James, St. Bartholomew, and St. Edward, are now remaining. Within it are the effigies of the royal pair in their robes of state, lying close to each other on a tomb formed of a basaltic stone called in the language of those days *Pierre de touche*, the head of which is supported by a red dragon, the ensign of Cadwallader, the last king of the Britons, from whom king Henry VII. was fond of tracing his descent; and the foot by an angel. There are various devices alluding to his family and alliances; such as portcullises, signifying his relation to the Beauforts by his mother's side; roses twisted and crowned, in memory of the union of the two houses of Lancaster and York, by his marriage; and at each end a crown in a bush, alluding to the crown of Richard III. found in a hawthorn in Bosworth field. Within the grate of the tomb was an altar, of a single piece of touchstone, to which he bequeathed "our grete piece of the holie crosse, which, by the high provision of our Lord God, was conveyed, brought, and delivered to us, from the isle of Cyo, in Greece, set in gold and garnished with perles and precious stones; and also the precious relique of oon of the legges of St. George, set in silver, parcel gilte, which came into the hands of our broder and cousyn, Lewys of

France, the time that he wan and recovered the cite of Millein, and given and sent to us by our cousyne the cardinal of Amboise." This altar was destroyed by the fanatics during the civil wars.

At the head of this tomb lie the remains of Edward VI. grandson to Henry VII. who died in the sixteenth year of his age, and the seventh of his reign. A fine monument was erected to his memory by queen Mary, his sister and successor; but it was afterwards demolished as a relique of popish superstition.

On one side of Henry's tomb, in a small chapel, is a monument of cast brass, in which are the effigies of Louis Stuart, duke of Richmond, and Frances his wife. They are represented as lying on a marble table under a canopy of brass curiously wrought, and supported by the figures of Faith, Hope, Charity, and Prudence. On the top is a figure of Fame taking her flight, and resting only on her toe. This illustrious nobleman died the 16th of February, 1623; and his lady the 8th of October, 1639.—Here is likewise a pyramid of black and white marble supporting a small urn, in which is contained the heart of Esme Stuart, son to the duke of Richmond and Lenox, who died in France the 14th of August, 1661.

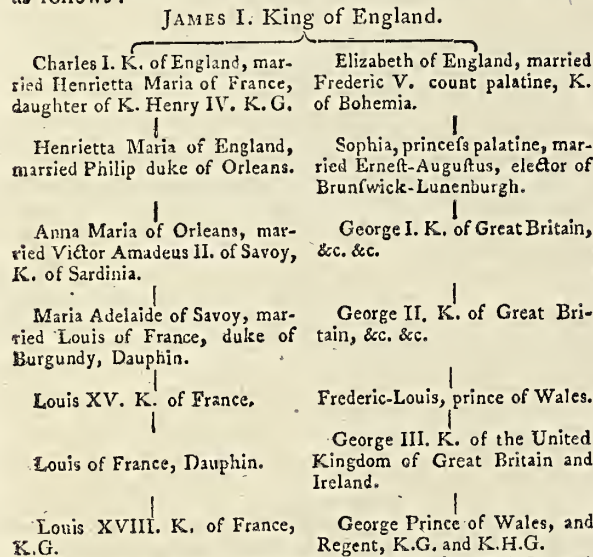
On the north side of this tomb is a monument decorated with several emblematical figures in gilt brass; the principal of which are Neptune in a pensive posture with his trident reversed, and Mars with his head crushed. These figures support the tomb on which lies the effigy of George Villiers, duke of Buckingham, the great favourite of king James and king Charles I. His duchess, Catharine, daughter of the earl of Rutland, who caused this monument to be erected to his memory, lies in effigy by his side on the same tomb. There is a Latin inscription, which represents his high titles and honours, and alludes to the unhappy cause of his death. See the article ENGLAND, vol. vi. p. 668.—Of a later date, and superior in design and workmanship, is a noble monument erected to the memory of John Sheffield, duke of Buckingham; in which his grace's statue, in a Roman habit, is laid in a half-raised posture on an altar of fine marble; and his duchess, Catharine, natural daughter of the duke of York, afterwards James II. is standing at his feet weeping. On each side are military trophies; and over all an admirable figure of Time, holding several medallions representing the heads of their children. This monument is greatly admired. It has been observed that the duke himself appears the principal figure in the group; and, though he lies in a recumbent posture, and his lady is placed in the most beautiful attitude at his feet, yet her figure is so characterised, as to be only a guide to his, and both reflect back a beauty on each other. The decorations are extremely picturesque and elegant; the trophies at his head, the figure of Time above, with the medallions of his children, fill up all the spaces with such propriety, that little could be added, and nothing appears superfluous. The inscription sets forth the duke of Buckingham's poëts, and his qualifications as a poet and a fine writer; and over his statue is inscribed some Latin sentences to the following purport: "I lived doubtful, not dissolute; I die unresolved, not unresigned. Ignorance and error are incident to human nature. I trust in an Almighty and Allgood God. Thou King of Kings, have mercy upon me." And underneath: "For my King often, for my Country always."

At the end of the north aisle, against the east wall, is a monument in the form of a beautiful altar, raised by king Charles II. to the memory of Edward V. and his brother. The inscription, which is in Latin, is thus translated: "Here lie the reliques of Edward V. king of England, and Richard duke of York; who, being confined in the Tower, and there stifled with pillows, were privately and meanly buried by order of their perfidious uncle Richard the usurper: their bones, long enquired after and wished for, after lying 201 years in the rubbish of the stairs, (those lately leading to the chapel of the White Tower,) were, on the 7th of July, 1674, by undoubted proofs disco-



vered, being buried deep in that place. Charles II. pitying their unhappy fate, ordered those unfortunate princes to be laid amongst the reliques of their predeceffors, in the year 1678, and in the 20th of his reign."

At the east end of the same aisle is a vault, in which are deposited the remains of king James I. And here we must notice a very curious piece of coincidence in heraldic connection, which has been communicated to us by a friend. If the dead, as we may religiously suppose, take any concern in the transactions of this sublunary planet, it must have been truly gratifying for James I. to see, from the eternal mansions, two of his illustrious descendants giving each other the respective accolade of knighthood; the prince-regent of England investing Louis XVIII. king of France with the ribbon of the Garter, and his most Christian majesty investing the prince with the ribbon of the Holy Ghost; both issuing from him, and standing in the same degree of consanguinity. This curious pedigree is as follows:



We cannot help remarking, that Louis XVIII. and his elder and unfortunate brother Louis XVI. bring up their pedigree to James I. through Charles I. from whom none of our present royal family descends; so that the protection given to James II. and his descendants by France may assume a stronger plausibility, on account of the kings of France being nearer related to the pretender, by one degree, than was the house of Brunfwick. Louis XV's grandmother was first cousin to the pretender, son of James II. We need not apologize to our readers for this digression, since the degree of consanguinity between the royal families of England and France is so little known in both countries.—In the same vault are also the remains of Anne, daughter to Frederic II. king of Denmark, and queen to king James I. Hence the consanguinity between the Danish dynasty and those of England and France.

In this aisle is a lofty and beautiful monument, with a canopy over it, erected to the memory of queen Elizabeth, by her successor king James I. The inscription describes her character thus: "She was the mother of her country, and the patroness of religion and learning: she was skilled in many languages, adorned with every excellence of mind and person, and endowed with princely virtues beyond her sex; in her reign religion was refined to its primitive purity; peace was established; money restored to its just value; domestic insurrections quelled; France delivered from intestine troubles; the Netherlands supported; the Spanish armada defeated; Ireland, almost lost by the secret contrivance of Spain, recovered; the revenues of both universities improved by a law of provisions; and, in short, all England enriched. She was a most prudent governess; forty-five years a virtuous and triumphant

phant queen; truly religious, and blessed in all her great affairs; and, after a calm and resigned death in the seventieth year of her age, she left her mortal part to be deposited in this church, which she established on a new footing, till by Christ's word she is called to immortality."

Awful as it is to think upon the works of that great leveller Death, yet it soothes the noble pride of a just man to find the arrogant by the humble, the rich by the poor, the persecutor by the persecuted, and the tyrant rotting by the bones of his slave.—Had Elizabeth thought that her remains would lie so close to those of Mary queen of Scots, her hand would have trembled when she signed the death-warrant, and the fine flourish she used to adorn her name with would have been shaken into a wavering scrawl. Elizabeth had ordered her murdered rival to be pompously interred in the cathedral of Peterborough; but James, on his accession to the throne of England, immediately ordered his mother's remains to be removed, with all possible care and decency, and brought to Westminster-abbey, in order that they might be deposited among those of her ancestors; and he subsequently erected a magnificent monument to her memory in the south aisle of this chapel.

Near this, inclosed with iron rails, is a handsome table-monument, on which lies, finely robed, the effigy of Margaret Douglas, daughter of Margaret queen of Scots by the earl of Angus. Her son, the murdered lord Darnley, father to king James I. is represented foremost on the tomb, kneeling, with the crown over his head; and seven others of her children are represented round the tomb. This great lady, though she herself never sat on the throne, had, according to the English inscription, king Edward IV. for her great-grandfather; Henry VII. for her grandfather; Henry VIII. for her uncle; Edward VI. for her cousin german; James V. of Scotland for her brother; Henry king of Scotland for her son; and James VI. for her grandson. She had for her great-grandmother and grandmother, two queens, both named Elizabeth; for her mother, Margaret queen of Scots; for her aunt, Mary the French queen; for her cousins german, Mary and Elizabeth, queens of England; and for her niece and daughter-in-law, Mary queen of Scots. She died March 10th, 1577.

At the east end of this aisle is the royal vault, in which are deposited the coffins of Charles II. William and Mary, queen Anne, and prince George of Denmark.

The nave of this chapel is used for the ceremony of the installation of the knights of the Bath. In their stalls, which are ranged on each side of the nave, are brass plates of their arms, &c. and over them hang their banners, swords, and helmets. Under the stalls are seats for the esquires, of whom each knight has three: their arms are also engraved on brass, and placed upon the back of the seats. Of the ancient ceremonies with which the knights were installed we have given an account under the article KNIGHTHOOD, vol. xi. p. 319. and of a recent installation, at p. 391 of the same article. But a contrast, of which an instance had not occurred since the revival of the order in 1725, has lately presented itself to us—a degradation!—and we are sorry to say, that of a man every one was inclined to admire for his talents and bravery.—Lord Cochrane was convicted in the court of King's Bench of being concerned in a conspiracy to disseminate false news, (on the 21st of February, 1814,) in order to raise the price of omnium. He was sentenced to fine, imprisonment, and the pillory. The latter part of the sentence has been remitted; but it was thought fit to expel him from the house of commons, (though he has been since re-elected,) and to degrade him from being a knight of the Bath. At a meeting, therefore, of the knights of the order, the degradation was carried into effect; and a warrant was agreed upon, authorising Francis Townsend, esq. deputy Bath king of arms, to remove the insignia of sir Thomas Cochrane, commonly called lord Cochrane, from the chapel. Mr. Townsend accordingly attended, on Thursday, August



gust the 11th, with a warrant, signed by lord Sidmouth, as secretary of state for the home department, at this chapel; and proceeded to ascend a ladder, placed for that purpose, to remove the banner of lord Cochrane from its situation, which was the fourth from the top on the right side of the chapel, between those of lord Beresford and sir Brent Spencer. His lordship's arms were afterwards unscrewed from his stall. The helmet, crest, mantling, and sword, and all his lordship's insignia of the order, were then taken down from the top of the stall. The most degrading part of the ceremony then took place, that of his lordship's banner being kicked out of the chapel, and down the steps, by Mr. Townsend.

Underneath the body of this chapel is the vault prepared in 1737, on the death of queen Caroline, for the reception of the present royal family. It consists of a double range of arched chambers, three on each side, open to the middle walk between them. This middle walk terminates with the principal vault in front, where, in a large marble sarcophagus, lie the two coffins of the late king George II. and his queen Caroline; the side-boards of which were, by the express command of the king, so constructed as to be removed, in order that their dust might intermingle. The coffins of Frederic prince of Wales, his princess, two dukes of Cumberland, the duke of York, prince Frederic William, the princesses Amelia, Caroline, Elizabeth, and Louisa-Anne, and two infant sons of their present majesties, the princes Alfred and Octavius, also lie here. This vault filling up perhaps quicker than the projector had foreseen, his present majesty, who has always shown a predilection for Windsor, caused a vault to be constructed there, in which several of his nearest relations are already deposited; viz. the duke of Gloucester his brother, the princess Amelia his daughter, and the duchess of Brunswick his sister. But we understand that a more capacious one is preparing under Wolfey's tomb-house, behind St. George's chapel.

Such an important abbey as this could not, of course, have been built without the common and necessary appendage of cloisters, where the monks in rainy weather might walk and say their rosary; meditate upon given themes; or preconceive the grand ideas of the beautiful fabrics which are still admired as rising to the highest pitch of gothic architecture. From the south aisle of the abbey, there are two entrances into these cloisters, which are entire, and consist of four arched walks on the sides of an open quadrangle, anciently set with turf and shrubs, but now occasionally covered with fragments of stones prepared for the repairs of various parts of the abbey.

The walls are nearly covered with small monuments, and the ground with tomb-stones. Among the last we remark four very ancient ones, under which lie the remains of four abbots of Westminster.—The first is of black marble, called Long Meg, from its extraordinary length of eleven feet eight inches, and covers the ashes of Gervais de Blois, natural son to king Stephen, who died in 1106.—The second is a raised stone of Suffex marble, under which lies interred the abbot Laurentius, who died in 1176, and is said to have been the first who obtained from pope Alexander III. the privilege of using the mitre, ring, and globe.—The third is a stone of grey marble, to the memory of Geslebertus Crispinus, who died in the year 1114. His effigy may be still traced on his grave-stone by the fragments of his mitre and pastoral staff.—The fourth is the most ancient of all, and was formerly covered with plates of brass inscribed to the abbot Vitalis, who died in 1082.—All these seem to have had their names and dates cut afresh; and are indeed fragments worthy of preservation.

Among the monuments in the cloisters, we cannot pass over a medallion containing the profile of Dr. Buchan, with a tablet bearing his name, and the dates of his birth and death. See p. 411.—We were pleased also to see a small memento dedicated to one of the best engravers of the last century, Mr. Woollett. His bust is above a fort

of bas-relief containing several figures, in which, as in many other instances, allegory is united with truth, and fancy-beings with the individuality of real existence. We have remonstrated against this branch of thriving incongruity, creeping from ancient sprouts to modern compositions, in another part of this article. The sculptor, Mr. Banks, has certainly exerted himself as far as his imagination could conceive and his chisel achieve, to embody the following given theme, upon which we think he sat down to work; for, were the inscription beneath, not the *datum*, but the explanation, of the design, we should not be much roused to admiration at the sight of the bas-relief.—In the inelegant attitude of digging into copper, the artist is meanly represented seated at his work with his tools about him; whilst, around this home-found reality, heavenly angels, with fanciful wings, are seen trumpeting over one of Mr. Adams's terrestrial globes, as identically sold in Fleet-street; and, under such traffic as would have softened the steel of Woollett's burin into a leaden stump, we read the following *explanation*, if it were not an ill-understood and mistaken *original theme*, laid down for the artist to work upon. The words are these; "The Genius of Engraving, handing to posterity the works of painting, sculpture, and architecture; whilst Fame is distributing them over the four quarters of the world."—Several other little monumental pieces, stuck against the walls, whisper modestly to the idler in these arcades, that their owners were of some fame and of some worth; but that they were cloistered there, not for want of individual merit, but of money.

The Chapter-house, the door opening into which is well worth attention, is of an octangular form, and was originally very lofty, with a clustered column rising from the floor to support it, the groins arching towards the several angles of the structure. From what remains uncovered and unmutated of the ancient part of this building, there can be no doubt that it was decorated with every degree of excellence which the endless variety of gothic ornament could afford; but, since the place has been employed as a repository for the public records belonging to the Treasury of the Exchequer, all the lower parts are so hidden by presses and galleries, filled with rolls of parchment, that very little of its original magnificence can be seen. This structure owes its foundation to that magnificent monarch Henry III. and was used for the meetings of the commons in the time of Edward III. and several succeeding monarchs. Among the ancient records at present deposited here, the curious enquirer will find those of the court of Star-chamber, and the original Domesday-book, as to which see vol. vi. p. 14 and 561.—Beneath the Chapter-house is a very singular crypt: The roof, on which rests the floor of the former, is supported by a short round pillar, quite hollow, and spreads into plain massy ribs. The walls are not less than eighteen feet thick, and form a secure base to the superstructure. They were formerly pierced with several small windows, which are now concealed by the vast increase of earth on the outside: one only is just visible in the garden of an adjoining house, and from this alone the crypt is accessible.

Against the south-west part of the west front of the abbey is the north front of the Jerusalem Chamber, which was built by abbot Littleton, and was part of the abbot's lodgings. It is remarkable for being the place where Henry IV. breathed his last.

North from the abbey stood the Sanctuary, the place of refuge allowed, in old times, to criminals of a certain description. The church belonging to it was in the form of a cross, and double; one being above the other. It was of vast strength, and required great labour to demolish it. Edward the Confessor is supposed to have founded it. Within its precinct Edward V. was born; and here his unhappy mother took refuge, with her younger son Richard, to secure him from his uncle, who had already possession of the king. The site of this sanctuary was afterwards



terwards occupied by Westminster-market; which, in its turn, has given way to a new sessions-house, for the accommodation of the Westminster magistrates.

To the west of the Sanctuary stood the Eleemosynary, or Almonry, where the alms of the abbey used to be distributed; but it is more remarkable for having been the place where the first printing-press ever known in England was set up. Here, in 1474, William Caxton, probably encouraged by the learned Thomas Milling, at that time abbot, produced "The Game and Play of the Chesse," the first book printed in these kingdoms. There is a slight difference of opinion respecting the exact place where this book was printed; but all agree that it was somewhere within the precincts of this religious house.

Not more than thirty feet from the north door of the abbey, stands the parish-church of St. Margaret, originally erected by Edward the Confessor, who, having resolved to rebuild the conventual church of St. Peter with great magnificence, imagined that it would be a dishonour to his new and stately edifice, to have the neighbouring common people assemble in it as usual for religious worship, as well as prove troublesome and inconvenient to the monks; therefore, about the year 1064, he caused a church to be erected on the north side of St. Peter's, for the use of the neighbouring inhabitants, and dedicated it to St. Margaret, the virgin and martyr of Antioch. This church was rebuilt in the reign of king Edward I. by the parishioners and the merchants of the staple, except the chancel, which was erected at the charge of the abbot of Westminster. In the year 1735, it was not only repaired, but its tower was cased, at the expense of three thousand five hundred pounds, granted by parliament, in consideration of its being the church where the house of commons attend divine service on stated holidays, as the peers do in Westminster-abbey. This church is honoured with the remains of the great sir Walter Raleigh, who was interred here the same day he was beheaded in Old Palace-yard.—It is a plain, neat, and not-inelegant, gothic structure, well lighted by a series of large windows. It has two handsome galleries of considerable length, adorned in the front with carved work: these are supported by slender pillars, which rise to the roof, and have four small black pillars running along each of them, adorned with gilded capitals both at the galleries and at the top, where the flat roof is neatly ornamented with stucco. The steeple consists of a tower, which rises to a considerable height, and is crowned with a turret at each corner, and a small lantern, ornamented with carved work in the centre; from whence rises a flag-staff. In 1758, this church was again repaired and ornamented at the public expense; and, recently, the inside has been entirely rebuilt, and a new porch added at the west end. At the east end of the church is a very beautiful window of painted glass, made by order of the magistrates of Dort, in Holland, and designed by them as a present to king Henry VII. for his chapel in the abbey. But, that monarch dying before it was finished, it was set up in the private chapel of the abbot of Waltham, at Copt-hall, near Epping. At the dissolution of that monastery, it was removed to New-hall, in Essex, which coming afterwards into the possession of general Monk, he preserved the window from the destroying hands of the fanatics. In 1758, when this church underwent a thorough repair, it was purchased by the inhabitants, from the then owner, for four hundred guineas, and placed in its present situation. The subject is the Crucifixion; a devil is represented carrying off the soul of the hardened thief, and an angel receiving that of the penitent one. There are many subordinate figures, which are finely executed. On one side is Henry VII. and on the other his queen, both kneeling: their portraits were taken from original pictures sent to Dort for that purpose. Over the king is the figure of St. George, the patron-saint of England; and, above that, a white rose and a red one. Over the queen is the figure of St. Catharine of Alexandria, and, above her head, the arms of the kingdom of Grenada.

This church is a rectory, in the gift of the dean and chapter of Westminster. It is a hundred and thirty feet in length, sixty-five in breadth, and forty-five in height; the altitude of the tower, to the top of the pinnacles, is eighty-five feet.

Mentioning, at p. 527, the chimes of St. Clement's Dances and of Cripplegate-church, we passed our opinion upon this sort of amusement, and proved that it is of no use to us either by night or by day.—We have now to mention the chimes of this church, which furnish one of the most melancholy and dismal tunes that could possibly be chosen. It is not the tune of a hymn or of a psalm; but the sickeningly-drawling air of "At the siege of Bellise; I was there all the while." The bells acquit themselves of their duty every hour in the day-time; and the learnedly-pinned barrel goes on uninterruptedly from the first note to the last; but, during the night, by the order, we suppose, of some high churchman sleeping in the neighbourhood, the tune is not played through at once, but in portions. At twelve o'clock, the two first bars, "At the siege of Bellise," are rung, and the conscious barrel politely stops, till the prebendary goes to sleep: at one, the barrel is again set in motion, and the reverend gentleman awakes, perhaps, to hear the two next bars, "I was there all the while;" and then quietly resumes the comfortable tenor of his nap. At two, follows the next line of the song; and so on till the morning, when the barrel, once more set at full liberty, flourishes off with the whole of the air.

To the east of this church, and extending to the Thames, is the site of the original royal palace of Westminster, founded by Edward the Confessor, the first prince who had a regular residence here. The stairs from it to the river still retain the name of Palace-stairs; and the two Palace-yards, the one before Westminster Hall, the other before the House of Lords, were parts of the body of this extensive palace, of which many scattered limbs still exist, but are converted to different uses. The principal of these remains is the great HALL, built, or possibly rebuilt, by William Rufus, as such a place was at those chivalrous times reckoned an indispensable appendage to a palace.—The entrance into it from New Palace-yard is very magnificent, and has lately been disencumbered from modern buildings, which had been barbarously erected in such a way as to screen entirely the beautiful rows of niches, canopies, and statues, which ornamented the towers of each side of the entrance, seven or eight of which still remain in a most venerable, though mutilated, state. The figures were bigger than the common proportions of nature; and the few parts that have been respected or overlooked by the edacity of time, are sufficient to give us an idea of the original grandeur of the whole. The pedestals were beautifully wrought with wreaths of leguminous plants, or vine and ivy-leaves, (see p. 403, 4.) and had each a shield of the Norman or heater shape; but few have preserved the devices which they bore. Above the lower row of statues was a window on each side, and each accompanied by a niche, canopy, pedestal, and statue, also; but nothing of these now remains except the prominency of the mouldings out of the wall. The gateway is very rich, and the cornice above most curiously decorated. The grand centre window is divided into three compartments, of three stages each, and has a noble appearance. At the top of the pediment, or gable-end, is a pinnacle, so disfigured that it appears but the skeleton or shade of what it originally was.

In the reign of Richard II. the old building had become so ruinous, that he ordered it to be pulled down; and the present hall, which is now known by the name of Westminster-hall, was erected in its stead, and completed in the year 1397. It was then called the New Palace, to distinguish it from the Old Palace, where the houses of lords and commons meet. This ancient building is of stone, the front of which is ornamented with two towers, adorned with carved work. The hall within is reckoned the largest room, unsupported by pillars, in Europe; being two hun-



dred and seventy feet in length, and seventy-four in breadth. The pavement is of stone; the roof of oak, of curious gothic workmanship, and is greatly admired. The cantilivers which support the roof are decorated with angels, each bearing in his hands a shield, with the arms of Richard II. or those of Edward the Confessor. It was formerly covered with lead; but for some years past it has been covered with slate.

In the year 1399, king Richard held his Christmas here; during which time, the number of his guests, who were entertained in this hall and the other rooms of the palace, amounted to ten thousand; for whose supply, eighty oxen, three hundred sheep, and an innumerable quantity of poultry, were daily killed.—What would our economical cotemporaries have said, had they witnessed such an expence incurred by eating and drinking only; they who lament so deplorably the loss of a few trusses of hay trodden down by the feet of the happy on the night of the jubilee? When the Roman people called for “bread and games,” *panem et circenses*, they were grateful for the imperial munificence, and did not abuse the Cæsar who endeavoured to make them happy—but here we load with sarcasms and lampoons the authors of our amusements, though we readily risk our limbs and lives to enjoy them. We intend a little farther on to give an account of the fêtes here alluded to.

Parliaments frequently sat in this hall; and in it was held the ancient court of justice, in which the king presided in person. In this hall the kings of England have for many ages past held their coronation-feasts. It is also generally used for the trying of peers accused of crimes against the state; and it was in this hall that Charles I. was tried.—We remember to have assisted at the long and tedious trial of Mr. Hastings, and more recently at that of lord Melville. Upon such occasions, a temporary stage is erected in the hall, with galleries and seats; passages to the courts of justice being contrived underneath. These courts, namely the Chancery, King’s Bench, and Common Pleas, have been held here ever since the reign of Henry III. and the Court of Exchequer is also held in an apartment belonging to the old palace, the entrance to which is from this hall.

To the south of Westminster-hall is that part of the old palace which was used for the meetings of the peers, and thence called the House of Lords. But since the late union of Great Britain and Ireland, the spacious room called the Court of Requests has been fitted up for that purpose; and the tapestry-hangings and furniture of the former house of lords have been removed hither. The outside of the south end of this room shows the great antiquity of the building, having in it two great round arches, with zigzag mouldings, our most ancient species of architecture. This court took its name from being that wherein all suits made to the king by way of petition were heard and ended; and it was also called the Poor Man’s Court, because there he could have right without being put to expence.

The present HOUSE OF LORDS does not occupy the whole of the Court of Requests, part of the north end being formed into a lobby, by which the commons pass to the upper house; the height is also greatly reduced by an elevated floor of wood over the original stone pavement. The fitting-up of the room is nearly similar to that of the old one. The design of the fine old tapestry with which it is hung was drawn by Cornelius Vroom, and the work was executed by Francis Spiering. Vroom had a hundred pieces of gold for his labour; the tapestry itself cost 1628l. It represents the defeat of the Spanish armada in 1588, and was bespoke by the earl of Nottingham, lord high admiral, and commander in chief in the engagement. The earl sold it to James I. but it was not put up till the year 1650, two years after the extinction of monarchy, when the house of lords was used as a committee-room by the commons. Before it was put up in its present

situation, it was cleaned; and is now judiciously set off by large frames of brown stained wood, that divide it into four compartments, respectively containing the several portions of the story, viz. 1. The first appearance of the Spanish fleet. 2. The several forms in which it lay at different times on our coasts. 3. The place and disposition of it when engaged with the English fleet. And lastly, its departure. The heads of the naval heroes who commanded on that glorious day, form a matchless border round the work, animating posterity to emulate their illustrious example.

At the upper end of the room is the throne, on which the king is seated, on particular occasions, in his robes, with the crown on his head, and adorned with all the ensigns of majesty. On the right hand of the throne is a seat for the prince of Wales; on the left is another for the next person of the royal family; and behind the throne are places for the young peers who have no votes in the house. Beneath the throne, on the king’s right hand, are the seats of the two archbishops, and a little below them the bench of bishops. Before the throne are three broad seats across the room, on which are seated the dignitaries of the law. On the first of these nearest the throne sits the lord-chancellor, or keeper of the great seal, who, by his office, is speaker of the house of lords: on the other two sit the lord chief justice, the master of the rolls, and the other judges, who attend occasionally to be consulted on points of law. The benches for the lords are covered with red cloth; and there is a bar across the house at the end opposite to the throne. Without the bar sits the king’s first gentleman usher, called the Black Rod, from a black wand he carries in his hand. Under him is a yeoman-usher, who waits at the inside of the door; a crier without; and a serjeant at mace, who always attends the lord-chancellor. When the king is present with the crown on his head, the lords sit uncovered, and the judges stand till his majesty gives them leave to sit. In the king’s absence, the lords, at their entrance, do reverence to the throne; as do all who enter the presence-chamber. The judges, in the king’s absence, must not be covered till the lord-chancellor, or keeper, signifies to them that the lords permit them so to be. The king usually goes in state to the house of lords on the first and last days of the sessions, when he opens or closes the parliament with a speech from the throne; and he also goes occasionally during the session to pass such bills as require dispatch; but either of these parts of the royal office may be exercised by commissioners specially authorized for that purpose. On his majesty’s arrival at the house of lords, he enters a room adjoining to it, called the Prince’s Chamber, where he puts on his robes and crown, and from thence is conducted into the house by the lord-chamberlain, where all the lords are dressed in their scarlet robes; and his majesty, being seated on the throne, sends for the commons by the gentleman usher of the black rod. When the commons appear, his majesty’s speech is read to this grand united assembly; after which the king returns in the same state as he came.

Adjoining to the south-east angle of Westminster-hall is a building called St. Stephen’s Chapel, from having been formerly dedicated to that saint. In the year 1347, it was rebuilt in a magnificent manner by king Edward III. who converted it into a collegiate church; but, on its suppression in the reign of Edward VI. it was adapted for the assembly of the representatives of the commons of England; for which purpose it has been used from that time to the present, and is now generally known by the name of the HOUSE OF COMMONS. It is a spacious room, wainscoted to the ceiling, from the centre of which hangs a very handsome branch. It is large enough to hold six or seven hundred persons; and about it are very commodious apartments. The benches for the members gradually ascend one above another, and are covered with green cloth; the floor is matted. Round the house are galleries supported by slender iron pillars adorned with Corinthian capitals.



capitals and fionces, in which strangers are generally permitted to sit and hear the debates. The chair in which the speaker sits is at the upper end of the room; it is ornamented behind with Corinthian columns, and over it are the king's arms carved, and placed on a pediment. Before the speaker is a table, at which the clerk and his assistant sit near him on each hand, just below the chair; and on either side the room, as well below as in the galleries, the members are placed promiscuously. The speaker and clerks always wear gowns in the house, as do the professors of the law do in term-time; but no other of the members ever wear robes, except on the first day of a new parliament, when the four representatives for the city of London are dressed in scarlet gowns, and sit all together on the right hand of the chair next to the speaker.

The west front of this ancient building, with its beautiful gothic window, is still to be seen in ascending the stairs to the Court of Requests; it consists of the sharp-pointed species of gothic. Between it and the lobby of the house is a small vestibule of the same sort of work, and of great elegance. At each end is a gothic door, and one in the middle, which is the passage into the lobby. On the south side of the outer wall of the chapel, appear the marks of some large gothic windows, with abutments between, and beneath, some smaller windows, once of use to light an under-chapel. The under-croft, or basement-chapel, has been a most beautiful building; a great part of which is still preserved. It consists of five divisions, made by clusters of columns supporting the groins, in which are bosses, with rich religious basso-relievos, of simple and massy forms, well calculated to sustain, and give a pleasing introduction to, the light and refined elegance of the profuse enrichments in the chapel above. A part of it is the present passage from Palace-yard to Westminster-hall. One side of the cloister is entirely preserved, by being found convenient as a passage; the roof is gothic workmanship, so elegant as to surpass the beautiful roof of Henry VII's chapel. A gallery runs over each side of the cloister, from one part of which is a flight of stairs leading to a very ancient square tower of stone, standing almost close to the side of Westminster-hall, which probably was a belfry, to hold the bells that roused the members of the chapel to prayers.

Adjoining to the House of Lords is the Prince's Chamber, where the king is robed, as we mentioned above, when he comes in state to the parliament. This apartment is hung all round with tapestry. The subject of the compartment on the west side is the birth of queen Elizabeth. Anne Boleyn is in a grand bed, with hangings and appropriate decorations, receiving cordials from her attendants, some others of whom are employed in taking care of the royal infant. On the right is Henry VIII. in regal state, surrounded by his nobles and guards, giving his orders on this important occasion. The remainder of the compartments, except one which contains a rural subject, is made up with the different occurrences attendant on a battle, and total discomfiture of one party.

On the other side is the Painted Chamber, which is at present used for the occasional conferences between the two houses of parliament. It is a long lofty room, lighted by windows of the ancient simple gothic; and was formerly hung with beautiful ancient tapestry, in six different compartments, representing some of the principal events in the siege of Troy. From the circumstance of part of the history of that celebrated siege being wanting, it is presumed that it did not then occupy its original situation, which, from the height of the hangings agreeing with that of the walls of the great hall, from the pavement to the bottom of the windows, is supposed to have been there; and this conjecture is in some degree corroborated by an observation of Stow, (Survey, p. 470. edit. 1603.) who, speaking of a royal feast, given by Henry VII. on Twelfth-day, in the ninth year of his reign, to the lord-mayor, aldermen, and commoners, of London, says, "And after dinner, dubbing the maior knight, caused

him, with his brethren, to stay and behold the disguisings, and other disports, in the night following shewed in the great hall, which was richly hanged with arras." Where this beautiful tapestry, which we have often seen, and as often admired, is gone, we have not been able to learn; but the writer was present when Mr. John Carter, the architect, took sketches of it, which, if we are not mistaken, have been published.—It was in this room that the warrant for the execution of Charles I. was signed; and here was held that celebrated conference between the lords and commons, which, though ineffectual at the time, was followed by the glorious revolution.—Besides its being a place of conference between the two houses of parliament, as mentioned above, this chamber has from an early period been used as a *chambre ardente*, (as the French call it,) where the remains of sovereigns, princes, and other great personages, have been deposited for public inspection previous to their interment; and here Mr. Pitt lay in state in January 1806.—Besides these uses, the Painted Chamber also serves as a place of meeting for the knights of the Bath previous to their proceeding for the installation in the chapel of Henry VII.

We read in Stow's Survey, that Edward III. "buildd to the use of St. Stephen's chappell, (though out of the Palace-court,) some distance west, in the Little Sanctuarie, a strong clochard of stone and timber covered with lead, and placed therein three great bells, since usually rung at coronations, triumphs, funerals of princes, and their obits, (the anniversary of their death.) Of these bells men fabuled that their ringing sowerd all the druke in the towne." This is one of the most curious assertions that can be found in the whole of this most estimable Londinographer; but we must confess that we are at a loss to find out the meaning of it. We know that, by counteracting the vibrations of the air through the simultaneous and shrill union of two discordant sounds, a wine-glass may be forced to snap and fly in pieces; but that the sound of bells should agitate the air with so much violence as to discompose the internal combination of fermented liquids, is truly above our conception. It is another vulgar error to suppose that thunder has a similar effect.

On the south side of Westminster-abbey is WESTMINSTER SCHOOL, or COLLEGE, founded by queen Elizabeth, in the year 1590, for the education of forty boys, who have been ever since called the Queen's or King's scholars, as the case happens to be. This school has been rendered one of the most considerable in the kingdom; it having, for several years past, been likewise the place of education for many of the sons of the nobility and gentry, for the accommodation of whom there are several boarding-houses in the neighbourhood. Out of the scholars on the foundation, a certain number, when properly qualified, are sent to the universities, viz. to Trinity-college in Cambridge, and to Christ-church in Oxford, where they have a competent maintenance from the foundation; at the former till they are fit for the ministry, at the latter for life. The scholars have each a black gown every year; and four of them are distinguished by the name of Lords Scholars, who wear purple gowns, and receive an annual stipend from the treasurer of the college, out of certain rents, settled for that purpose by John Williams, D.D. lord-keeper of the great seal, and archbishop of York. This prelate was also a great benefactor to the library of this college, which is well furnished with a good collection of books, to which strangers can have access in term-time.

There appears to have been a school here from the first foundation of the abbey. Ingulphus, abbot of Crowland, speaks of his having been educated at it; and of the disputations he had with the queen of the Confessor, and of the presents she made him, in money, in his boyish days.

Every year, a few weeks before Christmas, the scholars of Westminster-school perform a Latin play, generally one of Plautus's or Terence's. A temporary theatre is erected



On the end of the dormitory, which is parted off for the purpose; and seats prepared for the company, which is of the greatest respectability, and admitted by tickets. The play is repeated three times; and at the last performance a collection is made, and the money received is employed to buy books for the scholars; a custom more respectable for its antiquity, than for its object. In these plays, the female parts must of course be performed by boys; and there is little doubt but they are acted as well as they would be by girls of the same age; the only defect is, that the delusion of the difference of voices cannot be kept up: the principal woman's part is generally assigned to one of the biggest boys, whose voice may be more manly than that of the lover, or even father, in the same scene. In the colleges of France, and other Roman-catholic countries, when plays were occasionally acted by the scholars, their superiors took the precaution, (inasmuch as women were to be kept from their minds as much as possible) so to alter the drama as to make it consist of male characters only. And we know, on the other hand, that at those ladies' boarding-schools where the vile custom of acting plays at breaking-up still continues, the said plays undergo strange castigations and castrations.

In St. Margaret's parish there are many charitable foundations, by different persons, for the relief of the poor. Among these, near Tothill-fields, is the GREY-COAT HOSPITAL, founded by letters patent, in the year 1706. This school, in 1727, was in so flourishing a state, that it contained eighty boys and fifty girls, in which year the charge of all its disbursements amounted to 1457l. 7s. 6d. In September 1739, a mathematical school was added to this foundation, and a proper master retained to instruct the boys in navigation, and to fit them for the sea-service; several of them have since done honour to their profession, and have become captains in the navy. There are at this time in the school ninety poor children, who are not only clothed and instructed, but maintained in lodging, washing, and board; they are taught reading, writing, and arithmetic, and are carefully educated in the principles of the Christian religion according to the church of England. They are publicly examined every Sunday evening at seven o'clock. Since the original foundation in 1698, the number of children who have been bound apprentices from this school amounts to 1498. The charge of each child is computed at 18l. 18s. per annum, including salaries and wages of master, mistresses, servants, and the expenses of the infirmary; so that the yearly expenditure in these respects amounts to 1700l. In addition to the endowment, the finances are assisted by contributions at sermons, and voluntary benefactions and legacies.

The GREEN-COAT HOSPITAL, for the relief of poor fatherless children of this parish, was established by Charles I. in the year 1633, who endowed it with fifty pounds per annum, which is paid out of the treasury. This hospital was rebuilt at the charge of Dr. Busby, and Charles Twitty, esq. in the year 1700.—We had very lately the pleasure of seeing the children of this school walking in procession through the church-yard, going to the Sunday-afternoon service; and the neatness of their dress, their modest behaviour, and even the lively emerald of their garments, were pleasing to the eye.

Near the Green-coat Hospital, by Tothill-fields, is a Bridewell, or house of correction, for such as beg, live idly, or lead loose lives, in this city or its liberties. It is also a gaol for criminals who commit offences within the said city and liberties; and was so made by act of parliament, in the reign of queen Anne.

Lady Anne Dacres's Alms-houses, called Emanuel-College, were founded by her, on the 17th of December, anno 1601, for ten poor men and ten poor women, (each of whom has liberty to bring up one poor child.) She gave a hundred pounds per annum, issuing out of the manor of Brainsburton, in the county of York, until the expiration of a lease of a hundred and ninety-nine years; and afterwards, the whole manor to accrue, to augment

this foundation. The hundred pounds is paid out of the chamber of London, and is under the care and inspection of the lord-mayor and court of aldermen. The rental of the manor of Brainsburton, and the lands given to this foundation, being increased so much beyond the founder's expectation, as to yield an income exceeding the plan and intention of distributing it to such a limited number of the class of people who were the objects of her benevolence; the governors, not having the power of themselves to increase the number, and being at the same time desirous of applying the income of their trust to the intended purpose, preferred a bill to parliament in 1795, stating the nature and documents of the foundation, and that the income and revenues were more than sufficient for the maintenance and support of the objects directed by the will and charter, and that it was probable they would be farther increased by granting building-leases and other means. The statute therefore empowered the court of aldermen, as governors, to extend and increase the number of objects of the charity, by electing and admitting, as members, such additional numbers of poor aged persons, and poor children, or either of them, according to their directions and descriptions, as the governors should think proper objects, and as the revenues should be found adequate to maintain and support. In consequence of this act, further statutes were immediately made by the court, whereby five men and five women were admitted as out-pensioners, with such allowances as the court should think fit; and the parish of St. John, Westminster, was added to those out of whom they were all to be chosen; out of every ten, eight from St. Margaret's and St. John's, one from Chelsea, and one from Hayes. The vacancies of in-pensioners to be filled up by out-pensioners, so that every one to be elected shall be an out-pensioner in the first instance. Thus the whole charity now consists of a master and mistress, and twenty in-pensioners, viz. ten men, of whom one is the warden; and ten women, of whom one is the matron; five men and five women as out-pensioners; also, ten boys and ten girls, who are in-pensioners, and have a school-room, who are all apprenticed to trades, with a premium of 10l. half of which is paid at the time of their binding, and the remainder when they have served half their apprenticeship.

South of Westminster-abbey stands the parochial church of St. John the Evangelist. The parish of St. Margaret being greatly increased in the number of houses and inhabitants, it was judged necessary to erect one of the fifty new churches within it. This church, being finished, was dedicated to St. John the Evangelist; a parish was taken out of St. Margaret's; and the parliament granted the sum of two thousand five hundred pounds, to be laid out in the purchase of lands, tenements, &c. for the maintenance of the rector; but, besides the profits arising from this purchase, it was also enacted, that, as a farther provision for the rector, the sum of one hundred and twenty-five pounds should be annually raised, by an equal pound-rate upon the inhabitants. This church was begun in 1721, and finished in 1728; and is remarkable only for having sunk while it was building, which occasioned an alteration in the plan. On the north and south sides are magnificent porticos, supported by vast stone pillars, as is also the roof of the church. At each of the four corners is a beautiful stone tower and pinnacle: these additions were erected, that the whole might sink equally, and owe their magnitude to the same cause. The parts of this building are held together by iron bars, which cross even the aisles. The advowson of this church is in the dean and chapter of Westminster; and, to prevent this rectory being held in commendam, all licenses and dispensations for holding it are, by act of parliament, declared null and void.

Beyond this church is the ancient Horse-ferry between Westminster and Lambeth, which was suppressed on the building of Westminster-bridge; and a sum of three thousand pounds settled on the archbishops of Canter-



bury, who were the proprietors of this ferry, in lieu of the profits arising therefrom.

At the Horse-ferry begins Mill-bank, leading to Chelsea; and here we find the unfinished Penitentiary-houses, intended for the reformation of thieves, instead of transporting them.—The design of a building of this nature, for the punishment, employment, and reformation, of offenders of secondary turpitude, usually punished by transportation for a term of years, was conceived after the disputes which terminated in the separation of the American states. The plan for colonizing New South Wales, led to a general system of expatriation to the antipodes; which, as applied to definite periods, was cruel and unjust, because the wretched objects were precluded from the power of ever returning, however short might be the intended period of their punishment. A strong and affecting memorial of the sheriffs of London, in 1807, led to several parliamentary notices and remonstrances against this indiscriminate mode of transportation, which was in all cases, in effect; for life; and, in consequence, this place of punishment and reform has been projected at Mill-bank; and no culprits are, we understand, in future to be sent to New South Wales, except those irretrievable and enormous cases that require transportation for life.—The plan of this erection is partly that of Mr. Jeremy Bentham—the culprits are to be confined in circular buildings, with windows so constructed that the overseer from a room in the centre may be able to view every one of their rooms. The external wall encloses no less than eighteen acres of ground; and within that space there are to be six of these circular buildings, each capable of lodging and employing from 150 to 200 prisoners; with a chapel, infirmary, and other conveniences.—We heartily wish success to the undertaking. After what we have read of the reformation-prisons of Philadelphia and Rotterdam, may we not hope to see, what we certainly never have seen yet, a man (in England) come out of a prison better than he went in!

A little farther on is the intended Vauxhall Bridge, or rather the Regent's Bridge, for so the work was named when the first stone was laid (by lord Dundas as proxy for the regent), which was on the 9th of May, 1811. We then understood that the bridge was to be built of Scotch granite, with the ornaments and finishings of Portland-stone; and to consist of seven arches. The work stood still for a long time, but now (Aug. 1814.) seems to be again proceeding; and we are told that it is to consist of nine arches of equal span, in squares of cast-iron, on piers of ruficated stone, formed of fragments united by means of Parker's cement; the total width to be 809 feet, the span of the arches 78, the height 29, and the clear breadth of the road-way 36. This bridge is to extend from Mill-bank to Smith's Tea-gardens, which nearly adjoin Vauxhall-gardens; and is intended to connect the roads branching from that spot to Hyde Park Corner, by a straight road and street across Tothill-fields to Eaton-street, Pimlico, and Grosvenor-place.

Returning now towards Charing Cross, we find, adjoining to the Horse-guards, the Tilt-yard, well known as the scene of Henry VIII's military amusements.—It retained its use during the reign of his masculine daughter Elizabeth, who was not less fond of witnessing athletic exercises than her father. Here, on the first of January, 1581, was held a most sumptuous tournament, in honour of the commissioners sent from France to propose a marriage between the queen and the duke of Anjou; and here were the annual exercises of arms during her reign, by a society of knights consisting of twenty-five of the most distinguished personages of the court. But this place was not the scene of chivalrous exploits alone; it was sometimes devoted to more ignoble purposes, as may be seen in Sydney's State Papers, vol. i. p. 194. where, in an account of queen Elizabeth's amusements in her sixty-seventh year, it is said, "Her majesty says she is very well. This day she appoints a Frenchman to doe feates upon a rope

in the Conduit-court. To-morrow she hath commanded the bear, the bull, and the ape, to be bayted in the Tilt-yard." The site of this place is now occupied by a convenient guard-room, and other offices for the use of the foot-guards.

That part of St. James's Park behind the Horse-guards is called the Parade, from being the place where the reliefs for the different guards about the palace are paraded and inspected every morning, attended by an excellent band of military music.—Two telegraphs have been erected on the heights of the Admiralty; one towards the road to Dover, the other towards Portsmouth and Plymouth; an invention which took its origin, or at least was revived and greatly improved, at the beginning of the French revolution; and which we have simplified, and consequently improved. These machines were of great use during the war; and we hope that they will long stand at rest, since their particular usefulness is only felt in war-time.

Arrived at Charing Cross, we salute the statue of the unfortunate Charles, generally adorned with bouquets of oak on the anniversary of the restoration.—This place was so denominated from having been anciently a village named Charing, in which king Edward I. caused a magnificent cross to be erected in commemoration of his beloved queen Eleanor, part of which continued till the civil wars in the reign of Charles I. when it was entirely destroyed by the populace, as a monument of popish superstition. In the year 1633, an equestrian statue of king Charles I. was erected on the spot where this cross stood, which is still called Charing Cross. It has the advantage of being well placed at the meeting of three great streets. The pedestal on which it stands is finely elevated, and the horse full of fire and spirit; but the man is not thought to be equally well executed, and indeed appears too small in proportion to the horse. This statue, which is of brass, was cast by Le Sueur, who made the curious brass monument of the duke of Buckingham in Henry VII's chapel. After the execution of Charles I. the parliament ordered it to be destroyed; it was however purchased by a brazier in Holborn, of the name of Revet, who concealed it until the restoration, when he presented it to Charles II. who caused it to be erected in its present situation. On this subject, M. Grosley, in his Tour to London, vol. i. p. 203, says, "I shall speak of it only to remind the reader that this statue, being in the heat of the rebellion sold by auction, was knocked down at a low price to a cutler, who declared by advertisement, he would melt it down, and make handles for knives of it. He, in fact, caused knives with bronze handles to be exposed to sale in his shop, by which he soon made a fortune; the faction which opposed the king being all desirous of having some part of his statue debased to a knife-handle."—We must take this opportunity for writing down an idle story reported of the founder of this elegant statue, who is said to have hanged himself in a fit of despair on being reminded that he had forgotten to put a girth to the horse. The fact is, the artist knew very well that nearly all ancient equestrian statues, and that of Marcus Aurelius in particular, are without this modern appendage to the saddle; and he most probably omitted it on purpose.—A similar story was told of the man who cast the once-admired and nearly-adored statue of Henry IV. of France placed upon the Pont Neuf, because he had forgotten to put the well-known hat and feathers in his hand. We have no doubt but such anecdotes have been related of statues and their makers all over the world; and, although we have not lived yet the age of Nestor or Tithon, we may really and truly assert, that we have heard, read, or seen, hardly any thing truly original: *Nil sub sole novum*; "Nothing new under the sun;" and that, were we acquainted with the most ancient Chinese writings or traditions, we might find in them nearly the whole of what we read in ancient and modern authors. The imagination of man is a wheel—after one complete revolution, the same spoke must meet the eye again.—The Golden Cross, a



very famous inn situated behind the statue, presents a would-be gothic appearance, and is well known for the immense number of stages that resort there. Opposite are two or three fire-offices handsomely built; and a row of lottery-offices, decked in all the nonsense of multicolor letters, vaunting bills, gaudy decorations, and puffs.

A little to the west of Charing Cross is a large square, on one side of which is a handsome building, used as stables for his majesty's state-horses, and known by the name of the King's *Mews*. This word is borrowed from the diversion of hawking. When kings, in this and other countries, used to take delight in hunting the smaller inhabitants of the air with the help of some of the tyrants of that free element, places were assigned to keep the hawks or falcons drilled to the fight and trained to the game. These royal houses were like palaces, and went under the names of *falconry*. One of this sort near Paris is still called *la Muette*. The birds were placed there, and kept with great care, particularly when the time of moulting or casting feathers was approaching. The word *mew* is derived from the French *muer*, "to moult;" and thence from the Latin *mutare*, to change.—This place is of great antiquity, having been used for the accommodation of the king's falconers and hawks so early as the year 1377; but, the king's stables Lomesbury (now called Bloomsbury) being destroyed by fire in the year 1537, Henry VIII. caused the birds to be removed, and the mews enlarged and fitted up for the reception of his horses; and the royal stables have ever since been kept in this place. Here the beautiful cream-coloured horses enjoy their undisturbed repose, after prancing among the huzzas of the London crowd; and there the redoubted Cofacs used to bivouac during their short residence in this metropolis.—Thus, though the word *mew* bears no relation to horses, and does not signify any enclosure except to confine birds, as a hen-coop, &c. yet so polite and royal are our nobility and gentry, that every set of stables appended to an elegant modern street is called a *Mews*!—The old building being greatly decayed, the north side was erected in a magnificent manner by his late majesty, in the year 1732. This side of the *Mews* is exceedingly noble, particularly the centre, which is enriched with columns of the Doric order, and a pediment. The smaller pediments, and rustic arches under the cupolas or lanterns, are properly subordinate to the principal one; but set so close to the balustrade, that its intention as a gallery is destroyed. The edifice itself is greatly injured by the mean buildings that form the other sides of the quadrangle. If these were made to correspond with the main building, and a suitable entrance formed from Charing Cross, the royal stables would be a distinguished ornament to this part of the metropolis; but there is some talk of removing them entirely, to make way for new improvements.

In Castle-street, near the back of the *Mews*, is a free-school, with an excellent library over it, both founded and endowed in the year 1685, by Dr. Thomas Tennison, vicar of this parish, and afterwards archbishop of Canterbury. Adjoining to this library and school is the work-house for the poor; all of them erected upon a piece of ground granted to the inhabitants of this parish by king James I. for a burial-ground.

Returning through the *Mews*, we cross over, and soon come to the Spring-garden entrance into St. James's Park, a place noted for exhibitions of Panoramas, Panharmonicon, mechanical wonders, &c. &c. These words, *Panorama*, *Panharmonicon*, to which we might have added *Phantasmagoria*, and many other Greek words, call upon us to animadvert upon the folly of printing in gold letters on our walls or over our doors, inscriptions or words which can never enter the understanding of those whose eyes they happen to meet. We find in Leicester-square an office, or house of call, for servants out of place; and THE INSCRIPTION IS IN GREEK! Now this is truly ridiculous. Shall we have Sunday-schools where our servants may learn Greek, in order to understand where they are to go

when they want employment? and will the friends to the diffusion of *general knowledge* lend to both our universities for young professors in the language of Anacreon to teach our nursery-maids in St. James's Park or the Temple Gardens?—Down with Greek or any other foreign supercriptions. Our tongue, the venerable tongue of our forefathers, the idiom of Milton, Addison, Dryden, and Pope, wants not the flimsy aid of extraneous words; it has its own pathos and strength. These great masters of the vernacular tongue never were at a loss to express their ideas in English; why should a *fire-grate maker*, for instance, call his new contrivance a *metastatic grate*? Boileau says,

*Ce que l'on conçoit bien s'exprime clairement,  
Et les mots pour le dire arrivent aisément.*

What we well understand and feel, the word  
To render it comes of its own accord.

Agreeable to this axiom, those Grecians do not understand their own calling, since they are obliged to have recourse to *outlandish* expressions to make it known. We confess that there are adopted words of long standing, which it would be now pedantry to discard; but every one should oppose as strenuously as he can the introduction of others. Dr. Johnson has opened the flood-gate to these useless innovations.

Having stopped *in limine* to enter our protest against foreign disguises, we enter the Park, and shall describe its appearance in plain English, and in the words of Common Sense, as we find it in the Monthly Magazine for April 1813. In passing through the narrow entrance at Spring Gardens, about nine in the morning, "I found the lame and blind taking their periodical stations on each side the passage. I paused a few minutes to see them approach one after another, as to a regular calling; or like players taking their stations to act their settled part in the drama of life. One fellow, who had a withered leg, approached his post with cheerfulness; but he had no sooner seated himself, and stripped it bare, than he began such hideous moans as in a few minutes attracted several donations. Another, a blind woman, was brought to her post by a little boy; who carelessly leading her against the step of a door, she gave him a smart box on the ear, and exclaimed, D— you, you rascal, can't you mind what you're about?"—and then, leaning her back to the wall, she, in the same breath, began to chaunt a *hymn*, which soon brought donations from many pious passengers. The systematic movements of these people led me to inquire about their conduct and policy from a shopkeeper in the neighbourhood. He told me that about a dozen of them obtained a good living in that passage; that an attendance of about two hours per day sufficed to each of them; when, by an arrangement among themselves, they regularly succeed each other. He could not guess at the amounts thus collected; but he said, that he had once watched a noisy blind fellow for half an hour, and in that time saw thirty-four people give him at least as many halfpence; he thence, and from other observations, concluded, that in a couple of hours each of them collects five or six shillings. We cannot wonder, then, at the aversion entertained by these objects to the discipline of our workhouses.

"On my entrance into the Park, I was amused and interested by an assemblage of a hundred mothers, nurses, and valetudinarians, accompanied by as many children, who are drawn together every fine morning at this hour by the metropolitan luxury of warm milk from the cow. Seats are provided, as well as biscuits, and other conveniences; and here from sun-rise till ten o'clock continues a *milk-fair*, distinguished by its peculiar music, the lowing of cows and the squalling of children. The privilege of keeping these cows, and of selling their milk on this spot, belongs to the gate-keepers of the Park; and it must be allowed to be a great convenience to invalids and children, to whom this wholesome beverage and its attendant walk are often prescribed.

"In my way towards and along the Mall, I remarked that few were walking my way; but that all the faces and footsteps



footsteps were earnestly directed towards London. The circumstance exemplified that feature of modern manners which leads thousands of those engaged in the active business of the metropolis to sleep and keep their families in the neighbouring villages. These thousands walk or ride therefore every day to and from London at hours corresponding with the nature and urgency of their employments. Before nine o'clock the various roads are covered with clerks belonging to the public offices, bankers' and merchants' clerks, who are obliged to be at their posts at that hour." It is well known that the business at the Bank commences at nine, and that a small fine is levied upon every clerk who is not present within a few minutes after that time. A few years ago, these gentlemen presented a memorial to Mr. Abraham Newland, to be laid before the directors, praying that an additional hour might be allowed them in the morning, at least in the winter, "because many of them slept out of town, and found it extremely difficult to get their breakfasts and arrive at the Bank so early as nine o'clock." But they were politely informed, in reply, that the public business could not be impeded, merely because gentlemen whose employment was in town chose to live out of it.—"From nine till eleven, you see shop-keepers, stock-brokers, lawyers, and principals in various establishments, bustling along with careful and anxious countenances, indicative of their various prospects and responsibilities. At twelve, faunters along the man of wealth and ease, going perhaps to look at his balances, orders, or remittances; and indicating the folly of wealth by his gouty legs, or cautious rheumatic step. Such is the routine of the Park, through which no carriages are allowed to pass; but other avenues into the metropolis present, through every forenoon, besides the lines of pedestrians, crowded stage-coaches, private coaches, and chariots, numerous gigs and chaises, and many equestrians. I amused myself with a calculation of the probable number of persons who thus every day, between eight and six, pass to and from London within a distance of seven miles. In the present route I concluded the numbers to be something like the following: 200 from Pimlico, 300 from Chelsea, 200 from the King's Road and Sloane-street, 50 from Fulham and Putney, and 50 from Battersea and Wandsworth; making 800 per day. If then there are twenty such avenues to the metropolis, it appears that the total of the regular ingress and egress will be 16,000 persons, of whom perhaps 8000 walk, 2000 arrive in public conveyances, and 6000 on horseback, or in open or close private carriages! Such a phenomenon is presented nowhere else in the world; and it never can exist except in a city which unites the same features of population, wealth, commerce, and varied employment, which belong to our own vast metropolis.

"It concerned me to observe that this Park presents at this time a neglected appearance. The seats are old and without paint, and many vacancies exist in the lines of the trees. The railing round the centre is heavy and decayed; and the appearance of every part is unworthy of a metropolitan royal park, adjoining to the constant residence of the court. My heart ached, and the tears started from my eyes, as I brought to mind the crowds of beauty, rank, and fashion, which till within these few years, used to be displayed in the centre Mall, on Sunday evenings during the spring and summer! How often in my youth had I been a delighted spectator of the enchanted and enchanting assemblage! Here used to promenade, for one or two hours after dinner, the whole British world of gaiety, beauty, and splendour! Here could be seen in one moving mass, extending the whole length of the Mall, ten thousand of the most lovely women, in this country of female beauty, all splendidly attired, and accompanied by as many well-dressed men! What a change has time wrought in these once happy and cheerful personages! How many of those who on this spot delighted my own eyes are now mouldering in the silent grave? And how altered are all the persons, and perhaps the fortunes and feelings, of others!

Alas, that gay and fascinating scene no longer continues! The change of manners has put an end to this unparalleled assemblage, which alone was worth any sacrifice. The dinner-hour of four and five, among the great, having shifted to the unhealthy hours of eight or nine, the walk after dinner, in the dinner full dress, is consequently lost. The present promenade, which is now shifted to the Green Park, does not possess therefore the splendour of high rank; and the morning assemblage in Hyde Park, and Kensington Gardens; though gay and imposing, has little splendour of dress, and loses the effect produced by rank and distinguished character, owing to those classes being shut up in carriages. The modern custom too of abandoning the metropolis for the sea-coast, or the country, as soon as the fine weather sets in, is another drawback from the fascination and agreeableness of those Sunday promenades.

"These Parks may be denominated the lungs of the metropolis. They are essential to the healthful respiration of its inhabitants; they contribute to their innocent pleasures; and, under a wife and benevolent administration, they might be made to add greatly to the public happiness. It would be a suitable homage of the government to the people, if the promenades were made as great a luxury as possible; and particularly if the bands of the guards were to play in the Malls of St. James's Park for two hours every evening, between Lady-day and Michaelmas. This would indicate a desire in the governors to contribute to the happiness of the governed; and would make the former appear to the latter in a more grateful character than as the mere assessor of taxes, and as the organ of legal coercion."—Thus far our friend Common Sense; who, it will be seen, cannot conclude without a touch of politics, and a fling at the "powers that be." We have just to mention, that the Mall, which proceeds between rows of lofty elms, chestnuts, and lime-trees, derives its name from an ancient game played there with sticks and balls, and still used in the Champs Elysées at Paris, called *maille*.

In the reign of Henry VIII. St. James's Park was a desolate marshy field; but that prince, on his building the palace, inclosed it, laid it out in walks, and, collecting the waters together, gave to the new-inclosed ground, and new-raised building, the name of St. James. It was afterwards much enlarged and improved by Charles II. who added to it several fields, planted it with rows of lime-trees, laid out the Mall, which is a vista half a mile in length, and was, at that time, formed into a hollow smooth walk, inclosed by a border of wood on each side, with an iron hoop at one end, for the purpose of playing the game above-mentioned. He also formed the water into a canal of one hundred feet broad, and two thousand eight hundred long, with a decoy and other ponds for water-fowl. One of the avenues formed by him acquired the name of the Birdcage-walk, which it still retains, from his aviary beside it, and the number of cages hung in the trees. "Here," says Cibber, in the Apology for his Life, "Charles was often seen, amidst crowds of spectators, feeding his ducks, and playing with his dogs, and passing his idle moments in affability, even to the meanest of his subjects, which made him to be adored by the common people." It was upon one of these occasions that the duke of York, afterwards James II. cautioned his majesty not to expose his person so freely. Charles's answer is well known: "Take care of yourself, brother; nobody will think of killing me to make you king."—This park is nearly a mile and a half in circumference, surrounded by many magnificent structures, and always open for the accommodation and recreation of the public.

On the north side of the park, and about half way up the Mall, is situated the royal palace of St. James. On the site of this palace there was anciently a hospital dedicated to St. James, founded by the citizens of London, for fourteen women afflicted with the leprosy; afterwards the charity was extended, and eight brethren were added to administer divine service. This hospital is mentioned in a manuscript in the Cottonian library, so early as the



year 1100. In the year 1531, it was surrendered to Henry VIII. who took down the whole edifice, except the chapel, and erected the present palace in its stead, which, from the faint to whom the hospital was dedicated, was called St. James's Palace. In this edifice our kings have kept their court ever since the palace at Whitehall was consumed by fire, in 1697. It is an irregular brick building, without the least ornament. In the front, next St. James's street, is a gothic arched gateway, that leads into a small square court, with a piazza on the west side: on the south side of this court is the guard-room, the entrance to which is by the grand stair-case, situated at the south-west corner of the piazza. The buildings are low and plain; and there are two other courts beyond, that have very little the appearance of a palace. The windows, however, look into a large garden, and command a very pleasant view of St. James's Park. On the west side of the square is the chapel, which is the same as belonged to the ancient hospital; and, ever since that building was demolished, has been converted to the use of the royal family. It is a royal peculiar, and exempt from all episcopal jurisdiction. The service is performed in this chapel in the same manner as at cathedrals; and there belong to it a dean, a lord-almoner, a sub-dean, ten singing-boys, and forty-eight chaplains, who preach in turn before the royal family.

The external appearance of this palace is inconsiderable, yet certainly not mean. That part in which the rooms of state are, being only one story, gives it a regular appearance on the outside. Although there is nothing very superb or grand in the decorations or furniture of the state-apartments, they are commodious and handsome. The entrance to these rooms is by a stair-case that opens into the principal court, next to Pall Mall. At the top of the stair-case are two guard-rooms; one to the left, called the Queen's, and the other the King's, guard-room, leading to the state-apartments. Immediately beyond the king's guard-room is the Presence-chamber, which contains a canopy, and is hung with tapestry; it is now used as a passage to the principal rooms. There is a suite of five of these, opening into each other successively, and fronting the park. The presence-chamber opens into the centre room, called the Privy-chamber, where is a canopy of flowered crimson velvet, under which the king receives the quakers. On the right are two drawing-rooms, one within the other. At the upper end of the farther one is a throne with its canopy, on which the king receives certain formal addresses. This apartment is the grand drawing-room, in which the king and queen are present on certain days, the nearer room being a kind of anti-chamber, in which the nobility are permitted to sit down while their majesties are present in the farther room, there being stools and sofas for the purpose. On the left, on entering the privy-chamber from the king's guard-room and presence-chamber, there are two levee-rooms, the nearer serving as an anti-chamber to the other. All these rooms were formerly very mean in their furniture: on the marriage of the prince of Wales, they were fitted up in their present state. The walls are covered with tapestry, very beautiful, and quite fresh in the colours; for, though made for Charles II. it had never been put up, having by some accident lain in a chest, till discovered a little before the marriage of the prince. The canopy of the throne was made for the queen's birth-day, the first which happened after the union of the kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland. It is of crimson velvet, with broad gold lace, having embroidered crowns, set with real and fine pearls: the shamrock, the badge of the Irish nation, forms one of the decorations of the crown, and is accurately executed. In the grand drawing-room is a large magnificent chandelier of gilt silver; and in the grand levee-room is a very noble bed, the furniture of which is of crimson velvet, manufactured in Spitalfields. This bed was put up, with the tapestry, on the marriage of the prince of Wales,

The sole use made latterly of St. James's Palace, is for purposes of state. In 1809, the south eastern wing of the building was destroyed by fire; (see p. 213.) The state-apartments were, however, uninjured; and the court is still held here. A private dwelling after such a fire would have been restored in a few weeks or months; but the nominal palace of the three last kings of England, the scene of all their grandeur, presents even to the contemporary generation a monument of the instability of every human work. The door at which Margaret Nicholson made her attempt on the life of his present majesty, and at which the public were used to see their sovereign enter and depart for many years past, is now a dismal chaos of ruins; as is the entire suite of rooms which led from it to those drawing-rooms in which the court of England used to assemble, till within these six years, on birth and gala days! He would have been deemed a false and malignant prophet, who in 1808 might have foretold, that, "during the next seven years, the public palace of England would remain a heap of ruins, the undisturbed resort of noxious reptiles, and its chambers the habitation of the fowls of the air." Yet such is literally the fact, in regard to the eastern apartments of the palace of St. James.

The queen has a separate palace at the west end of the Park, fronting the Mall. The first edifice on this spot was originally known by the name of Arlington-house; which being purchased by the duke of Buckingham, who rebuilt it in 1703, it was called Buckingham-house till the year 1762, when his present majesty bought it; and it has obtained the name of the Queen's Palace, from having been settled on her majesty in 1775, in lieu of Somersethouse. This edifice is a mixture of brick and stone, in the front of which is a spacious court-yard, enclosed by a semi-circular sweep of iron-rails. The principal door is placed between four tall Corinthian pilasters, which are fluted, and reach to the top of the second story. Within this compass are two series of very large and lofty windows, over which is the entablature. Above is an attic story, with square windows and Tuscan pilasters; and the whole is crowned with a balustrade, which conceals the roof. On each side of the building are circular colonades of the Ionic order, also crowned with a balustrade and vases. These colonades join the offices at the extremity of the wings to the main building; and on the top of each of these offices is a turret, supporting a dome, from which rises a weather-cock. The situation of this palace is extremely pleasant; for it not only commands a prospect of St. James's Park in front, but has also a spacious park behind it, together with a large garden and terrace; from the latter of which, as well as from the apartments, there is a beautiful prospect of the adjacent country. Several new buildings have been lately added to it, particularly a library and a riding-school. The library is furnished with the best authors, in various languages; and in both that and the gallery are great numbers of curious prints and paintings, by the best masters. The collection of drawings is exceedingly precious, and used to be a great source of entertainment for our venerable king previous to his illness. We are told, by one of the keepers of this valuable collection, that the king, by the strength of his uncommon memory, used to direct them to such a drawer, there to find, among several bundles or sets of drawings or prints, all marked with a peculiar number, the very piece he wanted to be carried or sent to him. The best works of Canaletti are in the vestibule; where we have remarked also a painted stair-case, representing the arrival of Æneas before the Queen of Carthage.

One nuisance disgraces the queen's palace; namely, a small barrack, or guard-house, lately erected to the south of it; on the other side of Buckingham-gate.

On the north-west side of the Queen's Palace is the Green Park, which extends from St. James's Park to Piccadilly; from the latter of which it is separated, in some parts, by a wall, and by an iron railing in others. The



Ranger's Lodge at the top of the hill, fronting towards Piccadilly, with its gardens and pleasure-grounds, forms a very picturesque object, and is seen to advantage from the ride on the south side of the park, called Constitution-hill. This park contributes greatly to the pleasantness of the two palaces, as well as of the surrounding houses, that are situated so as to command a view of it.

We cross the west extremity of Piccadilly, into Hyde Park. It is a royal demesne, extending, between the great western road on the south side and the road to Oxford on the north, to Kensington. It is part of the ancient manor of Hida, which belonged to the monastery of St. Peter at Westminster, till, in the reign of Henry VIII. it became the property of the crown. It was originally much larger than it is at present, having been reduced since the survey in 1652, when it contained six hundred and twenty acres, by inclosing Kensington gardens, and by grants of land, between Hyde-park Corner and Park-lane, for building on. According to a survey taken in the year 1790, its present extent is three hundred and ninety-four acres, two roods, and thirty-eight poles.

The scenery of this park is very pleasing, and its natural beauties will be greatly heightened, when the plantations made in it lately have reached maturity. The Serpentine River, at the west end, is a fine sheet of water, formed by queen Caroline, in the year 1730, by enlarging the bed of the stream, which, taking its rise to the north-west of Bayswater, on the Uxbridge road, passes through Kensington-gardens and this park, and falls into the Thames near Ranelagh. On the north side of the Serpentine River is a cluster of houses for the keepers and deputy-rangers of the park, which, being built on the edge of a grove of tall oaks, forms a pleasing and picturesque object in the landscape. The one nearest the river is built of timber and plaster, and is of considerable antiquity. It was known by the name of the Cake-house in the beginning of the last century, and probably much earlier. In the garden belonging to this house, is the building erected by the Humane Society, as a receiving-house for those who are apparently drowned in the neighbouring river.

The space between the margin of the Serpentine River and the back of the houses at Knightsbridge, is studded here and there with beautiful elm-trees, some of them are of an astonishing size; and, when seen grouped together in the purple ocean of light poured upon them on a summer evening a few minutes after sunset, they remind us of the charming scene which the woody hills of St. Cloud and Bellevue present to the Parisians at the same hour and on the same point of the horizon. There is between these two landscapes something so similar, that he who has seen them both finds them generally united on the canvas of his recollection, and both apparently painted with the same glowing pallet.

At the north-west corner of this park is a very beautiful inclosed eminence, called Buckden-hill, which, being separated from Kensington-gardens only by a haia, appears, at a distance, to be a part of it. On the declivity of this hill is the grove of oaks mentioned before, in which are two medicinal springs; the one, a slight chalybeate, is drunk as a tonic, but its virtues ought probably to be attributed to the exercise taken in going thither; the other is reputed a specific in some disorders of the eyes. There is a foot-path across this hill to Kensington-gardens.—On the south side of the park are very handsome barracks for the horse-guards; and on this side are two carriage-roads to Kensington; one of which is better known by the name of Rotten-row. These have become the resort of the fashionable world, as well as the Ring, and are as much frequented, especially on Sundays. No nation in the universe can approach us in this point of luxuriant ostentation; and the splendour of the equipages, their fanciful variety, the richness and particular elegance of the harness, the beauty and spirit of the cattle that draw them, combine, under this unrivalled point of view,

all that is necessary to convey at once the idea of a rich and highly-cultivated nation. The noble objects within view of this park add an inexpressible grandeur to its natural beauties. The venerable pile of Westminster-abbey, the modern mansions of the nobility, and many public buildings, form a boundary on the side of the town, which makes a fine contrast with the rural prospect opposite, of the Surry hills.

The open part of the park was, till lately, used for the field-days and reviews of the horse and foot guards, and also for those of the volunteers; by which the sward of it was so much injured, that it had become a dry sandy plain, with scarcely a vestige of verdure. At present, however, it is used only for occasional reviews; and the surface is sown with grass-seeds, and covered with the mud taken from the reservoir at the lower part of the Serpentine River, which will restore it to its pristine beauty. This restoration, however, has been a little retarded by the pressure of feet and temporary booths upon a late joyful occasion; we mean the celebration of peace by means of a fair, and other amusements, the scene of which was laid in the three parks, on Monday, the 1st of August last.

Never, perhaps, in the annals of this vast metropolis had the curiosity of hundreds of thousands of the public been more eagerly and anxiously excited, than by the announcement of the Grand Jubilee of this day. It is an indisputable fact, that so immense a number of the people at large were never brought together, in any previous instance, by any description of public rejoicings, on any of the great events which have so often gilded the pages of British story. After repeated delays, the centenary of the accession of the house of Brunswick to the throne, and the anniversary of the glorious victory of the Nile, was selected as the day for a jubilee in celebration of peace. It was announced that further postponement would be necessary in case of unfavourable weather. The morning came: the sky was darkened, the rain descended in torrents, and the expected pleasures of the day were given up for the moment as lost. Sunday had been fine. The eve of the festival day had in a manner commenced the entertainment; and thousands, promenading the parks, had almost outwatched the moon.—The apprehension of disappointment was, however, suddenly relieved; for between ten and eleven the sun re-appeared, beaming in all his glory, and shedding his brightest refulgence on the scene. The inhabitants of the metropolis, and the countless numbers who had come to it from "all the country round," had nothing now to interfere with their hopes, or to prevent them from getting ready as soon as they pleased, and throwing themselves into the vortex of festivity and rejoicing. In Hyde Park was the fair, properly so called. It had booths, shows, and swings, in profusion; and to these was added a naumachia in miniature on the Serpentine River. But we must be brief in our description. The naval engagement on the Serpentine commenced about six in the evening by a cannonading between the foremost vessels, some of which hoisted the American, and others the English, colours. Both shores were lined with people, anxious to witness this mimic fight; and in the public eagerness many were forced into the water. The Americans were of course compelled to strike their colours. An interval of near an hour and a half followed without further movement. At dark, however, the English fleet formed, and came down with a fair wind to attack that of the Americans lying at anchor. A tremendous cannonade followed, when the American fleet was driven on-shore, and the English ships were towed back to their original moorings.—About ten o'clock the spectators were suddenly surprised by the instantaneous burst on their sight of a ship on fire. This was at first beheld as a calamity; but in a few minutes it was universally perceived that she was bearing down on the American fleet previously driven on-shore. The awful grandeur and the still-increasing splendour of the scene, drew forth bursts of applause from both shores of the Serpentine;



pentine; and in a few minutes the first ship of the American fleet which lay in her line, and with which she came in contact, was set on fire, and added to the magnificence of a scene which, in its real occurrence, has been universally allowed to exceed all others in terrific pomp, viz. that of a ship of war on fire at sea. This frigate was followed by a second; and by the two, the whole American fleet was set on fire and demolished.—Soon after this the fireworks began; and Hyde Park presented a phenomenon nowhere else to be seen, namely, the water-rockets. They commence with a report, which draws the attention of the spectators to them; they are then seen whirling about with great rapidity on the surface of the water, imitating the rotatory motion of a mill-wheel. In a few seconds there is an addition of a very beautiful fountain, which, after displaying its elegant spoutings for some time, bursts forth with a loud report into what are called water-snakes. These, after flying into the air, descend again into the water, into which they immerse for a minute or two, and then rise at the distance of a few feet; and keep thus continually bounding in all directions, till, after various immersions, at last they expire in a loud explosion. With these the exhibition in Hyde Park terminated.

The Green Park, at an early hour, began to display its attractions: besides the Balloon, it was here that the Castle-Temple was to be seen: here the royal booth displayed its crimson tapestry and its illuminated front; and here the splendid Bridge across Constitution-hill presented the names of the chief naval heroes of the war.—The attractions in this quarter were increased by the presence, at Buckingham-house, of the princesses and queen, who had invited the regent and 250 of the nobility and gentry to dinner, and to view the different exhibitions. The royal family paraded the lawn for a short time. The duke of Cambridge and the princess Sophia of Gloucester were particularly anxious to see and understand the process of filling the balloon. It was ready to ascend about six o'clock; but its flight was delayed a few minutes, that her majesty and the princesses might witness the ascent. At twenty minutes past six, when the cords which held the balloon were ready to be cut, it was found that the fastening which secures the network to the valve at the top of the balloon had by some means been disengaged, and was held only by a slight twine. Under these circumstances, the new aspirant to celestial excursions, Mrs. Henry Johnston, an actress, was informed that she could not possibly accompany Mr. Sadler on his voyage without imminent danger to both. The duke of Wellington, having ascertained the danger, recommended both to decline the voyage. But young Sadler, who is only seventeen years of age, feeling for the disappointment of the public, and for his own honour, was determined to go up; and he ascended about twenty-four minutes past six. When over the London Docks, the balloon appeared for a short time nearly stationary; and it was not until a quantity of ballast was thrown out, that a quicker motion could be given to it. On passing over Deptford, at a considerable height, Mr. Sadler went through a cloud which left behind it, on the railing of the car and on various parts of the balloon, a thick moisture, which soon became frozen; and Mr. Sadler, for a short time, felt the cold as intense as in winter. Immediately over Woolwich the string which fastened the net, as was apprehended, suddenly broke, and the main body of the balloon was forced quickly through the aperture nearly eighteen feet. Mr. Sadler, to prevent the danger which threatened him, caught the pipe at the bottom of the balloon; and, by hanging on it and the valve-line, he prevented the balloon from further escaping. The valve, which had for some time resisted every attempt to open it, in consequence of being frozen, at this time gave way, and suffered the gas to escape. A sudden shift of wind, whilst the balloon was apparently falling into the middle of the Thames at Sea Reach, carried it about one hundred yards over the marshes on the Essex side, when the aeronaut seized the opportunity of making a gash in the balloon.

with his knife, which the wind considerably widened, and occasioned the escape of the gas in great quantities. Mr. Sadler's descent on this account was rather more precipitate and violent than he could have wished. He landed however in Mucking Marshes, sixteen miles below Gravesend, on the Essex coast, without sustaining any other injury than a slight sprain, in about forty minutes after his departure from the Park. A fisherman, of the name of Mansbridge, fearing that the balloon might fall into the Thames, had followed its course as nearly as he could with his boat, to afford any assistance in his power. Mr. S. with his balloon, was conveyed by him to Gravesend, from whence he took a post-chaise and four to town, and arrived at Buckingham-house at half past three on Tuesday morning.

Scarcely had the moon risen in unclouded majesty—

“Unveil'd her peerless light,  
And o'er the dark her silver mantle threw;”

than the bridge and the royal booth were illuminated, and the Chinese lanterns here and there showed their fantastic transparencies; they were, however, too few in number, and not sufficiently lighted to produce much effect, and were only pretty when viewed in detail. The illuminations did not pretend to any extraordinary magnificence; they merely exhibited, amidst a profuse blaze of lamps, the names of all the illustrious companions of Wellington in the peninsular war, and of the principal naval heroes, dead and living, who during the last twenty years have upheld and increased the maritime glory of their country. At ten o'clock a loud and long-continued discharge of artillery announced the commencement of the fireworks, which were, certainly, if not the most tasteful, yet on the grandest and most extensive scale that we have ever witnessed. From the battlements of the Castle, at one moment, ascended the most brilliant rockets; presently the walls disclosed all the rarest and most complicated ornaments of which the art is susceptible: the senses were next astonished and enchanted with a pacific exhibition of those tremendous instruments of destruction invented by Col. Congreve. Some notion even of their terrible power might be formed from the display of the night, and their exceeding beauty could be contemplated divested of its usual awful associations. Each rocket contains in itself a world of smaller rockets: as soon as it is discharged from the gun, it bursts, and flings aloft in the air innumerable parcels of flame, brilliant as the brightest stars; the whole atmosphere was illuminated by a delicate blue light, which threw an air of enchantment over the trees and lawns, and made even the motley groups of universal London become interesting as an assembly in romance. These several smaller rockets then burst again, and a shower of fiery light descended to the earth, and extended over many yards. Such was one of the beautiful fireworks which, during the space of two hours, amused and astonished the people.—The public were now becoming weary, when the grand metamorphosis took place of the Fortress into the Temple of Concord, by the removal of the fortifications, displaying the Temple moving upon an axis, ornamented with allegorical paintings. The upper and lower pictures on each side were connected in subject, those beneath being sequels to the above. They were illustrative of the Origin and Effects of War—the Deliverance of Europe from Tyranny—the Restoration of the Bourbons by the aid of the Allies—the return of Peace, and its happy consequences—and the Triumph of Britain under the government of the Prince Regent.—On the first side, Strife, as described by the ancient poets, was represented expelled from Heaven, and sent to excite dissensions among men. Jupiter is seen (accompanied by other divinities) dismissing her from above, and the inhabitants of the earth are flying, terrified at her approach. The lower picture represents the effect of her descent. On one side, the Cyclops are forging implements of war. Mars, in his car, driven by Bellona, and hurried on by the Furies, is overturning all before him. In the back-ground are seen towns on fire, and



and a desolated plain. In front are Charity flying in dismay; Truth and Justice quitting the earth, and Hope lingering behind.—The second side represents Europe struggling with Tyranny. He is tearing off her diadem, and trampling on her balance; at his feet, among emblems of Religion, Justice, &c. Liberty lies prostrate; Wisdom, brandishing the *fulmen*, is descending to the rescue of Europe. In the picture beneath, the Genius of France is restoring the sceptre to the dynasty of the Bourbons, personified by a female seated on a throne, in a regal mantle, ornamented with fleurs-de-lis; and on the other, Russia, Prussia, Austria, and Sweden, are witnessing the event with delight; a group of subjects behind are expressing their joy and homage, and Genii are descending with emblems of Peace, Plenty, Justice, Honour, Liberty, Religion, &c. At one end of this composition, Strength is driving out Anarchy, Fraud, and Rebellion: at the other end, Victory is inscribing on a shield the names of the great Commanders of the Allied Powers, and Fame is sounding her trumpet.—On the third side, Peace is seen in the clouds with her olive-branch; Time looks at her with transport, and the Earth hails her return. Beneath is represented her reign, or the renewal of the Golden Age. She is surrounded by Plenty, the Rural Deities, Agriculture, Commerce, the Arts, Minerva, and the Muses.—The fourth side displays a colossal statue of the Prince Regent crowned by Victory: Discord is chained by force to the pedestal: Truth and Justice are returning to earth: and Britannia is looking up to Heaven with gratitude for the blessings of her government. Below is the triumph of Britain. Britannia is in a car of state, accompanied by Neptune with his trident, and Mars displaying the British standard: Fame and Victory attend upon her. She is preceded by Prudence, Temperance, Justice, and Fortitude, and followed by the Arts, Commerce, Industry, and Domestic Virtues.—We have endeavoured to represent the third and fourth sides of these beautiful transparencies in the annexed Plate; for undoubtedly no display of artificial and ornamental light was ever condensed in a smaller compass, and heightened into more magnificent effect. Some disappointment was felt that no person of political or military importance was in the royal booth.

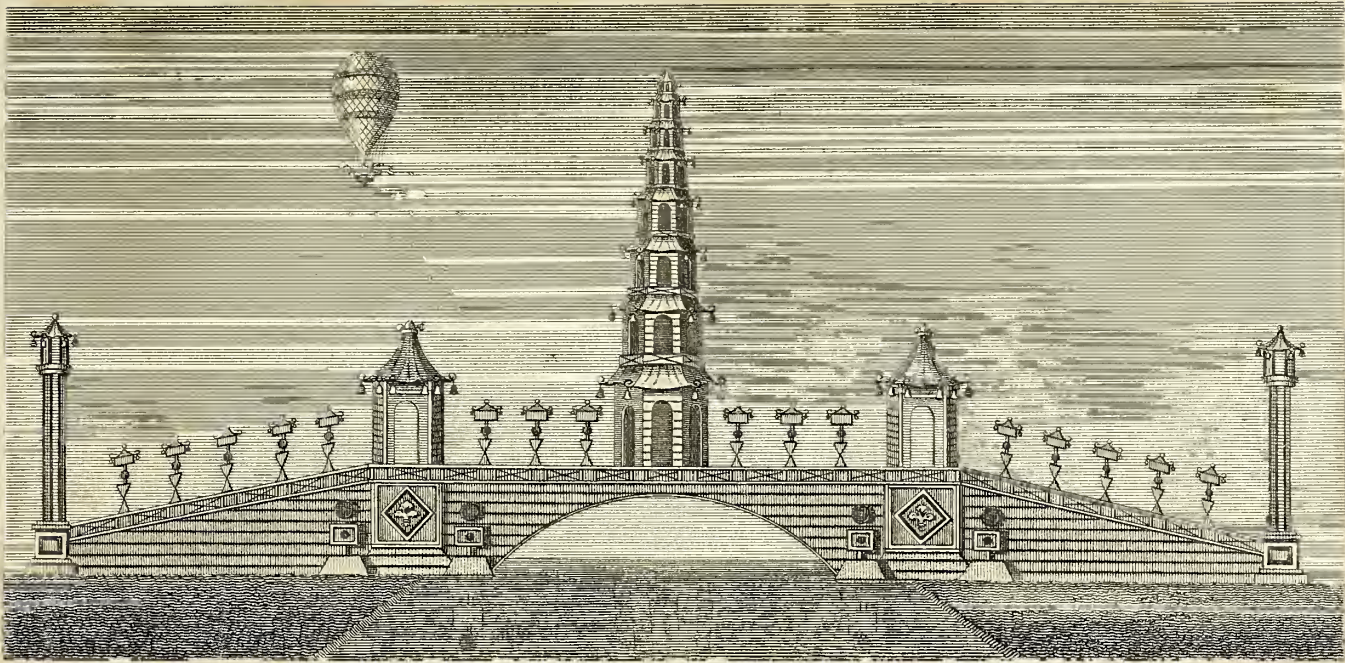
The fireworks and the temple together certainly gave in the general gaze a very brilliant gratification in the Green Park. But St. James's Park was the chief place of attraction for all those who feared to encounter the trouble of mixing in the crowd, and who could afford to pay half-a-guinea in the expectation of personal security and comfort. Notwithstanding the immense crowds in the streets, which we have before noticed, the access to this park was very easy at several gates. Between two and three o'clock some thousands entered, and their numbers gradually increased till dusk, when they augmented very considerably, and the place had all the appearance of Vauxhall on a full night. Besides the Birdcage-walk, the Parade, and the front of Buckingham-house, outside of the semicircular railing, were appropriated to that part of the public who paid for admission. Over the Canal was erected a Bridge of timber elegantly ornamented with temples and pillars, surmounted by a lofty Pagoda. Tents were pitched in rows along the sides of the Canal; and at regular intervals national flags were hoisted. A number of Thames-watermen had permission to ply on the Canal; and many worthy citizens and their families enjoyed an aquatic diversion for the first, and perhaps the last, time on this regal stream. Several boat-races took place before dusk; but the boats were just as they are seen on the river, not painted, decorated, and ensigned, as was expected. Of the booths erected for the accommodation of the company, many were untenanted; those, however, which were occupied, had a pretty good share of business: the charges were enormous. The time, till dark, was chiefly employed by the company in walking backwards and forwards, or getting their dinner. The only public amuse-

ment consisted in the ascent of the balloon from the front of the queen's house, which was preceded by the flight of one or two of a small and insignificant size. From six to nine, people beguiled their tedious hours with eating and drinking, or observing the progress of the illumination of the Chinese Bridge, or the somewhat distant noise of the firing on the Serpentine River. About nine, the Bridge and the Pagoda were nearly, though they were not all night completely, illuminated according to the design, either through the wind, or some other accidental circumstance. The lawn was lighted up by two rows, on each side of the Canal, of stars and crescents placed alternately. The Mall, Birdcage-walk, &c. were illuminated by circles of lamps, embracing the trunks of most of the trees. The Chinese lanterns, which promised something fantastically fascinating, by no means answered expectation; not from any inherent fault in them, but from the poverty of the lights placed within them, which were not sufficient to show off the whimsical and pretty devices painted on them. If they formed a correct idea of Chinese illumination, it must be *sombre* indeed. About ten, the bridge, with its temples and pillars, and its towering superstructure, became an object of singular beauty and magnificence. Whether such a character of design had or had not any thing to do with the matters of celebration, it unquestionably combined the elegant and the picturesque in the highest degree. It appeared a blazing edifice of golden fire. Every part of it was covered with lamps, the glass reflectors, in proper places, relieving the dazzling splendour with their silver lustre; the canopies of the temple throwing up their bright wheels and stars, the pillars enriched with radiance, every rising tower of the Pagoda pouring forth its fiery showers, and rockets springing from its lofty top, in majestic flights, almost presuming to out-rival the ancient inhabitants of the firmament. The effect of its vivid lights on the calm water which flowed beneath, the verdant foliage of the surrounding trees, the scattered tents, and the assemblage of spectators on the lawn, might, without much of hyperbole, be called magical and enchanting.

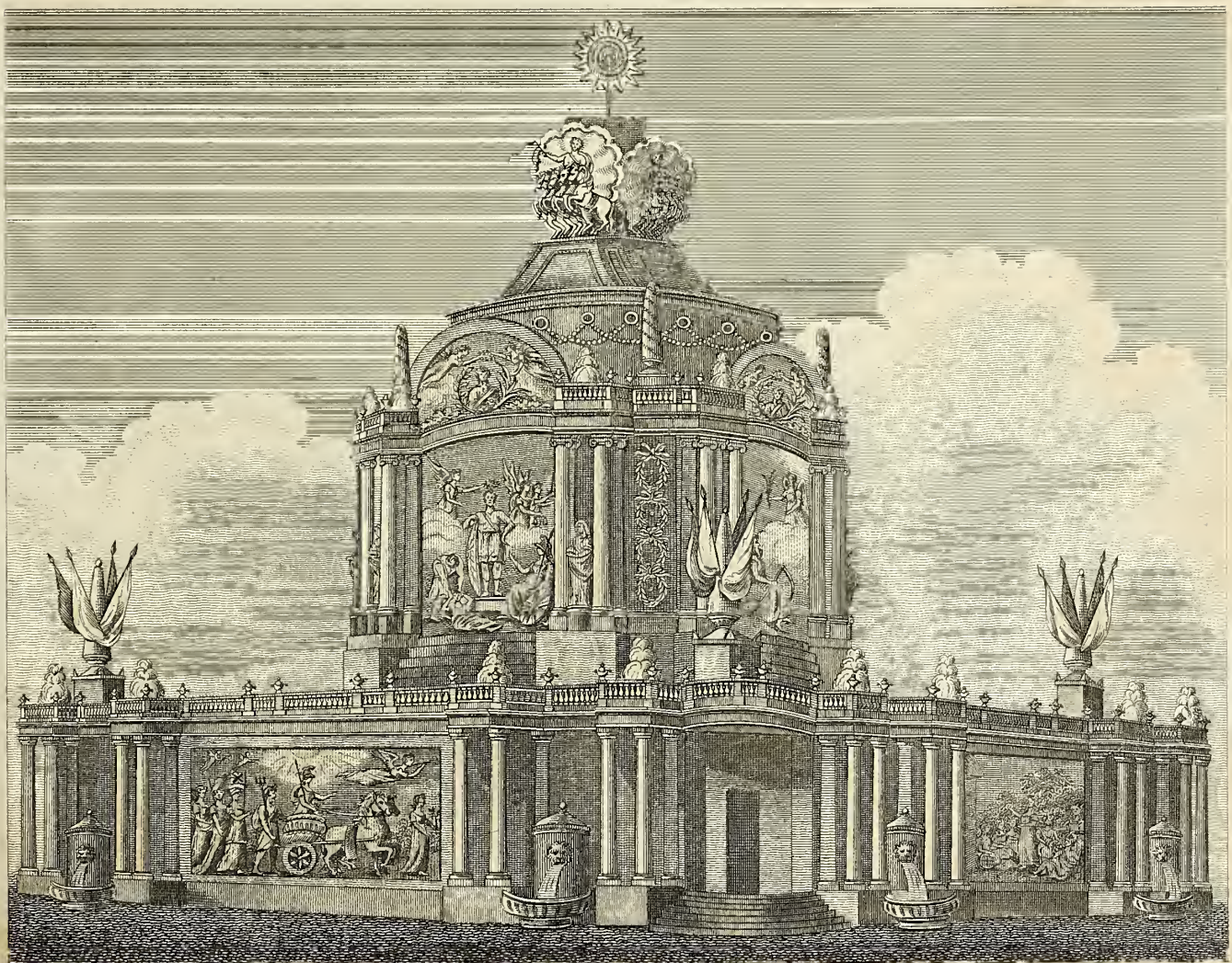
At ten, discharges of artillery hurried all the spectators to the western end of the Park, as they announced the commencement of the superior fireworks in the Green Park. Benches innumerable were brought by soldiers to enable the fair portion of the assemblage to obtain a view of the Castle, of which after all only the upper part could be seen distinctly; that edifice being placed in a low situation, instead of being raised on a mound so as to render it conspicuous. Then the grand display of pyrotechnics took place, in number we readily believe never exceeded. Rockets in profusion led the way, and were continued at every interval from both parks. Jerbs, maroons, Roman candles, catharine-wheels, serpents, stars, flower-pots, and girandoles, succeeded each other, and were discharged with excellent skill and effect. That sort of firework called the girandole was very frequently displayed, in different colours, and was decidedly the most beautiful of the whole. Nothing of the kind could be imagined finer. But the repetition of these things, with occasional pauses, for more than two hours, became tedious. It told no intelligible tale; though the public had been informed that the affairs of the Castle were to give something like a representation of a battle and a siege. Instead of sending up the fireworks one or two at a time, if they had been thrown up more in masses, relieved by candles and rockets, and continued in larger masses gradually, they would have reached the climax of magnificence in this kind of exhibition, and would have produced a most striking effect in less than half the time employed in frittering away all the advantages of this splendid art.

About twelve o'clock, and near the expiration of the fireworks, the Pagoda, which was covered with lamps, and at intervals showed a calm mass of uniform light, exhibited an appearance that excited much doubt. Its upper towers appeared enveloped in flame, and it was at first thought





*Chinese Pagoda and Bridge, in St. James's Park.*



*The Temple of Concord, erected for the Celebration of Peace, on the 1<sup>st</sup> of Aug. 1814.*







thought by many that it was intended to burn it down; but it was soon learned that the fire was accidental. The flames spread rapidly. Several engines were procured, and played upon it; but it continued burning till, in a short time, the five upper towers were destroyed, or fell over the eastern side of the Bridge: the lower ones were in a state little better, and some part of the substructure was much deteriorated. The fate of this erection was much regretted, as it was deservedly a favourite; and still more for the calamity by which it was attended, namely, the loss of two lives; besides which, five other fire-workers were much hurt. The accident is said to have been occasioned by the hurry of discharging some of the fireworks; room was not left for a rocket-wheel to play, and the flame, burbling constantly on one spot, ignited the timber, and thus produced the calamity.—After the cessation of the fireworks in Hyde Park, several accidents occurred: the limb of a tree broke down, by which a young woman who was standing under had her thigh broken, and two young men their arms; a rocket took off the calf of a gentleman's leg.

The three parks remained much in the same state as on the day of Jubilee, for some days after. In Hyde Park, the booths, shows, gaming-tables, printing and copper-plate presses, &c. amounted to four hundred: every day added to their number and attractions. The booth-keepers were thrice ordered away on Saturday the 6th; but they drew up a petition to remain till the 12th. They however received an order to quit at night, which they set at defiance. On Sunday, the fair, with the exception of the shows, was continued. On Monday, the order from the secretary of state was renewed; and on Tuesday morning the magistrates, with the police-officers, compelled obedience.—Still an opinion almost universally prevailed, that on the regent's birth-night the fireworks and illuminations would be repeated. Thousands of people assembled; and, being disappointed, some of them made a bonfire of the palings and sentry-boxes which surrounded the Temple in the Green Park, and great fears were entertained lest the Temple of Concord itself should be destroyed, and thus Discord be again let loose in Europe. Horse and foot guards arrived about two in the morning, and the multitude immediately dispersed. On the Monday following the workmen began to dismantle the Temple; but the shell of it, (the paintings only being taken away,) and the royal booths also, were sold by auction in lots. The burnt pagoda has been so far repaired as now to consist of a single story, instead of seven; and is probably intended to remain. The bridge, we are told, is at any rate to be permanent, and is already open to the public: we have therefore given a representation of it, with the pagoda in its original state.

Here we cannot resist the temptation of presenting to the reader, from Philip de Comines, a short account of a fête given at Paris in the fifteenth century, on the joyous occasion of the accession of Louis XI. to the crown. "Louis had already been crowned at Rheims; and, on the 31st of August, 1461, his majesty set out from an hotel named Les Porcherons, which was in the suburbs near the gate of St. Honoré, in order to make his public entry into Paris; upon which the whole body of the clergy, nobility, and gentry, came out to pay their homage to him, and welcome him to their city. As the king passed through the gate of St. Dennis, he found near the church of St. Ladre (Lazarus) a herald mounted on horseback and clothed in the city-livery, who presented to him five ladies on the part of the city, richly dressed, and mounted on five fine horses sumptuously accoutred with rich furniture, on which were embroidered the city-arms; and these five ladies were habited after a sort of a manner representing the five letters of the word PARIS; and every one of them made a speech to the king, which was prepared for them before-hand. The Parisians on this occasion caused a very fine ship to be cast in silver, which was borne aloft upon men's shoulders; and, just as the king made his entry

through the gate of St. Dennis, it was placed upon the draw-bridge near the said gate, to represent the city-arms. In it were placed three persons representing the three estates of the kingdom; in the stern and poop sat two more personating Justice and Equity; and out of the scuttle, which was formed in the shape of a flower-de-luce, issued a king dressed in royal robes, and attended by two angels. A little farther, at the Fontaine du Ponceau, there were wild men that played the parts of gladiators; and near them were placed three handsome wenches stark naked, representing mermaids, sporting and singing gay enlivening airs, which were humoured and accompanied with the melodious harmony of soft music. And, to comfort and refresh the people, there were several pipes in the said fountain that ran milk, wine, and hippocras, of which every one drank what he pleased; and a little below the fountain the passion of our Saviour was represented, as he was crucified between two thieves. At a little distance from this, there were posted a band of men richly dressed, representing hunters that had just run down a stag; whose death was accompanied with the melodious noise of dogs and horns. In the Rue de la Boucherie there were large scaffolds erected in the form of the Bastion at Dieppe; and, when the king had passed by them, the English who were within the Bastion were furiously attacked by the king's soldiers, taken prisoners, and had all their throats cut. Opposite to the gate of the Chatelet there was a fine appearance of persons of quality; all the windows were hung with rich tapestry, and the streets through which the king passed were crowded with a prodigious number of people. In this pompous manner he proceeded to the church of Notre Dame; and, having performed his devotions to the Blessed Virgin, he returned to his royal palace, where he had a splendid and magnificent entertainment."

Passing now from St. James's Park, through the Stable-yard, we enter Pall Mall, the seat of royalty, and undoubtedly one of the noblest streets in the metropolis. The first object of attraction we meet with is the British Gallery of Paintings, in the rooms originally built by that liberal patron of the arts, alderman Boydell, under the denomination of the Shakespeare Gallery, for the purpose of exhibiting the paintings, originals of the copper plates destined to adorn his splendid edition of the works of our first of dramatic poets. The group representing Shakespeare between Comedy and Tragedy, executed in stone by the learned chisel of the late Mr. Bacon, remains still over the main entrance for the admiration of every man of taste. It is simple, yet elegant; and the attitudes of the figures, as well as the flowing style of their draperies, deserve every tribute of praise.—On the same side of Pall Mall we find two openings into St. James's square, which has been lately, can we say ornamented? by an equestrian statue of William III. in which we see very little to praise and much to reprove. Norfolk-house and several others are a greater ornament to this square than the statue. Near this spot is St. James's market.

Lower down, in the Haymarket, is the begun, never to be finished, Doric front of the Opera-house.—On this spot was built a house for the purpose of representing Italian operas, by sir John Vanburgh, of whose taste in architecture we have many weighty proofs still remaining. It is curious that our indefatigable surveyor and generally-correct annalist Pennant should have attributed the building to sir Christopher Wren, who had not, nor could have, any thing to do with it. The fabric erected by Vanburgh stood till the raging demon that has so often persecuted this metropolis, the cruel element of fire, destroyed it in 1789. Immediately after, the present edifice was erected; but want of money bade the workman cease their labour, and the exterior was left as it is; a sort of upbraiding disgrace to those who might, by a voluntary subscription of no great extent, have contributed to the adorning the front of a place where they so often repair to indulge their fancies in the latter part of the evening. The interior of this



theatre is fitted up in a style of great magnificence, and very suitable to the object. The drop-scene, representing the Castalian vale at the foot of mount Helicon, is particularly beautiful. Under the romantic shade of laurels and poplars, the Muses and Graces sing and dance around a statue of the God of Love, which they entwine with garlands of flowers; whilst, at the top of the sacred hill, Pegasus wings his flight through the air, and gives birth to the famous fountain Aganippe, the inebriating waters of which, flowing in fanciful divisions from rock to rock, irrigate the enamelled meadows at the bottom of the mountain. This truly poetical composition was executed after the design and under the direction of Cypriani, and does great honour to his inventive genius, as well as to his graceful taste in distributing his groups.—The fronts of the boxes are painted in compartments, a silver ground, with small gold frames. The several tiers are distinguished from each other by a difference in the ornaments in the centre of the compartments. The dome presents a sky, in which the flame-colour predominates. The *coup d'ail* of the whole is rich and magnificent. The interior of the house is within two feet in dimensions of the great theatre at Milan. The stage is sixty feet in length from the wall to the orchestra, eighty feet in breadth from wall to wall, and forty-six feet across from box to box. From the orchestra to the centre of the front boxes, the pit is sixty-six feet in length and sixty-five in breadth, and contains twenty-one benches, besides passage-room of about three feet wide, which goes round the seats, and down the centre of the pit to the orchestra. The pit will hold eight hundred persons: price of admission, half-a-guinea. In altitude, the internal part of the house is fifty-five feet from the floor of the pit to the dome. There are five tiers of boxes, and each box is about seven feet in depth, and four feet in breadth, and is so constructed as to hold six persons with ease, all of whom command a full view of the stage. Each box has curtains to inclose it, according to the fashion of the Neapolitan theatres, and is furnished with six chairs, but not raised above each other like the seats of our English theatres. The boxes hold near nine hundred persons; and the price of admission to them is half-a-guinea. The gallery is forty-two feet in depth, sixty-two in breadth, contains seventeen benches, and holds eight hundred persons; price of admission five shillings. In the former opera-houses there was an upper gallery at 3s. 6d. The lobbies are about twenty feet square, where women attend to accommodate the company with coffee, tea, and fruit. Formerly the opera-performers were not only all Italians, or nearly so, but consisted of the best that Italy could furnish. Latterly, however, dancing has so greatly prevailed, as to have threatened to triumph over the more refined and noble art of music. To allow time for the performance of ballets, operas which originally consisted of three acts have been reduced to two; and a ballet is now often extended to a greater length than an act of an opera. The instrumental band has generally been esteemed the best in this kingdom, and the second in Europe. The opera usually opens for the season in December, and continues its representations till June or July, on the Tuesday and Saturday of every week; and sometimes on Thursday, which day is particularly set apart for the benefits.

Opposite to this, is the Little Theatre, for which a patent was originally granted to Mr. Foote, upon the occasion mentioned vol. vii. p. 549. It is a plain brick building with nothing to make it conspicuous, except a portico, so much wanted at Drury-lane, to shelter the persons waiting for admittance in bad weather. This summer-theatre, though not so elegant and spacious as either of the winter-houses, is fitted up in a neat and tasteful style, and is capable of containing a numerous audience. It is opened, during the summer-months, for the representation of plays and English operas. The term of its patent extends from the 15th of May to the 15th of September. This house contains three tiers of boxes, a pit, and two galleries. The price of admission to the boxes is five shillings, to the pit

three shillings, to the first gallery two shillings, and the second gallery one shilling. The doors are open at six o'clock, and the performance begins at seven. Half-price is not taken at this theatre. For an account of a dreadful accident which happened here about twenty years ago, see p. 125, 6. of this article.

The Haymarket is a large street ascending by a gentle slope to the top of Coventry-street; and received its name from being the principal market for hay and straw, which are sold here thrice a-week, Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday.

To the east of the Haymarket is a spacious square, containing an area of between two and three acres, which is called Leicester-square, from a large mansion which formerly stood on the north side of it, belonging to the earls of Leicester. This house was the residence of Frederic prince of Wales, father of his present majesty; and was the birth-place of the whole of the family, except the king, who was born at Norfolk-house, in St. James's-square. This building was afterwards occupied by the curious and valuable museum of sir Ashton Lever. See vol. xii. p. 554. The site is now occupied by a handsome modern street, called Leicester-place. Adjoining to this is a large brick building, called Saville-house, which was the residence of his majesty when prince of Wales, and afterwards of sir George Saville; from whose family the name of the house is derived. The inner part of the square is inclosed with iron rails, and adorned with grass plats, plantations of trees, and gravel walks. In the centre is a gilt equestrian statue of his late majesty, George II. which was brought from Canons, the magnificent seat of the duke of Chandos.

In Leicester-street is the house where the great sir Isaac Newton resided; it is now an hotel.—In Lisle-street, at the back of Leicester Place, is the principal chapel of the Swedenborgians, or followers of Emanuel Swedenborg, a Swedish nobleman, who died in London in the year 1772. He was a man of extraordinary talent and erudition, as we shall evince when we come to his article. At present we are to speak only of the religious part of his character. He professed himself to be the founder (under the Lord) of the *New Jerusalem Church*, alluding to the New Jerusalem spoken of in the Book of the Revelation. His tenets, although peculiarly distinct from every other system of divinity in Christendom, are nevertheless drawn from the Scriptures, and supported by quotations from them. He asserts, that in the year 1743 the Lord manifested himself to him in a personal appearance; and at the same time opened his spiritual eyes, so that he was enabled constantly to see and converse with spirits and angels. He now began to print and publish various wonderful things, which, he says, were revealed to him, relating to heaven and hell, the state of men after death, the worship of God, the spiritual sense of the Scriptures, the various earths in the universe, and their inhabitants, with many other extraordinary particulars, the knowledge of which was perhaps never pretended to by any other writer, before or since his time. Baron Swedenborg, in his Treatise concerning Heaven and Hell, and of the wonderful things therein, as heard and seen by him, makes the following declaration: "As often as I conversed with angels face to face, it was in their habitations, which are like to our houses on earth, but far more beautiful and magnificent, having rooms, chambers, and apartments, in great variety; as also spacious courts belonging to them, together with gardens, parterres of flowers, fields, &c. where the angels are formed into societies. They dwell in contiguous habitations, disposed after the manner of our cities, in streets, walks, and squares. I have had the privilege to walk through them, to examine all around about me, and to enter their houses; and this when I was fully awake, having my inward eyes opened."

The discriminating tenets of this sect seem to be the following: Holding the doctrine of one God, they maintain that this one God is no other than Jesus Christ, and that he always existed in a human form; that, for the sake



of redeeming the world, he took upon himself a proper human or material body, but not a human soul; that this redemption consists in bringing the *hells*, or evil spirits, into subjection, and the *heavens* into order and regulation, and thereby preparing the way for a new spiritual church; that without such redemption no man could be saved, nor could the angels retain their state of integrity; that their redemption was effected by means of trials, temptations, or conflicts with evil spirits; and that the last of them, by which Christ glorified his humanity, perfecting the union of his divine with his human nature, was the passion of the cross. Though they maintain that there is but one God, and one divine person, they hold that in this person there is a real Trinity; consisting of the divinity, the humanity, and the operation of them both, in the Lord Jesus; a Trinity which did not exist from all eternity, but commenced at the incarnation. They believe that there are angels attending upon men, residing, as Swedenborg says, in their affections; that temptation consists in a struggle between good and bad angels within men; and that by this means God assists men in these temptations, since of themselves they could do nothing. Indeed Swedenborg maintains, that there is an universal influx from God into the souls of men, inspiring them especially with the belief of the divine unity. This efflux of divine light on the spiritual world he compares to the efflux of the light from the sun in the natural world.

Baron Swedenborg farther maintains, that the sacred Scripture contains three distinct senses, the celestial, the spiritual, and the natural, which are united by correspondencies; and that in each sense it is divine truth, accommodated respectively to the angels of the three heavens, and also to men on earth. This *science of correspondencies* (it is said) had been lost for some thousands of years, viz. ever since the time of Job; but is now revived by Emanuel Swedenborg, who uses it as a key to the spiritual or internal sense of the sacred Scripture, every page of which, he says, is written by correspondencies, that is, by such things in the natural world as correspond unto, and signify, things in the spiritual world.—He denies the doctrine of atonement, or vicarious sacrifice, together with the doctrines of predestination, unconditional election, justification by faith alone, the resurrection of the material body, &c. and, in opposition thereto, maintains, that man is possessed of free will in spiritual things; that salvation is not attainable without repentance, that is, abstaining from *evils*, because they are sins against God, and living a life of charity and faith, according to the commandments; that man, *immediately on his decease*, rises again in a spiritual body, which was enclosed in his material body, and that in this spiritual body he lives as a man to eternity, either in heaven or hell, according to the quality of his past life. It is farther maintained by Swedenborg and his followers, that all those passages in the sacred Scripture, generally supposed to signify the destruction of the world by fire, &c. commonly called the last judgment, must be understood according to the above-mentioned science of *correspondencies*; which teaches, that by the end of the world, or consummation of the age, is not signified the destruction of the world, but the destruction or end of the present Christian church; both among Roman Catholics and Protestants of every description or denomination;—and that the last judgment actually took place in the spiritual world in the year 1757; from which æra is dated the second advent of the Lord, and the commencement of a New Christian Church, which, they say, is meant by the new heaven and new earth in the Revelation, and the New Jerusalem thence descending.

Such are the outlines of baron Swedenborg's principal doctrines, collected from his voluminous writings. His followers are numerous in England, Germany, Sweden, &c. and also in America. They use a liturgy in their worship, which, except being much shorter, is as near to that of the church of England as the difference of doctrines will

admit. They likewise introduce a great deal of vocal music, accompanied by an organ; and the minister's dress is now exactly similar to that of the established church. We find three small places of worship in London agreeable to this form; viz. the one we are speaking of, which has Mr. Proud for a minister; another in Friar-street, Blackfriars, of which Mr. Sibly is the minister; and the other in Dudley-court, near St. Giles's church.

Again crossing the Haymarket, and approaching Duke street, we find in our way an establishment of about sixteen years standing, called the European Museum, containing an exhibition of pictures on sale by private contract; to which we might apply the line in which Martial modestly describes the nature of his own book: *Sunt bona, sunt quædam mediocria, sunt mala multa*: "Some pieces of great value, some of middling value, and many of no value at all."

Returning to our survey of Pall Mall, we find the ancient Cumberland House, now used for the Ordnance-office, in the stead of a *new* ordnance-office, lately pulled down.—Next to it the Auction-rooms of Mr. Christie, where so many valuable articles of all descriptions have been sold.—And on the same side the temporary exhibition of the Indian jugglers, which has so greatly astonished those who are unacquainted with the manners of the Hindoos. We cannot enter here into a long discussion upon these supposed magicians, who, as far as we know, may trace an uninterrupted line of descent, from master to scholar, in order of instruction, from the Magi who dared to challenge, before the throne of Pharaoh, the superior power of the Hebrew chiefs, Moses and Aaron. These *legerdemain* gentlemen have preserved to this moment the old trick of turning sticks, stones, any thing, into apparently living serpents; and their dexterity certainly exceeds all we have seen. But one of their most astonishing feats is to swallow a sword; a common practice among these circulatoraneous thaumaturgi of the country of Mysore, and on the coast of Coromandel. We have seen the frightful performance; and are decidedly of opinion that the sword, or piece of steel looking like it, does not descend into the stomach, or at all through the œsophagus; but through the trachea, or wind-pipe, which by early attempts has been made callous and able to bear the friction. When the sword has descended as far as the lobes of the lungs, it there finds a small aperture obtained by the experiments often made from infancy, and which, by the reiteration of the exercise, is prevented closing. The proof which we can allege for this assertion is, that the man, whom we have often seen, can breathe, and does breathe, all the time of the performance, which could never be the case if the sword were swallowed by the common way.—We have taken this opportunity of solving to many of our readers a problem which they have very probably been long inquiring about; in the persuasion that the perambulator of a metropolis like this, does not only owe to his readers the description of what he sees, but his opinion upon the objects he meets with; otherwise a survey would be but a skeleton, an uninteresting and dry topography of the skin, without entering into the causes which animate the body.

A row of elegant houses on both sides leads us to the principal ornament of Pall Mall—we mean the residence of the prince of Wales, now prince-regent. The old house was the favourite residence of his majesty's mother when princess dowager of Wales. The present building was erected thirty years ago; and is a very handsome, though low, structure. It is of stone, with two projecting wings, and contains a principal and a mezzanine story. The grand entrance is by a magnificent Corinthian portico, over which is a triangular pediment, containing the prince's arms in basso-relievo. Round the top of the whole building is a balustrade, which conceals the roof. In front is a handsome colonade of the Ionic order, on the centre of the entablature of which is a very neat military trophy, between the royal supporters; and behind



the house is a very handsome garden, extending to St. James's Park, in the wall of which there was a gate, with a summer-house over it; but, though elegant, it has been lately taken down.

The interior of the house is extremely magnificent, and the alterations that have been going on at various times for these ten years past have amounted to a vast expense. On a debate in the house of commons, on Friday, July 15, 1814, it was observed by Mr. Tierney, that there was "a sum for Carlton-house of 22,000*l.* for upholsters and *or moult*, for clocks and watches, and all the rest; last year it was said that 61,000*l.* were spent for the inside of Carlton-house; yet this year Carlton-house costs 76,000*l.* what with wardrobe, and board of works, and new rooms, and so forth; all this on the back of 61,000*l.* so that Carlton-house alone in fifteen months cost 137,000*l.*"—Mr. Tierney also mentioned "an outfit of 100,000*l.* expended not long ago." If this statement be correct, deducting even the swelling of furnishers' bills, and other modes of pilfering the public money or of distorting it from its ostensible object, no wonder if the interior of this princely residence surpasses all mansions of that description in Europe. The furniture is every-where most elegant and tasteful; the ornamental part has, perhaps, no rival in the world for neatness and costliness; and the small collection of paintings which enrich the walls, certainly contains, although in a limited number, the best specimens of some of the most famous artists.

Adjoining nearly to Carlton-house, we find, at the end of Warwick-street, that creeps obscurely behind that limb of Cockspur-street which extends from the silversmith's to the entrance of Pall Mall, Warwick-house, the mansion assigned for the residence of her royal highness the princess Charlotte of Wales, upon her attaining the age of eighteen; but from which she was suddenly withdrawn, for reasons which have not been explained to the public, to be kept under the more immediate inspection of the prince-regent her father, and of the queen her grandmother. Upon this occasion, an extraordinary circumstance occurred: the young princess, who had retired as was supposed to prepare for obeying her father's orders, suddenly quitted the house and ran into the street, where she jumped into a hackney-coach, and hastened to throw herself into the arms of her mother: she was, however, obliged to return.

Pall Mall has long been a favourite spot for tasteful and fashionable exhibitions. We have already noticed the British Gallery; and might have mentioned a very charming exhibition of the works of Hogarth, but that it has lately been removed.—Mr. West's last great work, "Christ rejected by the Jews," is now (Sept. 1814.) open to the public in a large room, one of the appendages to the estate of Carlton-house, and formerly the Royal Academy. One cause of astonishment at viewing this great performance, is that the artist Mr. West, president for many years of the Royal Academy of Painting, and in his 75th year, achieved it in less than two years; and he declares it to be his fiftieth annual exhibition to the public without an omission.—It has been a constant practice with those who have attempted to treat any tragical subject of high import, either in poetry, sculpture, or painting, to combine *terror* and *pity* together, in order that, working at the same time upon the heart and the mind, these two powerful agents should have their full effect in exciting the greatest interest in the beholder. It is owing to this sort of magic, that performances, in which these two powers are properly employed, have secured to themselves and their authors the admiration of the world for ages, from Homer to Milton, from Sophocles to Shakespeare, from the painters and sculptors of Athens and Corinth, down to our contemporary artists. Upon this general and unailing principle the venerable president of the royal academy has conceived and designed this great picture. The design may be divided into five principal groups. On the right of the performance, before one of the porticos which adorn

the Gabbatha, or paved court belonging to the *Pretorium*, (a majestic building, supposed to have been erected under the direction of Herod the Great,) stands the first group, composed of our Saviour, the guards attending him, the grateful centurion, and others. The noble and elegant figure of Pilate connects the first group with the second, which contains the high priest Caiaphas, followed by the rulers of the people, and some of the most inveterate enemies of Christ, mixed in the crowd with Peter, Joseph of Arimathea, and a few other disciples. The third group, contrasting that of Christ by the character of its personages, yet bearing a pictorial analogy to it by its passiveness and repose, comprehends the murderer Barabbas, the thieves condemned to be crucified, and some Roman soldiers. In opposition to this, and in perfect sympathy with that of Christ, the group of the holy women appears on the foreground; it contains the mother of Jesus supported by St. John, and surrounded by several women attached by affection, respect, or gratitude, to our Saviour; before them, Magdalen throws herself upon the cross; and, contrasting the figure of the high priest, unites this group with the fifth, which, made up of the Roman guards, the executioners and lictors preparing the instruments for the crucifixion, and opposed most ingeniously to the figures above, closes an uninterrupted chain of most interesting objects. The area upon which this grand epic drama is displayed, measures 16 feet by 23, and contains about a hundred figures, among which not one can be pointed out that does not take evidently some share in the action. Every one is alive and at his post, acts in his own character, and appears to be an indispensable part of the whole; which exemplifies most completely the principle laid down by De Marfy, in his elegant Latin poem upon Painting:

— *Elingui quoniam natura negavit  
Picturæ eloquium, gestus simulacra disertos  
Saltem habeant, et muta licet Pictura loquatur.*

By nature dumb, yet eloquent by art,  
The Graphic Muse must, what she feels, express  
In speaking gestures—and, by signs, address,  
Through wond'ring eyes, the passions of the heart.

As to correctness of drawing, harmony of colouring, and truth of expression, qualities which are so conspicuous from one side of the canvas to the other, we may leave them to the spectator's judgment; and conclude by observing, that, were the different groups separately presented to the eye, each of them would work impressively upon the feelings of the beholder; no wonder, therefore, if united together, and mutually supporting each other by analogies and oppositions, by contrasts and sympathies, they so irresistibly call forth warm expressions of unrestrained applause.

To the west of Carlton-house, and behind the houses in Pall Mall, stands Marlborough-house, built in the reign of queen Anne, at the public expense. This is a very large brick edifice, ornamented with stone, and built in a peculiar taste. The front is extensive; and the wings are decorated at the corners with a stone rustick. The top was originally finished with a balustrade; but that has been since altered, and the first story is crowned with an attic raised above the cornice. A small colonade extends on the side of the area next the wings; and the opposite side of the area is occupied by offices. When this structure was finished, the late duchess of Marlborough intended to have opened a way to it from Pall Mall, directly in the front, as appears from the manner in which the courtyard is formed; but, sir Robert Walpole having purchased the house before it, and not being upon good terms with the duchess, she was prevented from executing her design. The front, next the park, resembles the other; only, instead of the two middle windows in the wings, there are niches for statues; and, instead of the area in front, there is a descent by steps into the garden. The apartments within are noble and well disposed; and the furniture



furniture is extremely magnificent. In the vestibule, at the entrance, is painted the Battle of Hochstet, in which the most remarkable scene is the taking the French general, marshal Tallard, and several other officers of great distinction, prisoners. The figures of the great duke of Marlborough, prince Eugene of Savoy, and general Cadogan, are finely executed. The expense of this building exceeded forty thousand pounds.

Having pretty accurately surveyed this neighbourhood, we now take our route through Piccadilly. The name of this long and famous street seems to have originated from a gaming-house erected there, and much frequented at one time by the nobility. The French word *peccadille*, "venial sin, slight deviation from rectitude," may have given some reason for the name of Piccadilly. Lord Clarendon, in his History of the Rebellion, describes it as "a place called Pickadilly, which was a fair house for entertainment, and gaming, with handsome gravel-walks, with shade, and where were an upper and lower bowling-green, whither very many of the nobility, and gentry of the best quality, resorted, both for exercise and conversation." This was in the year 1640: the street was completed in the year 1642, as far as the present Berkeley-street. The first good house built in it was Burlington-house; the site of which was chosen by its noble founder, "because he was certain no one would build beyond him." It is on the north side of the street, and fenced in with a brick wall, about two hundred and twenty feet in length, in which are three gates for the admission of carriages. The front of the house is of stone, and is remarkable for the beauty of the design and workmanship. It has two wings, joined by a circular colonnade of the Doric order. The front was built by the father of the late earl of Burlington, and is more modern than the house. The apartments are in a fine taste; and the staircase painted with great spirit, by Ricci. This house at this moment contains the greatest curiosity in England, the Elgin-marbles, the works of Phidias, the finest sculptor in the world, who died 432 years before Christ. They were taken from the Acropolis of Athens.—On the 21st of June last, this house and its beautiful spacious gardens were the scene of a most elegant fete, given by the members of White's Club to the royal and illustrious personages who were in London at that time. A ball was of course a part of the entertainment, which was graced by a vast number of the most beautiful and elegant women in the world; and we are told that the emperor of Russia danced till five in the morning. At p. 367, we noticed how possible it was to get rid of an impossibility; in plain English, how futile it was to say that the prince-regent, as sovereign, could not attend at a subscription-entertainment: he attended at this, a contrivance having been hit upon to prevent the princess of Wales from being present.

Devonshire-house, built upon the site of the ancient mansion of the Berkeley family, is farther west, and presents a noble appearance.—On the north side of Burlington-gardens, is Paget-house, the town-residence of the earl of Uxbridge.—But, leaving these stately mansions, the tenants of which are but fleeting guests, we turn to an object which generally attracts, and in many points deserves, the attention of the perambulator: we mean St. James's church, on the south side of Piccadilly. It is one of the churches that owes its rise to the rapid increase of buildings in this part of the town; for, the church of St. Martin in the Fields being too small for the inhabitants, and too remote from those in this quarter, Henry Jermy, earl of St. Alban's, with other persons of distinction in that neighbourhood, erected this edifice at the expense of about seven thousand pounds. It was built in the reign of Charles II. and, though a large fabric, was considered as a chapel of ease to St. Martin's. It was consecrated in 1684, and dedicated to St. James, in compliment to the duke of York; and the next year, when that prince had ascended the throne, the district for which it was built was by act of parliament separated from

St. Martin's, and made a distinct parish. The walls are brick, supported by rustic quoins of stone; and the windows, which are large, are also cas'd with stone. The tower at the west end rises regularly from the ground to a considerable height, and is crowned with a neat well-constructed spire; and furnished with a clock more useful than elegant. In this church is a most beautiful baptismal font, of white marble, by Grinlyn Gibbons. It is supported by a column, representing the Tree of the Knowledge of Good and Evil, on which is the serpent offering the fruit to our first parents, who are standing beneath. On the font are three pieces of sculpture: John baptizing Christ; Philip baptizing the Eunuch; and Noah's Ark, with the dove bearing the olive-branch. We must refer our readers to what we have said on the subject of adorning baptismal fonts when we surveyed the church of St. Margaret, Lothbury. We find here nearly the same intention in design; and the execution is even superior.—Over the altar are some exquisite carvings in wood by the same artist, whose elegant and steady chisel seems to have had the privilege of bestowing life on whatever it touched. The principal object is a pelican feeding her young, an ancient emblem of Christ who shed his blood to redeem mankind. The allegory is unfortunately without ground; for it is not true that the female of this solitary inhabitant of the cliffs, and great tyrant of the marthy shores, (where she catches the strayed tribes of young fishes, and carries them in the bag of her beak to her craving nestlings,) ever draws blood from her breast to feed her offspring. The attitude of scratching her feathers and baring her pectoral bone to perform the duty of incubation, has led most innocently to the mistake. However, tenderness, maternal love, and charity, are equally symbolized by either of these allusions.—The organ was presented to this church by queen Mary, the consort of William III. in 1691; three years after the revolution.—The parish is a rectory, in the gift of the bishop of London; and the church is generally well attended on Sundays, and on Wednesdays and Fridays in Lent, on account of the excellent sermons that are preached there by several very popular orators.

We find nothing worthy of notice on this side the street, till we reach that curious Egyptian Temple, called Bullock's Museum, containing one of the most complete collections of natural subjects and works of art now existing. This building was erected in 1811-12, by Mr. William Bullock, as an establishment for the advancement of the science of natural history. In magnitude and expense, it is presumed to be unparalleled as the work of an individual. The specimens it contains are arranged according to the Linnæan system; and consist of upwards of fifteen thousand species of quadrupeds, birds, reptiles, fishes, insects, shells, corals, &c. which have been collected at an expense exceeding thirty thousand pounds. The building was designed and executed under the direction of Mr. P. F. Robinson. In choosing the Egyptian style, the architect has endeavoured to afford a correct specimen of that mode of building, of which we have not another in this country. The artist has succeeded in his attempt; for the architecture is classically Egyptian, the forms and ornaments having been scrupulously copied from the prints which accompany the "*Voyage en Egypte*," published by Denon. The interior surpasses much the expectation of the visitor, who, instead of a few sarcophagi and mummies, embalmed ibises, and dried alligators, finds specimens of nearly all the works of nature.

The Temple is divided in two parts. The large room, with galleries round it, contains the birds, fishes, amphibians, insects, &c. besides many works of art, particularly various specimens of ancient and modern armour, and curiosities from America, Africa, and Asia; and is called the *London Museum*. This may be seen separately, the price only one shilling; and indeed here are curiosities enough to occupy the attention as long as it can be kept on the stretch at one time without fatigue.—The other part contains the quadrupeds; and (according to the modern taste for



Greek names) is called the *Pantherion*, from *παν*, all, and *Σαρπη*, a wild beast. The arrangement of this place is on a plan entirely novel, intended to display the whole of the known quadrupeds in a manner that will convey a more perfect idea of their haunts and mode of life than has hitherto been done, keeping them at the same time in their classical arrangement, and preserving them from the injury of dust and air. It occupies an extensive apartment, nearly forty feet high, erected for the purpose. The visitor is introduced through a basaltic cavern (of the same kind as the Giants' Causeway, or Fingall's Cave, in the Isle of Staffa) into an Indian hut, situated in a tropical forest, in which are displayed most of the quadrupeds described by naturalists; with correct models from nature, or the best authorities, of the trees and other vegetable productions of the torrid climes, remarkable for the richness or beauty of their fruit, or the singularity of their foliage; the whole assisted by an appropriate panoramic effect of distance, which makes the illusion produced so strong, that the surprised visitor finds himself suddenly transported from a crowded metropolis to the depth of an Indian forest, every part of which is occupied by its various savage inhabitants.

From these we turn to the polished inhabitants of Jermyn-street, who, though directly behind St. James's church, do not seem to profit much by the excellent principles delivered from that pulpit, as they fill harbour disgraceful nests of gamblers, and tolerate those houses where several of our young nobility ruin themselves in the genteel and most elegant manner.

At the end of Piccadilly, on the south side of the road leading to Kensington, stands St. George's Hospital. This undertaking was set on foot, in the year 1733, by some gentlemen who had been concerned in a charity of similar description in Chapel-street, Westminster. But, the house in which that institution had been carried on being old and ruinous, it was found necessary to remove; when a considerable number, but not the majority, gave the preference to this building, which had been the residence of lord Lanesborough, who died there in 1724, but was then vacant. Having determined upon this spot, and being supported by the medical department, the minority separated from the old institution, and solicited subscriptions for their new establishment, with such zeal, that in less than three months the wings were built, and in a condition to receive patients. This hospital enjoys a fine situation, and has all the benefit of a clear and pure air. It is a very neat building, and, though extremely plain, yet is not devoid of elegance. It has two small wings, and a large front, with only one door, which is in the middle, and to which there is an ascent by a few steps. On the top of this part of the building is a pediment raised above the rest of the edifice; and under this ornament is a stone with an inscription, expressing the noble use to which this structure is applied.

Returning through Piccadilly on the north side, we pass many elegant houses of the nobility, and come again opposite to St. James's church, where we find the Albany, which extends backward to Burlington Gardens, a street so called from the north wall of the gardens of Burlington-house forming one side of it. The front of the Albany, in Piccadilly, is formed by two handsome buildings, between which is a passage into the court-yard of Melbourne-house, late the residence of the duke of York, from whose second title its name is derived. It is now converted into an hotel; and in the gardens behind are two rows of convenient chambers, on a plan nearly resembling those of the inns of court; to which there are entrances at each end. Between these ranges of buildings is a long paved passage, covered by a roof, supported on small pillars; and the entrance to each door is sheltered from the weather in a similar manner. This leads to Saville-row.

St. Martin, as we are told in the legend, divided his mantle in two, gave a part to a naked beggar, and kept

the other for himself; a most excellent instance of charity and disinterestedness, which, whether founded upon fact or not, may, like other *apocrypha*, be read "for example of life and instruction of manners." The church of St. Martin in the Fields has divided its mantle, or parish, among many others; and St. Anne's was separated from it, as well as St. James's. This sort of extra-secration took place in the year 1661; previous to which, a piece of ground was laid out, under the authority of the bishop of London, in Kemp's field, now King-street, for the site of a church and church-yard, and also for a glebe for the support of a rector. But, the inhabitants not being empowered by this act to raise money for accomplishing their purpose, the building of the church was long interrupted; at length a second act was obtained to enable them to raise the sum of five thousand pounds, for the completion of the church, rectory-house, &c. and on the 25th of March, 1685, the church and cemetery were consecrated by the bishop of London. The walls of this church are of brick, with rustic quoins of stone, and at the east end is a large modillion-cornice and triangular pediment. This church has been lately repaired, and a handsome painted-glass window has been put up at the east end. The tower and steeple at the west end were also rebuilt at the same time. The interior of the building is handsome: the roof is arched, and divided into pannels; it is supported by columns of the Ionic order; and the gallery is raised on those of the Tuscan order. The organ is the gift of king William. The parish is a rectory, in the gift of the bishop of London.

Against the tower is a tablet erected to the memory of Theodore-Anthony Newhoff, king of Corsica, who died in this parish in the year 1756, soon after his liberation from the King's Bench prison by an act of insolvency. The malice of fortune pursued this unfortunate man even after death. The friend, who sheltered him in the last days of his wretched existence, was himself so poor as to be unable to defray the cost of his funeral; and his remains were about to be consigned to the grave by the parish, when a Mr. Wright, an oilman, in Compton-street, declared that he, for once, would pay the funeral expenses of a king; which he actually did. The marble was erected, and the epitaph written by Horace Walpole. It is as follows:

The grave, great teacher, to a level brings  
Heroes and beggars, galley-slaves and kings.  
But Theodore this moral learn'd ere dead;  
Fate pour'd its lessons on his living head,  
Bestow'd a kingdom, and denied him bread.

We cannot help observing here the preposterous idea, that Theodore learned the moral, hinted in the two first lines, *before he was dead*. Surely we are not to expect any such learning when cold and deaf in the grave, which, if a teacher, *must* give its lessons to the living. This epigrammatical epitaph is altogether unworthy of the witty and learned author, who most likely produced it as an *extempore* effusion of his sensibility, without intending to have it recorded.

In the parish of St. Anne we find Soho-square, which was built in the reign of Charles II. It is of considerable extent, with a garden in the middle, enclosed with iron rails. In the centre is a statue of Charles II. standing upon a pedestal, placed in the midst of a small basin; at his feet lie the representations of the four principal rivers, the Thames, the Trent, the Humber, and the Severn. This square was originally called Monmouth-square, in honour of the duke of Monmouth, whose mansion stood on the south side of it. This house afterwards came into the possession of lord Bateman, by whom it was pulled down, and the site of it and the gardens covered with a number of dwelling-houses. The name of the square was probably altered to King's square after the downfall of the duke; which Mr. Pennant, upon the authority of Samuel Pegge, esq. says was changed to Soho by the admirers of that unfortunate man, that being the word of the day at the battle of Sedgemoor.—On the east side of Soho-square,



at the corner of Sutton-street, is Carlisle-house, celebrated some years ago as a place of evening-entertainment for the nobility and gentry; and immediately adjoining is Berkeley-house, now converted into a coffee-house.—But, the most worthy subject of notice in this square is, that it has been long the residence of a most respectable and beloved man, sir Joseph Banks, whose travels round the world with captain Cook, and whose liberality in encouraging the arts and sciences, and instructive hospitality, are too well known and too justly appreciated to want our encomiums.

In Sutton-street, leading from the square to Crown-street, (formerly Hog-lane,) is St. Patrick's chapel, a considerable establishment supported by Roman catholics. The organ, which is particularly fine, has been played for many years by one of the first organists of France, who emigrated at the beginning of the revolution; and the altar-piece does honour to Mrs. Cowley. It is a Descent from the Cross; and the composition evinces a great deal of pathos and taste.

We now enter Oxford-street, or as it is sometimes called Oxford-road; on the left-hand side of which, the first public building we find is that called the Pantheon, originally begun in 1768, and finished in 1771, being intended for concerts and other musical performances. It was built by Mr. James Wyatt, (a first-rate architect, who lately met his death by being unfortunately overturned in a chariot;) and regarded both by natives and foreigners, as the most elegant structure in Europe, if not on the globe. This splendid and elegant edifice was opened as a place of public entertainment, on Monday, January 27, 1772; and, as we are informed by the Gentleman's Magazine of that month, "to a crowded company of between fifteen hundred and two thousand people. Imagination cannot well surpass the elegance and magnificence of the apartments, the boldness of the paintings, or the disposition of the lights, which last are reflected from gilt vases, suspended by gilt chains. Besides the splendid ornaments that decorate the rotundo or great room, there are a number of statues, in niches below the dome, representing most of the heathen gods and goddesses supposed to be in the ancient Pantheon of Rome. To these are added three more of white porphyry, the two first representing the present King and Queen, the last Britannia. The whole building is composed of a suite of fourteen rooms, all of which are adapted to particular uses, and each affording a striking instance of the splendour and profusion of modern times." During the first winter there were assemblies only, without dancing or music, three times a-week. On other days, each person paid five shillings for seeing the building only. But the great room, though spacious, was so crowded on all these occasions, that in July a general meeting of the proprietors was advertised, in order to take into consideration the enlarging of the building. After the opera-house in the Haymarket was burnt down in 1790, this matter-piece of architecture was transformed into a theatre for the performance of operas; when, though many of its internal beauties were hidden or annihilated, it still was a perfect model of a complete theatre in its new form. But unhappily, before it had been used as a lyric theatre two seasons, it was burnt down by some fatal accident or design, which has never yet been divulged to the satisfaction of the public. During its pre-existent state, it was here that the Agujari and Pacchierotti exercised their talents; it was here that the king, queen, and royal family, with all the first nobility in the kingdom, assembled at the commemoration of Handel in 1784; and it was here that one of the first bands in Europe graced the orchestra, alternately headed by Giardini, La Motte, Cramer, or Giornovich, who, with Fischer, Crosdil, Cervetto, &c. produced effects in symphonies, concertos, solos, and vocal accompaniments, which had never before been heard in this country. No person of taste in architecture or music, who remembers the Pantheon, its exhibitions, its numerous, splendid, and

elegant, assemblies, can hear it mentioned without a sigh! The front in Oxford-street still remains, and presents a simple but classical portico. The building has been of late years principally used for exhibitions, and occasionally for masquerades and operas. About ten years ago, an ingenious French emigrant exhibited there a sort of orrery, called Cosinorama, in which, by the contrivance of an interior moveable roof, the revolutions of the heavenly bodies were made conspicuous and perfectly intelligible to the visitors; but, the expenses exceeding considerably the sums of money received at the door, the proprietors were obliged to give up the concern, and a total eclipse took place.

On the south of Oxford-street we find Golden-square, which is very neat, though small, containing about two acres. The centre of it is encompassed by a plain iron railing, within which are grass-plats and gravel-walks; and the whole is surrounded with handsome and uniform buildings. It was originally called Gelding-square, from the sign of a neighbouring inn.

West of St. James's parish, is that of St. George, Hanover-square, the church of which stands in Great George-street. This parish was also taken out of St. Martin's in the Fields. The commissioners for building the fifty new churches, appointed by act of parliament in the reign of queen Anne, observing the want of one in this part of the town, on account of the great increase of buildings and inhabitants, erected this elegant structure, which was finished in 1724, and, in compliment to the reigning monarch, was dedicated to St. George the Martyr. It has a plain body, with an elegant portico; the columns, which are Corinthian, are of a large diameter, and the pediment has an acroteria, but without further ornament. It has a tower, which is elegantly adorned at the corners, with coupled Corinthian columns that are very lofty; these are crowned with an entablature, which, at each corner, supports two vases; and over these the tower still rises, till it is terminated by a dome, crowned with a turret, that supports a ball, over which is a vane. It is a rectory, the patronage of which is in the bishop of London. The ground on which this church stands was given by lieutenant-general William Stewart, who also bequeathed four thousand pounds to the parish, towards erecting and endowing a charity-school.

At the north end of George-street is Hanover-square, from which the church receives its distinctive appellation. This square is so called in compliment to the present royal family. It contains about two acres of ground, in the centre of which is a garden, enclosed with rails; the houses, which are built in the modern taste, make an elegant appearance, and are inhabited by persons of the first distinction. The house in the south-west corner is considered the best piece of brick-work in the metropolis.

West from Hanover-square is Grosvenor-square, which is so named from sir Thomas Grosvenor, its original proprietor. The area of this square contains about five acres; and in the middle is a large garden, surrounded with palisado-rails, placed upon a circular dwarf wall. The garden is laid out into walks, and adorned with an equestrian statue of king George I. gilt, which stands on a pedestal in the centre. The square is surrounded with elegant houses, which, however, are very far from being uniform; some being of stone, others of brick and stone, and others of brick only. Indeed, here is the greatest variety of handsome buildings that is any where to be met with in so small a compass.

It is curious to see the difference between this western part of the metropolis, and the city. Here we do not find that hurry, that trepidation occasioned by urgent business. The pavements, if crowded, exhibit another sort of beings; the streets are much larger, and skies clearer, the houses free from the besmearing breath of smoking chimneys; the carriages of the nobility are substituted for carts and drays. In fact, the *viator* thinks himself transported to another hemisphere. The shops are perhaps



haps not so brilliant as they are in the best streets of the city and in the Strand, which is a sort of a continuation to it; but their uniformity and neatness make full amends for an inferior look as to richness and wealth.—This is generally and not improperly called the fashionable part of the town. Indeed many streets are entirely built for the residence of private families, without a shop to be seen from one end to the other. Public-houses are concealed in smaller streets; and stables, always called Mews, are placed away from public view.

Conduit-street with a gentle slope leads from Swallow-street to Bond-street; and is built, as well as a great part of the last-mentioned street, upon the site of a field formerly called Conduit Mead, from one of the conduits which supplied this part of the town with water.—Here is a chapel, called Trinity-chapel, the history of which is very remarkable. It was originally a wooden field-chapel, erected by James II. and fixed upon wheels, for the purpose of being conveyed whenever his majesty went; it being fitted up for his private masses. In the year 1686, it was in his camp at Hounslow-heath, where it remained until some time after the revolution, when it was removed, and placed near the north end of Old Bond-street. Here it remained, and was used as a chapel by the neighbouring inhabitants, until the year 1716, when it was demolished, and the present building erected for the same use.

From the west end of Conduit-street, is a street called Bruton-street, leading into Berkeley-square, which derives its name from its vicinity to the former mansion of lord Berkeley of Stratton. This square contains about three acres of ground, laid out in the form of a long parallelogram. It is surrounded with very elegant buildings; and in the centre is an equestrian statue of his present majesty, erected by the princess Amelia, his majesty's aunt. The whole of the south side of it is occupied by the magnificent mansion and gardens of the marquis of Lansdown, which are separated from the square by a brick wall.—On Hay-hill, at the south-east corner of this square, a skirmish took place, in the year 1554, between a party of insurgents, under sir Thomas Wyatt, and a detachment from the royal army, in which the former were repulsed. After the subsequent defeat and capture of sir Thomas, at Ludgate, he was executed, and his head set up on a gallows, at this place; and three of his associates were hung in chains near their leader.

West of Berkeley-square is May-fair, formerly an open space, whereon a fair was held annually in the month of May; but now covered with a chapel, several streets, and a small market, called Shepherd's Market. On the north side of May-fair is Chesterfield-house, an elegant structure built by the late earl of Chesterfield, from whom it derives its name. It consists of a main body with detached wings, connected by a very beautiful colonnade, the entablature of which is crowned with an attic balustrade and pedestals above each column, on which are placed elegant vases. This is one of the very few buildings in London, which M. Grosley allows to be equal to the hotels of the nobility in Paris. See his *Tour to London*, vol. i. p. 42.

Having surveyed all that deserves notice on the south of Oxford-street, we cross over to the north, in order to describe a part of the metropolis which has been entirely built within the latter half of the last century. To begin by that place so often the scene of executions, (see p. 118.) we must acquaint our readers with the origin of Tyburn. The village of that name appears to have been nearly where the north-west part of Oxford-street now is: Mary-bone Court-house being supposed, from the number of human bones dug up there in 1729, to stand upon the site of the old church and cemetery belonging to it. This church, which was dedicated to John the Evangelist, being left alone by the highway side, in consequence of the decay of the village, was robbed of its books, vestments, bells, images, and other decorations; wherefore, the parishioners petitioned the bishop of London for leave to take down their old church, and erect a new one else-

where; which being readily granted, they, in the year 1400, built a church, where they had for some time a chapel; and the structure, being dedicated to the virgin *Mary*, received the additional epithet of *borne*, or *bourne*, from the neighbouring brook. This is the best etymon that can be given of the name of this parish. Some have supposed it to arise from the circumstance of so many bodies having been buried anciently in the cemetery, as if "St. Mary le bone," *Sæta Maria ab ossibus*: others as if it was originally *Sæta Maria Bona*, "St. Mary the Good;" but we are of opinion it meant St. Mary le bourne, or brook, *Sæta Maria à rivulo*, "St. Mary by the brook." However, if this were of any consequence, it might be easily settled by looking at the ancient deeds, if they are still in existence any where, which belonged to the convent erected at Barking in Essex for the sister of St. Erkenwald, as mentioned at p. 398. The ancient custom, we embrace this opportunity shortly to observe, was to take a brook or a river as a steady and lasting sort of limit to property: hence the word *bourne*, or brook, was used for *borne*, or limit, a boundary to any fixed place; and both words became synonymous. Tyburn, therefore, is not derived, as some will have it, of *tye* and *burn*, from the old manner of capital punishments; but from the *bourne*, or brook, called *Tye*, *Ty-bourne*, running by the village to which it gave its name; and mentioned in the Domesday-book, as a manor at that time belonging to the abbess and nuns of the convent mentioned above; and, in the decretal sentence of Stephen archbishop of Canterbury, in the great controversy between Eustace bishop of London, and William abbot of Westminster, in the year 1222, this rivulet is expressly called Tyburn.

There was formerly a bridge over this rivulet, in Oxford-road; and at the east end of it stood the lord-mayor's banqueting-house, in the neighbourhood of which the citizens of London had nine conduits, that were erected about the year 1238, for supplying the city with water; but, having been since better supplied from the New River, the citizens, in the year 1703, let the water of these conduits on lease, for seven hundred pounds per annum. While the water for the use of the city was derived from these conduits, it was usual for the lord-mayor and aldermen on horseback, accompanied by their ladies in waggons, to ride thither, occasionally, to view them; after which they were entertained at the banqueting-house. Stow gives the following account of one of these visitations, on the 18th of September, 1562. "The lord-mayor (Harper,) aldermen, and many worshipful persons, and divers of the masters and wardens of the twelve companies, rid to the conduit heads, for to see them, after the old custom: and afore dinner they hunted the hare, and killed her, and thence to dinner at the head of the conduit. There was a good number, entertained with good cheer by the chamberlain. And after dinner they went to hunting the fox. There was a great cry for a mile; and at length the hounds killed him, at the end of St. Giles's. Great hallowing at his death, and blowing of horns. And thence the lord-mayor, with all his company, rode through London, to his place in Lombard-street." This banqueting-house, under which were two cisterns for the reception of the water of the conduits, having been many years neglected by the citizens, was in the year 1737, taken down, and the cisterns arched over.

The old church, which was a very mean edifice, was pulled down, and the present edifice erected, in 1741. It is a plain brick building, on each side of which is a series of small arched windows; and the only ornaments belonging to it, are a vase at each corner, and a turret at the west end. The church of Tyborne appears to have been anciently a vicarage, in the gift of the prior and convent of St. Lawrence de Blackmore, in the county of Essex, who converted it into a curacy; the advowson of which continued in them till the dissolution of their priory. In the year 1553, Edward VI. granted it to Thomas Reve, to be held in soccage of the manor of East Greenwich;



since which it has come into the possession of the earls of Oxford; in whose hands it still remains. At a short distance from the church, in the New Road, is the work-house for this parish, which is one of the largest and most commodious establishments of that description, in or near the metropolis. It was erected in the year 1773, and, with the infirmary adjoining, is fitted up with every convenience which philanthropy could suggest, for the comfort of those whose age or infirmities compels them to seek such an asylum.

To the east of the church was a place of public entertainment, nearly upon the plan of Vauxhall, called Marybone Gardens. In the reign of queen Anne there had been a noted tavern in this place, with bowling-greens, much frequented by persons of the first rank. It afterwards grew into disrepute, and is made by Gay the scene of Macheath's debauches. About the year 1740, Marybone Gardens were famed for public breakfasts and evening concerts. Some of the first singers were generally engaged there; and fire-works were frequently exhibited. In 1777, or 1778, the gardens were shut up, and the site let to builders. The ground is now occupied by Beaumont-street, part of Devonshire-street, and part of Devonshire-place. From the name of Bowling-green-alley, still given to the street which formed their southern boundary, this was probably the place alluded to by lady Mary Wortley Montague, in this line: "Some dukes at Marybone bowl time away;" and which is meant by Penruan, who, when speaking of the duke of Buckingham's description of the house, now the Queen's Palace, and his manner of living there, inserted in Doddsley's London and its Environs, says, "He has omitted his constant visits to the noted gaming-house at Marybone; the place of assemblage of all the infamous sharpers of the time;" to whom his grace always gave a dinner at the conclusion of the season; and his parting toast was, "May as many of us as remain unchanged, next spring, meet here again."

Near this spot, and to a considerable distance to the north and west of it, was once a royal park, well stocked with game; and in queen Elizabeth's Progresses it is recorded, that, "on the third of February, 1600, the ambassadors from the emperor of Russia, and other Muscovites, rode through the city of London to Marybone Park, and there hunted at their pleasure; and shortly after returned homeward." If, two hundred years ago, the annalist was proud to mention the procession of ambassadors from the Hyperborean countries through the city of London to Marybone Park, with what self-satisfaction may we not look at our own times, when the very wrist of the emperor of Russia fell down benumbed with the long ceremony of shaking hands with Mr. Bull and his numerous family. Had some prophet at that time been able to reveal to our ancestors the sum of our happiness, they would have died with regret at having been *born too soon*.

Near the place where the lord-mayor's banqueting-house stood, is Stratford Place, which, for uniformity and neatness, may be classed among the principal ornaments of this parish. It consists of two uniform rows of houses, leading into a small area, or square, the upper or north side of which is formed by an elegant edifice, with a stone front, which is composed of a rustic basement-story, supporting a range of columns of the Ionic order, crowned with an entablature, decorated with ox-sculls, from the horns of which hang neat festoons of flowers and foliage. Above this entablature rises a triangular pediment, from the sides of which a balustrade, ornamented with elegant vases, is continued along the top of the building. From each side of this building, a Doric colonnade, crowned with a balustrade, and ornamented with vases, extends to the east and west sides of the area, the fronts of the houses in which are stuccoed, and the windows of the principal story ornamented with a triangular and a circular pediment, alternately. The sides of the street, leading into the area, are exactly similar. All the houses are of brick; but those in the centre, and at the ends, are ornamented with stone, in

a style corresponding with the principal building in the area. On each side of the entrance is a small house for a watchman, on the top of which is the figure of a lion, carved in stone.

Farther to the east, in Vere-street, is Oxford Chapel; a handsome brick building, strengthened with rustic quoins of stone. The principal entrance, at the west end, is by a flight of steps leading to a porch of the Doric order; the entablature of which supports a triangular pediment, containing a carving in stone of the arms of the founder, who appears from them to have been a descendant of Aubrey de Vere, the last earl of Oxford of that family, who died in 1702. The steeple springs from the centre of the roof, at this end, and consists of three stages, viz. a square tower of brick, above which is an octagon tower, open on all the sides, and crowned with a dome, from which springs a second, and smaller, octagon tower, which supports a ball and vane. At the east end is a Venetian window, above which is a triangular pediment. A modillion-cornice of stone is continued all round the building, and at each cornice is a handsome stone vase.

The particular increase of this part of Marybone began between the years 1716 and 1720, by the building of Cavendish-square, which contains an area of between two and three acres, and is encompassed with handsome buildings, particularly on the north side, which is formed by four detached edifices. Of these, the two in the centre have elegant stone fronts, and, as well as the two at the extremities, are exactly similar to each other. They contain a rustic basement-story, which supports a range of handsome Corinthian columns, crowned with their proper entablature. Above these is a triangular pediment, in which is a circular port-hole window, ornamented with a wreath; and the roof is concealed by an attic balustrade. The other two houses on this side are neat brick buildings, with rustic quoins of stone; the ornaments of the windows are also of stone, and above the centre one is a carved tablet, with a handsome festoon of flowers. On the west side of the square is the noble mansion of the earl of Harcourt; but it is entirely concealed from view by a high brick wall. In the centre of the square is an equestrian statue of William duke of Cumberland, who gained the battle of Culloden, which terminated the rebellion in Scotland, in the reign of George II.

Maitland, in his History of London, published in the year 1739, states the number of houses in Marybone to be five hundred and seventy-seven, and the persons who kept coaches to be thirty-five. At present, the number of houses is more than twelve thousand, and the number of coaches must have increased in a proportionate, if not a greater, ratio. Some idea may be formed of the immense increase in the rental of this parish, from the land-tax assessment; the quota to which, 564l. 5s. 10d. was raised eight years ago by a rate of only one farthing in the pound. This, allowing for some deficiencies in collecting, makes the rental amount to nearly five hundred and fifty thousand pounds. All the north side of Oxford-street, which Pennant says he remembered "a deep hollow road, full of sloughs, with here and there a ragged house, the lurking place of cut-throats," is in this parish.

Portman-square is one of the largest and handsomest squares in the metropolis. The centre is laid out in shrubberies and grass-plats, intersected with gravel-walks; and the surrounding buildings are very elegant; it is, however, to be regretted, that the *coup d'œil* is wounded by the want of correspondence among them; some being remarkable for a profusion of architectural elegance, while others are distinguished only by a neat simplicity. At the north-west angle is the elegant mansion which was the residence of the late Mrs. Montague, who was celebrated for the dinner she annually gave to the chimney-sweepers, on the 1st of May, on the lawn before her house.

Were we to notice all the private houses which deserve to be looked at for their elegance and neatness in this part of the town, we might swell this article to many



volumes. We must therefore confine ourselves to the duty of a surveyor, and merely point out streets and squares as they suggest any thing interesting to our readers. —The late duke of Manchester built a house in a square which from it received its name. The square is small, but neat; and the centre, surrounded with iron railing, is tastefully laid out in compartments of shrubs and flowers. Near this, is the Spanish ambassador's chapel, which was kept open all through the French revolution, and even when we were at war with Spain, for the accommodation of the Roman catholics of the neighbourhood. And, indeed, what has war to do with the religious sensibilities of man? Nothing but a narrow-minded speculation would have suggested the idea of shutting up this and other places of worship, viz. the Sardinian, Bavarian, &c. chapels. Thanks to the spirit of toleration, this was not the case.

On the east of Cavendish-square, is one of the broadest and best-built streets in the metropolis: it is called PORTLAND PLACE. Its breadth is upwards of a hundred and twenty feet; and the houses on each side are regular, lofty, and elegant; the middle ones are particularly adorned with composition bas-reliefs and cornices. This place leads to the New Road; and the extensive plantations and preparations made, or making, on the crown-land, to the north of the New Road, called Marybone Park, though more commonly the Regent's Park, and the passing of an act of parliament for a grand new street from the proposed Park to Charing Cross, having attracted the general attention of the public, we submit to our readers so much of the accepted Plan of Mr. John Nash, architect, as will convey a clear idea of the intended improvements.

"Marybone Park lies on the north-west boundary of the town, abutting south on the New Road from Paddington to Islington; and part of it advances southward of the New Road to the ends of Portland Place, Harley-street, and Portland Road, all which parts of the town have long since been built upon to the southern boundary of Marybone Park. The northern boundary lies open to Hampstead and Highgate; and, great as the speculations in building are, the period must be very remote when Marybone Park shall be enclosed on its northern side. The houses forming the streets abutting on the southern boundary of Marybone Park, such as Baker-street, Nottingham-street, Nottingham Place, High-street, Devonshire Place, Harley-street, and Portland Place, are of the general class of houses occupied by the gentry of the metropolis. Portland Place is the most magnificent street in London; and, in point of breadth, Devonshire Place and Baker-street are next in rank.

"The artificial causes of the extension of London are the speculations of builders, encouraged and promoted by merchants dealing in the materials of building, and attorneys with moneyed clients facilitating, and indeed putting in motion, the whole system, by disposing of their clients' money in premature mortgages, the sale of improved ground-rents, and by numerous other devices, by which their clients make an advantageous use of their money, and the attorneys create to themselves a lucrative business from the agreements, assignments, leases, mortgages, bonds, and other instruments of law, which become necessary throughout such complicated and intricate transactions. It is not necessary for the present purpose to enumerate the bad consequences and pernicious effects which arise from such an unnatural and forced enlargement of the town, further than to observe, that it is the interest of those concerned in such buildings that they should be of as little cost as possible, preserving an attractive exterior, which Parker's stucco, coloured bricks, and balconies, accomplish; and a fashionable arrangement of rooms on the principal floors, embellished by the paper-hanger, and a few flimsy marble chimney-pieces, are the attractions of the interior. These are sufficient allurements to the public, and ensure the sale of the houses, which is the ultimate object of the builders; and to this jinery every thing out of sight is sacrificed, or is no fur-

ther an object of attention, than that no defects in the constructive and substantial parts shall make their appearance while the houses are on sale.

"The principles on which this Plan, and the designs accompanying it, are formed, and the objects proposed to be obtained, are, that Marybone Park shall be made to contribute to the healthfulness, beauty, and advantage, of that quarter of the metropolis; that the houses and buildings to be erected shall be of that useful description, and permanent construction, and possess such local advantages, as shall be likely to assure a great augmentation of revenue to the crown at the expiration of the leases; that the attraction of open space, free air, and the scenery of nature, with the means and invitation of exercise on horseback, on foot, and in carriages, shall be preserved or created in Marybone Park, as allurements and motives for the wealthy part of the public to establish themselves there; and, that the advantages which the circumstances of the situation itself present shall be improved and advanced; and that markets, and conveniences essential to the comforts of life, shall be placed in situations, and under such circumstances, as may induce tradesmen to settle there.

"It is proposed that the two principal entrances into Marybone Park shall be Portland Place and Baker-street; that Portland Place shall be continued in the present direction, and of the same width, for the length of fifty yards northwards into Marybone Park; that Baker-street (widened to the same breadth as Portland Place) shall also be continued northward to the same distance, and that the extreme ends of those streets shall be united by a cross street. The whole area enclosed by those streets (which will contain a space considerably larger than St. James's and the Green Parks together) is proposed to be laid out and planted as a Park, and appropriated to houses of the first magnificence; for which reason there will be no other access to them but Portland Place, Baker-street, and a street opposite Devonshire Place; and to disguise the appearance, and to prevent the impression of having crossed the New Road, it is proposed that the field immediately adjoining the end of Portland Place, together with the like quantity of the field beyond the New Road, shall be converted into a large circus: the intervention of the plantation in the area within the railing of which circus, and the continuation of the street all round, will effectually connect Portland Place with Marybone Park, without producing the least sensation of having crossed the New Road. This Circus will enclose an area equal to that of Lincoln's-inn-fields, and be in unison with the magnificent sale of Portland Place.

"In the centre of the Park, on the summit of the rising ground from which it falls on every side, it is proposed to erect another circus, with the fronts of the houses looking externally over the Park which surrounds it; and round the circus so formed, to make a circular road, separated only from the Park by a ha-ha, or sunk fence, such as divides Kensington Gardens from Hyde Park; the circumference of the road will be  $\frac{3}{4}$ ths of a mile. Within the external curve of houses an inner circus is proposed to be formed, of equal magnitude with that proposed at the end of Portland Place. The Park may be embellished with a lake of water in the form of a river, equal in magnitude to the Serpentine River in Hyde Park. At the upper part of the Park it is proposed to make a canal or basin of water, of the length and breadth of that in St. James's Park; and round the sides of the Canal to form three terraces of gravel, the upper terrace being the street, with easy slopes of turf between, and rows of trees regularly planted, forming avenues to the terraces. The canal or basin to be surrounded by a stone balustrade, and fed from the spring on Primrose-hill, through an ornamented fountain erected in the centre of the canal; those promenades, and that style of decoration, will be novelties to the metropolis, and the houses which surround the terraces will also participate in the scenery of the parks behind them. A square is also proposed to be built on the south



South side of the Park, immediately beyond the New Road, of the size of Ruffel-square, (the largest in London,) with a street at each end, of the same breadth as Portland Place, leading to it. The houses on the north side of this square and street will enjoy the scenery of the Park, as will also the two great streets which surround the middle park.

"The houses before described, and the park which they enclose, are situated in the middle of Marybone Park, and occupy 250 acres, leaving 260 acres round them, which it is proposed to appropriate in the following manner. A circular road to be made round the boundary, leaving a breadth of 120 feet next the boundary-line for building; the road to be 50 feet wide, and the remaining ground in front of the road to be laid out and planted as lawns or parks; the road to be separated from the scenery only by a sunk fence, as before described, affording to the houses that may be built on the ground between the road and the boundary-line views over those lawns or parks; and it is presumed, that those who are tempted to build or purchase houses by the sides of the dusty roads at the outlets of the town, for the sake of looking over fields or gardens, often naked and without trees, with the continual apprehension of those fields and gardens being also covered with buildings, and their prospects destroyed, will prefer to establish themselves by the side of a road faced with such dressed scenery as it is proposed to make round Marybone Park, and which will be continually improving as the plantations flourish, and of the view of which their houses cannot be deprived. At the westernmost part of the circular road, the ground to be planted is so broad as to admit of two crescents of houses, each fronting the most beautiful part of the scenery, each crescent having a sort of park of its own in front, and the water which adorns it full of variety; besides the beauties of such a road and scenery, it will form a ride or drive, three miles in length, (besides the circular road in the interior of the Park before described,) a circumstance which none of the old Parks possess; and, when all those attractions and advantages are considered, a reasonable hope may be entertained that the great and opulent will settle here in preference to the present favoured spots in the vicinity of the old Parks, particularly if the grand approach from the houses of parliament, courts of law, and state-offices in Westminster, to Portland Place, herein-after recommended, should ever be accomplished; for then Marybone Park will be brought as near by distance, and nearer by time, to those places of constant resort, as either Hyde Park or Grosvenor Place; and the grandeur of the access, and the vicinity of the great, will all be additional inducements to the wealthy who seek for residences where there is country scenery, to establish themselves on the sides of the circular road.

"The interior and exterior Parks are proposed to be let in parcels, of from four to twenty acres, for the purpose of building villas; and so planted that no villa should see any other, but each should appear to possess the whole of the Park; and that the streets of houses which overlook the Park should not see the villas, nor one street of houses overlook those of another street.

"After having thus transferred to Marybone Park the allurements which are the obvious causes of the preference given to the favourite spots of residence in the neighbourhood of the Parks, and to other favourite situations on the skirts of the town, it remains to consider and take advantage of the local circumstances favourable to improvement presented by the place itself. The first of these is the intended navigation between the Grand Junction Canal at Paddington, and the River Thames below London bridge; by the extension of that canal eastward behind Camden Town, by Islington, Hoxton, and Bethnal Green; and, thence bending southward by Stepney, to unite, just above Poplar cut, with the Thames at Limehouse; (thus the metropolis will be nearly insulated.) The line of that canal will be across the ground of Marybone Park, in a north-easterly direction; and it is proposed to take

advantage of that canal in the formation and supply of the ornamental water which is to embellish the Parks, and to carry a lateral cut, just before it leaves Marybone, in the direction and nearly as far as the New Road, a few yards to the east of the point where Portland Road enters the New Road, at which place the proposed lateral cut will terminate in a large basin." This is already done.

"The advantages of this cut are obvious. It will bring the produce of the country, and the articles which the sea and Thames supply, at a cheaper rate to the most central situation of that populous neighbourhood. And round this basin it is proposed to establish a MARKET, as large as Covent-Garden market, for the supply of vegetables; also a hay-and-straw market, as large as that at the end of Piccadilly; a corn-market, and corn-exchange, as in the city; coal-wharfs and coal-exchange; a meat-and-poultry market, and butter-and-eggs market, on extensive scales; all of which will be supplied by the easy and cheap means of water-carriage. On the sides of this branch of the canal will be established wharfs for timber, lime, stone, manure, &c. and on each side a row of houses for those employed in the commerce of the canal. By this cut all the conveniences of life will be brought home to the doors of those who establish themselves on the lands of Marybone Park; and the revenue arising to the crown from property so circumstanced will not only be great but permanent, the sources from which it arises being identified with the comforts and necessities of the public.

"The NEW STREET direct from Charing-Cross to Marybone Park, would be of such advantage to the crown-lands of Marybone Park, by the additional value it would give to that property, as alone to justify the crown in carrying it into execution; and of such advantage to the nobility and gentry occupying the principal houses in the west and north-west quarters of the town, in their communication with the houses of parliament, the courts of law, the treasury, admiralty, and other public offices in the lower parts of Westminster, that I have considered it under three distinct heads: its utility to the public; beauty to the metropolis; and the practicability of the measure.

"In considering the arrangement of the streets and squares of the west and north-west quarters of the town, it will be seen, that, northwards of Oxford-street, the principal streets and squares are situated west of Portland Place; and that, between Oxford-street and Piccadilly, the line of separation between the habitations of the first classes of society and those of the inferior classes, is Swallow-street; and that, if St. Alban's street should be continued northward into Piccadilly, such a street would make a like separation of the houses of the different classes of society lying between Piccadilly and Pall Mall, excepting only those on the west side of St. James's market. The street, therefore, which is here recommended, begins at Charing Cross, and terminates in Portland Place; and Portland Place, being the widest street in London, is taken as a model for the breadth of such new street. Pall Mall must be always one of the inlets to the west end of the town, on account of Carlton-house, and other magnificent houses which it contains, and the Palace and Cleveland-row at the extremity of it; and the club-houses in St. James's street, and the superb residences on the east side of the Green Park. It is proposed, therefore, that Pall Mall shall be continued eastward, of the full width of its broadest part, until it intersects the Haymarket on one side, and Cockspur-street on the other, at which place the street will be then of that ample breadth it should be, for the passage of the concourse of people coming from every part of the metropolis, all of whom must meet at that place in their way to and from the public offices, courts of law, and houses of parliament.

"From Carlton-house it is proposed to carry the new street at right angles with Pall Mall into Piccadilly, the west side of St. Alban's street forming one side of it, out of which Charles-street will run as it now does, into St. James's square; and it is proposed to continue Charles-street eastward, until it intersects the Haymarket. By this



this arrangement the Opera-house will be insulated, and stand in the middle of a large area formed by Pall Mall on the south, Charles-street (continued) on the north, St. Alban's-street on the west, and the Haymarket on the east side. King-street, leading to St. James's square, is now on the same line, and of the same breadth as Charles-street on the opposite side of the square; and, if King-street be continued and opened into St. James's street, King-street and Charles-street will form a vista, and handsome communication between St. James's street and the Haymarket, parallel with Pall Mall, and improve the outlet from St. James's square; and, if it should be thought advisable to take down one side of Jernyn-street, and widen it, another good communication would be formed from the proposed new street, into St. James's street, Arlington-street, and the upper part of Piccadilly.

"The point where the proposed street would enter Piccadilly, is half-way between Air-street and the end of Titchborne-street, from which point it is proposed that the new street shall be continued into Oxford-street, entering Oxford-street at the point where King-street and Swallow-street unite; this line of the street will stand in an oblique position to that of Piccadilly to Pall Mall; and, to disguise the deviation from a straight line, it is proposed to form a small circus where the oblique lines meet in Piccadilly, and to place a column, or other public monument, in the centre; at the same time that the obliquity of the lines of street is concealed, the situation will be most eligible for a public monument, as it will interrupt the view, and arrest the attention of all who pass along those streets of general intercourse; it will also contribute to the beauty of that part of the new communication from Carlton-house; it will be a central object terminating that vista, at the same time that Carlton-house will terminate the same vista from the opposite end.

"From the west side of this length of new street will diverge New Burlington-street, leading to the respectable houses in Saville-row, Old Burlington and Clifford streets; next, Conduit-street, leading through Bruton-street into Berkeley-square; next Madox-street, leading towards Grosvenor-square; then, Hanover-street, and Princes-street, leading into Hanover-square; and it is proposed that none of the smaller streets on the west side shall open into the new street, except Vigo-lane, all the rest having access to them from that part of Swallow-street which remains, and through Swallow-street into Piccadilly. On the east side, the only streets which will necessarily enter this street will be Brewer-street, as a continuation of Vigo-lane, Silver-street, Marlborough-street, and Argyle-street; thus in the whole extent from Piccadilly to Oxford-street there will be but four crossings on either side of the street, and carts and drays can carry on their traffic by means of the back streets, without interfering with the principal street. It will also be seen by the plan, that the whole communication from Charing Cross to Oxford-street will be a boundary and complete separation between the streets and squares occupied by the nobility and gentry, and the narrow streets and meaner houses occupied by mechanics and the trading part of the community.

"A street so formed, of such ample breadth, and so circumstanced, being the nearest and most commodious approach from every part of the best-inhabited quarters of the west and north-west ends of the town to Charing Cross, will be used by every one who has any thing to do with Westminster-hall, the houses of parliament, treasury, admiralty, or any other of the public offices in their vicinity; and shops appropriated to articles of taste and fashion will, when this new street shall become the great thoroughfare, range themselves along it, and the stream of fashion be diverted to a new street, where the footpath will be fifteen feet wide, instead of seven feet, and the carriage-way double the width of that in Bond-street, and where there will be room for all the fashionable shops to be assembled in one street; and, if the foot-pavements were to be covered by a light colonnade, surmounted by a balustrade,

those who have daily intercourse with the public establishments in Westminster may go two-thirds of the way on foot under cover, and those who have nothing to do but walk about and amuse themselves, may do so every day in the week, instead of being frequently confined many days together to their houses by rain; and such a covered colonnade would be of peculiar convenience to those who require daily exercise. The balustrades over the colonnades will form balconies to the lodging-rooms over the shops, from which the occupiers of the lodgings can see and converse with those passing in the carriages underneath, and which will add to the gaiety of the scene, and induce single men, and others who only visit town occasionally, to give a preference to such lodgings. Those who may fear that the shops under colonnades would be dark and gloomy, are requested to consider the great width (120 feet) of the street, and that the mezzanines between the shops and lodging-rooms, necessary for the sleeping apartments of the proprietors of the shops, will make the colonnades very lofty; and that, if small areas are made in the flats over the colonnade, immediately above the shop windows, and the projecting part of the windows roofed with glass, the articles in those windows having a light immediately over them, such shops will be better lighted, and have a more brilliant effect, than by light received in the ordinary way. And those who may suppose that the pillars to support the colonnade may become nuisances, are requested to consider that they are not proposed to be square pillars, or piers, but round columns, the receding form of which will preclude any shelter to those who may be disposed to commit nuisances against them; and that they will be so far apart, and so small in diameter, that they will be no impediment to the return of any one pressed from the foot-pavement to the carriage-way; and that even such accidents, from a pavement fifteen feet wide, are scarcely ever liable to happen.

"The proposed street is described as entering Oxford-street at the point of junction of Swallow-street with King-street; and, if Portland Place were elongated until it should intersect Oxford-street, it would be exactly opposite that point of junction. Foley-house is immediately to be pulled down, and Portland Place continued, through Foley-house gardens, to their southern extremity; and this survey proposes to extend that continuation until it shall enter Oxford-street.

"The magnificent squares and streets north of Oxford-street are so numerous and extensive, that they form the largest portion of the fashionable part of the town; but, for want of direct and suitable approaches, it has been always considered as a distant quarter; it is not yet forgotten that Oxford-street was once one of the turnpike-roads forming the boundary of the town; and the buildings even now retain something of the appearance of houses seen by the sides of roads immediately round the metropolis. Crossing Oxford-street has always been a fashionable objection to the residences north of Oxford-street; to do away that impression, it is proposed, that, where the continuation of Portland Place with Oxford-street unites with the new street intended from Oxford-street to Piccadilly, namely, at the end of Swallow-street, a circus should be formed, Oxford-street crossing it from east to west, and the new street from south to north; in the centre of which circus, if a public monument were placed, as before described for the crossing of Piccadilly, and the same colonnade and shops be continued round such circus, as recommended for the sides of the new street, the sensation of having passed Oxford-street will be entirely done away, and the two divisions of the town insensibly united in the best manner possible.

"There is no direct way from the end of Bond-street to the principal streets north of Oxford-road, which strengthens the impression of those two divisions of the town being distinct and separate; but Portland Place will form one continued street from Charing Cross, intersecting many of the principal streets north of Oxford-street at right angles, and afford the nearest and best communication



ation from Charing Crofs, and the lower parts of Westminster, to every part of that magnificent and extensive neighbourhood; and, if the utility of such a street to that part of the parish of Marybone would be so great, the advantage of it to the crown-lands of Marybone Park would be incalculable; no part of the unbuilt ground surrounding the town would have so good or so direct an approach; and, in the future enlargement of the town, the north-west part of Marybone must have a preference to every other situation. By the straight direction of this street, Marybone Park is brought nearer the houses of parliament, courts of law, the treasury, admiralty, &c. than many other parts of the town in the highest request of fashion: it is within 170 yards as near as the nearest part of Grosvenor-place, and half a mile nearer than the lower end of that street; it is within 80 yards as near as the west side of Grosvenor-square, and 70 yards nearer than the nearest end of Upper Brook-street, and 300 yards nearer than the upper end of Upper Grosvenor-street; it is within 90 yards as near as Stanhope-street; it is more than one-third of a mile nearer than Portman-square or Manchester-square; it is three quarters of a mile nearer than the upper end of Park-lane, Cumberland-place, &c. and, incredible as it may appear, it will be only 50 yards further to Marybone Park, at the extreme end of Portland Place, than it is by the present circuitous route to the entrance of Cavendish-square, and 50 yards nearer than it is to the north side of that square. Such are the advantages of a direct street; and if, as the late surveyor-general observes, 'distance is best measured by time,' Marybone Park, being without the impediments and interruptions of turning corners and crossing streets, will be nearer to the houses of parliament, courts of law, and public offices, than four parts out of five of the principal residences in the west and north-west ends of the town.

"Such are the advantages, and such will be the utility, of the street proposed. The beauty of the town, it is presumed, would be advanced by a street of such magnificent dimensions; by the colonnades and balustrades which will adorn its sides; by insulating the public building of the Opera; by the effect of the monuments in the centre of the crossing streets; by the vista between Carlton-house and Piccadilly, terminated by a public monument at one end, and by the palace of Carlton-house at the other; every length of street would be terminated by a façade of beautiful architecture; and, to add to the beauty of the approach from Westminster to Charing Crofs, a square or crescent, open to, and looking down, Parliament-street, might be built round the equestrian statue at Charing Crofs, which, at the same time that it would open and enlarge that space, from whence, as before observed, the greatest part of the population of the metropolis meet and diverge, it would afford a magnificent and beautiful termination of the street from Westminster. The lofty situation of Charing Crofs, and gradual ascent to it, are peculiarly calculated to produce a grand and striking effect. Such a building might be appropriated to additional offices for the government, which it is understood are much wanted; or the Royal Society, Royal Academy, and Antiquarian Society, might be placed there; and the apartments in Somerset-house, now occupied by those societies, be appropriated to such public offices as the rest of the buildings of Somerset-place."

Mr. Nash, in his estimate of the value of the improved property, conceives that the immediate ground-rent will produce 59,429l. per annum, and that the property, at the end of the building leases, will be worth 187,724l. The making, planting, and watering, the parks, he estimates at 12,115l. And the purchase of the old houses between Charing Crofs and Portland Place he values at 399,803l. after deducting the value of the old materials; while their ground-rents would be worth 28,734l. per annum, under the new plan, as part of the new street. The length of the new street, from Charing Crofs to Oxford-street, will be 1700 yards, of which it appears that 1280

yards will pass through property already belonging to the crown. The cost of a common sewer to drain the houses in Marybone Park, and in the new street, he values at 112,330l. and its revenue paid by the tenants at 19,105l.

Mr. Nash has since presented a supplementary plan, by desire of government, containing fewer buildings, and a larger extent of Park. The revenue of the park, on this new plan, will be reduced from 59,429l. to 45,269l. owing to there being fewer of the higher class of houses; but the scenery will be equally beautiful, and, so far as relates to the ornamental canal, with its terraces and ample areas of the two upper crescents, still more magnificent. These plans of Mr. Nash having been approved of by the lords of the treasury, the Park has been enclosed; the roads through it, and the circular drive, formed; the plantations too have been made; houses have been built, with elegant porticos, in a line with the sides of Portland Place; in short, the whole design is proceeding towards its completion with extraordinary activity.

At a short distance from the south end of Portland Place is Portland Chapel, a handsome brick building, ornamented with stone, and having a stone steeple at the west end; erected about forty years ago, on the site of Marybone-bafon, which was anciently a reservoir of water for the supply of that part of the metropolis, but had been many years disused.

To the east of Portland Chapel is a plain but commodious brick building, called the Middlesex Hospital. This hospital was instituted in the year 1745, for the relief of the indigent sick and lame, at which time, and for several years after, it was carried on in two convenient houses adjoining to each other, in Windmill-street, Tottenham-court-road. The benefactions of the public having greatly increased, the governors, in 1747, extended their plan to the relief of pregnant wives of the industrious poor; when the great increase of patients soon obliged them to think of enlarging their edifice as well as their plan; and, by the benevolence of the contributors, they were enabled, in 1755, to erect the present building, which at that time was situated in the open fields. That part of the institution which relates to the admission of pregnant women, was altered about fifteen years ago, in consequence of an offer made by an unknown person, through the medium of a respectable surgeon, to advance three thousand pounds, and to settle three hundred pounds per annum on the hospital, provided the governors would appropriate a ward for the reception and cure of cancerous diseases. Such an offer was not to be rejected; but the obstacle to its adoption was the unwillingness of the governors to narrow the extent of their charity, to the exclusion of some part of those who were already within its scope. It being however suggested, that delivering married women at home would, in most cases, be a more effectual and beneficial relief to them than obliging them to pass the period of their confinement in a hospital, secluded from their families, it was determined to appropriate the lying-in ward to the desired purpose, and to provide those who might want it, with obstetrical assistance, medicine, and nurses, at their own habitations; by which means the managers of this charity were enabled to accept the benevolent offer; and since that period the upper part of the hospital has been devoted solely to the cure of that disease.

The improvements which are making in every part of the New Road, invite the perambulator to a survey of the elegant houses which have been lately built at the top of Portland Road, and all along to Tottenham-court-road. Between these roads is Fitzroy-square, a place which we have seen in an unfinished state for more than twenty years. Some unknown cause has prevented this spot becoming fashionable; and this sort of fatality, which has lain heavy upon some other places, as Golden-square and Leicester-square, is not likely to be soon removed.

From Fitzroy-square we enter Tottenham-court-road, a wide street leading southward to that part of the metro-



polis called St. Giles's.—St. Giles's church is supposed to owe its origin to the chapel belonging to an hospital founded here about the year 1117, by Matilda, queen of Henry I. for the reception of a certain number of leprosy people belonging to London and Middlesex. In the year 1354, Edward III. granted this hospital to the master and brethren of the order of Burton St. Lazer, in Leicestershire, in consideration of their having remitted forty marks, and the arrears thereof, payable out of the exchequer; by which means it became a cell to that order, and so it continued until the general suppression of religious houses. In the year 1545, Henry VIII. granted this hospital, with its chapel, to lord Dudley; soon after which it appears to have been made parochial; for, on the 20th of April, 1547, William Rawlinson was instituted rector of it. The small old church of this parish being taken down in the year 1623, a church of brick was erected in its stead; but, the ground in its neighbourhood being gradually raised to the height of eight feet above the floor, it became very damp and unwholesome. On this, the inhabitants applied to parliament to have it rebuilt, when, the sum of eight thousand pounds being granted for that purpose, the old fabric was taken down in 1730, and the present structure was completed in three years after. This magnificent edifice is exceeding lofty, and the whole of it is built of Portland stone. The area of the church within the walls is sixty feet wide and seventy-five in length, exclusive of the recess for the altar. The roof is supported with Ionic pillars and piers of Portland stone, and is vaulted underneath. The outside of the church has a rustic basement; and the windows of the galleries have femi-circular heads, over which is a modillion-cornice. The steeple is a hundred and sixty feet high, and consists of a rustic pedestal, supporting a Doric order of pilasters; and over the clock is an octangular tower, with three-quarter Ionic columns, supporting a balustrade with vases; on this tower stands the spire, which is also octangular, and belted. The expense of erecting this church amounted to 10,026l. 15s. 9d. including the eight thousand pounds granted by parliament. It is a rectory in the gift of the crown. Over the north-west door into the church-yard is a curious piece of sculpture, representing the Day of Resurrection: it contains a great number of figures, and was set up about the year 1686.

Near this church was the house of Alice duchess Dudley, who died here in 1669, aged ninety. She was the widow of the great sir Robert Dudley, son to Robert earl of Leicester, who, by various untoward circumstances, was denied legitimacy and his paternal estates. He had been created a duke of the Roman empire, and lived and died in Tuscany, by the title of duke of Northumberland. His widow was advanced to the dignity of a duchess, by letters patent of Charles I. which were afterwards confirmed by Charles II. but the title died with her. The name is still preserved in Dudley-court, at present a most wretched and dirty place.

In ancient times it was customary to present to malefactors, on their way to the place of execution, (which, about the year 1413, was removed from Smithfield and placed between High-street, St. Giles's, and Hog-lane,) a bowl of ale, as the last refreshment they were to receive in this life. Such a custom prevailed at York; which gave rise to the saying, that "the sadler of Bawtry was hanged for *leaving his liquor*." Had he stopped, as usual, his reprieve, which was actually on the road, would have arrived time enough to have saved him.—Here was executed, in the most barbarous manner, the famous sir John Oldcastle, lord Cobham. His crime was that of adopting the tenets of Wycliffe. He was misrepresented to our heroic prince Henry V. by the bigoted clergy, as a heretic and traitor; and as having been actually at the head of thirty thousand Lollards, in these very fields. About a hundred inoffensive people were found there: Cobham escaped; but was taken some time after in Wales. He suffered death on this spot: was hung on a gallows, by a

chain fastened round his body, and, thus suspended, burnt alive.

About this spot, between Tottenham-court-road and St. Giles's church, and indeed below it, quite to Drury-lane, we find several small narrow streets, chiefly inhabited by low Hibernians, who have given a peculiar character to the place; and the natural warmth (we might say heat) of their temper displays itself here with all its energy. Broken heads, black eyes, and bruises of all colours and hues, are generally the result of these Irish games.

Great Russel-street, leading to Bloomsbury-square, is a noble street, and respectably inhabited. It has on its north side, Bedford-square, one of the most uniform places in London. The centre houses on each of the four sides of this quadrangle are particularly decorated; and indeed, elegance and taste seem to have affixed their seal on every house. These centre houses are distinguished from the others, which are of brick, by having a stone façade upon a rustic pediment; the order is Ionic, and of good effect. The middle of the area is formed into a circular grass-plot, having a broad gravel-walk around it, on the outside of which is a parterre of shrubs and flowers; and the whole is encompassed with an iron-railing.

On the north side of Great Russel-street is Montague-house, better known by the name of the BRITISH MUSEUM, from being the depository of that extensive national collection. This noble building was erected by John duke of Montague, keeper of the wardrobe to king Charles II. and who was afterwards in high favour with king William and queen Anne. The front of the building is very extensive; two large wings, for offices, join it at right angles, and form a handsome court, inclosed from the street by a high brick wall, in the centre of which is a spacious gate, under a dome: the inside of the wall is formed into a grand colonnade, reaching to the wings on either side. The house is adorned with very curious paintings, (particularly the hall and staircase,) executed by La Fosse, Bap-tiste, and Rousseau; and behind it is an extensive garden.

The first rise of this splendid collection was in consequence of the will of sir Hans Sloane, who left his museum to the nation, which he declared in his will cost him upwards of 50,000l. on condition that parliament paid 20,000l. to his executors, and purchased a house sufficiently commodious for it. The parliament acted with great liberality on this occasion; several other valuable collections were united to this of sir Hans Sloane, and the whole establishment completed for the sum of 85,000l. which was raised by a lottery.

A beginning having been thus made of a public scientific repository, it was deemed expedient to enlarge its extent, and increase its importance by adding to it whatever happened to be at that time within the reach of the legislature. Parliament accordingly added at various times to the Sloanean Museum; the Cottonian library; major Edwards's library; the Harleian collection of manuscripts; sir Wm. Hamilton's collection of fictile or Greek vases; the Townleian collection of antique marbles; the manuscripts of the late marquis Lansdown; the minerals of the hon. Charles Greville; and lastly, in 1813, the library of counsellor Hargrave, as noticed at p. 367.

Among other benefactors to this (now called British) Museum are, his majesty king George II. who gave the whole of the important library of printed books and manuscripts which had been gradually collected by our kings from Henry VII. to William III. and which is still annually increasing by the privilege of being supplied with a copy of every publication entered at Stationers' Hall. His present majesty, equally desirous of promoting the Museum, has given a numerous collection of valuable pamphlets which were published in the convulsive interval between 1640 and 1660. His majesty has also contributed the two finest mummies in Europe, which were presented to him by the late earl of Bute; a sum of money arising from lottery-tickets, which belonged to his royal predecessors, amounting to 1123l. in 1772, a complete set of



the Journals of the Lords and Commons; a collection of natural and artificial curiosities sent to him in 1796, by Mr. Menzie, from the north-west coast of America, and several single books of great value and utility; also many articles of Egyptian antiquities, which were acquired from the French by the capitulation of Alexandria in 1802. The trustees have added Greenwood's collection of stuffed birds; Hachet's minerals; Halhed's oriental manuscripts; Tyssen's collection of Saxon coins; Dr. Bentley's classics; and Roberts's English coins. Private donations have afforded Dr. Birch's library, by will of the learned doctor, and an annual sum of 52*l.* 18*s.* in the funds for ever. A collection of fossils by Gustavus Brander, esq. a select library of classics by Thomas Tyrwhitt, esq. a similar bequest of sir Wm. Mufgrave; Mr. Garrick's collection of old plays; a most magnificent collection of printed books, prints, coins, medals, minerals, shells, gems, &c. which, by the spontaneous and splendid munificence of the Rev. Mordaunt Cracherode, were bequeathed to the public; and a series of Peruvian ores, consisting of nearly 200 articles, presented by lord Grenville. Add to these, some other benefactors, as sir Joseph Banks, of curiosities from the South Seas; Icelandic books, and many valuable books and other presents, from the emperors Francis I. and II. and the empress Maria-Theresa, from Catharine II. of Russia, their majesties Charles III. of Spain, and Frederic V. of Denmark. From our own boards of Admiralty, of Longitude, and of the East-India Company; the various numerous literary societies of London, Edinburgh, Oxford, Cambridge, and Leyden; the royal and imperial academies of Brussels, Lisbon, &c. whose donations have been and are no less frequent than valuable. Among the multitude of private individuals, not members of the trust, who have enriched this museum and their country, stand most prominent the names of Col. Wm. Pitt, Smart Lethiullier, Thomas Hollis, esqrs. and the late earl of Exeter. For more detailed particulars of this splendid collection, alike attractive and useful to the learned of all classes, we refer our readers to a Synopsis of their general contents, sold at the Museum.

For the admission of companies to a sight of the Museum, various regulations have from time to time been formed; every successive alteration having had for its object to add to the facility of access, and in every respect to the accommodation of the public. According to the present regulations, the Museum is open for public inspection, on the Monday, Wednesday, and Friday, in every week, (the Christmas, Easter, and Whitfun, weeks, thanksgiving and fast days, and the whole months of August and September, excepted,) from ten till four o'clock; and all persons of decent appearance, who apply between the hours of ten and two, are immediately admitted, and may tarry in the apartments, or the gallery of antiquities, without any limitation of time, except the shutting of the house at four o'clock.

On entering the gate of the Museum, a spacious quadrangle presents itself, with an Ionic colonnade on the south side, and the main building on north, which measures 216 feet in length, and 57 in height, to the top of the cornice.

The first floor consists of twelve rooms, and contains the library of printed books. Strangers are not conducted through these apartments, as the mere sight of the outside of books cannot convey either instruction or amusement; but, by applying at the Museum, and conforming with the rules, it is not difficult for a respectable person to get admitted as a student to the reading-rooms.

The companies, having been admitted according to the regulations, are immediately conducted up the great staircase, the decorations of which have lately been restored, and are worthy of admiration. The ceiling is painted by Chas. de la Fosse, who was reckoned one of the best colourists of the French school, and who painted the cupola of the dome of the Invalids at Paris. This ceiling represents Phaeton petitioning Apollo for leave to drive his

chariot. The landscape and decorations are by James Rousseau, whose skill in perspective has always been justly held in high estimation.

The first room of the upper story contains modern works of art from all parts of the world, arranged in cases, several printed tables of which lie on the case in the centre of the room. This case contains some very beautiful miniatures; among them, sir Thomas More, king Charles I. and Oliver Cromwell, with his watch by the side of it. Two curious portraits of king William and queen Mary, carved on two walnut-shells. In the presses round the rooms are arranged, in a geographical order, some fine specimens of china, a variety of implements of war from different quarters of the globe, and a rich collection of curiosities from the South Pacific Ocean, brought by Capt. Cook. In the left corner is the mourning dress of an Otaheitean lady, in which taste and barbarity are singularly blended; and opposite are the rich cloaks and helmets of feathers from the Sandwich Islands. Among these is one which, in elegance of form, vies even with the Grecian helmets. In another case are the cava-bowls; and above them baltoons, and other weapons of war. The next objects of attention are the idols of the different islands, presenting, in their hideous rudeness, a singular contrast with many of the works of art formed by the same people; near these are the drums and other instruments of music, and a breast-plate from the Friendly Islands. These selections, numerous as they are, are taken from a large store of similar curiosities deposited in a less conspicuous part of the house; and a preference is wisely given to such articles as best serve to illustrate some local custom, art, manufacture, or point of history. Many of these the trustees mean gradually to set aside, to make room for others of more intrinsic value.—The ceiling of this room or vestibule is also painted by la Fosse, and represents the Fall of Phaeton.

The second room is empty at present, its contents having been removed into the new apartments.—The third room is exclusively devoted to the Lansdown collection of manuscripts, which have been handsomely bound and lettered by order of the trustees.—In the fourth room are the Sloanean and Birchean collections of manuscripts. It also contains Kämpfer's manuscripts; several journals of voyages; and some oriental manuscripts. In a recess, within this room, are placed Mr. Halhed's and some other collections of oriental manuscripts; and over the chimney is a drawing of the palace of Colonna, near Moscow, which belonged to the czars of Moscow; it was built of wood, and is now demolished.—The fifth room contains part of the Harleian library of manuscripts; and the sixth the remaining part of the same, and additions made since the establishment of the Museum; particularly an original deed in Latin, written on papyrus, being a conveyance of some land to a monastery; dated Ravenna, anno 572, bought at the sale of the Pinelli library; and a large specimen of the reed (*Cyperus papyrus*) of which that kind of paper is made; also an Italian note to sir William Hamilton, written on modern papyrus, explaining the mode of preparing it.—The seventh room is appropriated to the Royal and Cottonian library of manuscripts. On a table in a glazed frame, is the original of the Magna Charta, and on the side of it is a fac-simile engraving of it by Pine. Here is also the original of the articles preparatory to the signing of the great charter, perfect, with the seal; presented by the late earl Stanhope.

The company are next introduced into the magnificent saloon, the dome of which was painted by the before-mentioned la Fosse, which has been described by Walpole as the apotheosis of Isis; and by others, much nearer the truth, as that of Iris; but the most probable conjecture is, that the painter meant it to exhibit the birth of Minerva; that goddess, fully attired, being the most prominent figure. Jupiter is immediately above her. The other heathen deities surround this groupe in admiration of the event. And in a lower compartment the Vices are being expelled



expelled from heaven on the manifestation of Wisdom. In the six medallions near the corner of the room are represented some of the principal achievements of Minerva. The landscapes and architectural decorations are by the same J. Rousseau who painted the staircase; and the flowers are by John Baptiste Monoyer, the most eminent flower-painter of his time. The whole of them were lately cleaned and ably repaired by the late F. Rigaud, esq. R. A. in a manner that does him infinite credit. Over the chimney is a full-length portrait of George II. by Shackleton; and in the middle of the window stands a table, composed of a variety of lavas from Mount Vesuvius, presented by the earl of Exeter.—This apartment contains the united collections of minerals, the greater part of which formerly constituted the collection of the late right hon. Charles Greville. These consolidated collections are arranged in cabinets containing upwards of 550 drawers, independently of the specimens exhibited in the glazed compartments above, which form a suite for study, and respectively indicate the contents of the drawers below. In the arrangement of this collection, a natural order founded on external characters has been followed; not, however, without consulting the chemical composition of the substances, so far as convenience would admit. In order to facilitate the distinction of the specimens in the glazed compartments, the separations of their different genera and species are marked by lines of various colours, corresponding to those on the tickets which bear their respective names and synonyms; besides which, almost every specimen has its *habitat* (or place where it is found) written upon it, to which is annexed a ticket indicating the external character for the illustration of which the specimen is deposited.

The eighth room contains a department of natural history, part of which is the valuable donation of Mr. Cracherode, disposed in two tables, nearly in the Linnæan order; and a much more extensive series arranged according to the Wernerian system. The principal productions are very valuable, consisting of minerals from Derbyshire, Siberia, and the South Seas, with volcanic and rock stones from Germany. One very curious specimen of natural history is pointed out in the fifth division of the Cracherodean collection, an egg-shaped piece of calcedony, containing water (enhydros), which may be seen by gently shaking the vase. Another curious specimen is an Egyptian pebble, which has been broken by accident, and discovers on both pieces a portrait of the poet Chaucer; a more remarkable *lusus nature* is not in existence.

The ninth room is appropriated to petrifications and shells. In the first division of the cases in the middle of the room is a valuable univalve shell of the species called the paper nautilus, or Argonauta argo, remarkable for the lightness of its fabric, and the elegance of its shape; of which a representation is given in our CONCHOLOGY Plate V. fig. 1. vol. v. p. 24. It is inhabited by an animal not unlike a cuttle-fish, which, by extending a pair of membranes adhering to the top of its longest arms, has the power of sailing on the surface of the sea. Some beautiful multivalves, fossil shells, echini, &c. Under the tables are deposited, in this and the next room, a great number of volumes and parcels, containing collections of dried plants; which, from the fragile nature of their contents, are shown only by particular leave.

The tenth room is entirely vegetable productions, zoophytes, sponges, &c.—The contents of the eleventh room are birds, and arranged, as far as convenience would admit, according to the Linnæan system. In this room there is a curious picture, executed many years ago in Holland, of that extremely rare and curious bird the dodo, belonging to the tribe gallinæ. It was once the property of sir Hans Sloane, and afterwards of the celebrated naturalist George Edwards, who presented it to the British Museum. In the table in the middle of the room are preserved the nests of several birds, among the most curious of which are several hanging nests, chiefly formed by birds of the oriole tribe; nests of a substance resem-

bling isinglass, which the Chinese make into a rich soup; scarce feathers, &c. In the second table are deposited a variety of eggs and nests: among the former may be noticed the eggs of the ostrich, the cassowary, the crocodile, &c. In the cases between the windows are several of the rarer quadrupeds; among these the most curious are, two ourang-outangs, in a young state, a long-tailed macaoco, ermine, &c. in cases under the tables are an armadillo, a porcupine, several young sloths, and a fine specimen of the two-toed ant-eater.

The twelfth room contains a general and extensive arrangement of fishes, serpents, lizards, frogs, as well as many specimens of quadrupeds, which are all pointed out by the attendant. The most curious are, the torpedo, the remora, the flying-fish, &c. and, among the quadrupeds, the three-toed sloth, the silky monkey, &c. Among the frog tribe, the argus frogs, the Surinam toad, &c. Among the lizard tribes, the salamander, the cameleon, several young crocodiles, and in one bottle the egg of a crocodile, with a young one of a day's growth; several serpents, rattle-snakes, &c. and some fine dried fishes.

The next department you are conducted to down stairs, over which hangs a young crocodile, well preserved, is the Department of Antiquities. These are deposited in a very elegant suite of rooms, built purposely for them, after the design of Mr. Saunders. The principal of the articles of this beautiful collection belonged to the late Charles Townley, esq. They are all accurately and separately described in a catalogue, sold at the doors.—The first room is devoted to the basso-relievos, in terra cotta, and have been pronounced the finest collection in Europe.—The second room is a beautiful circular room, from whence you have a fine view of the whole suite of apartments bounded at the end by a fine *discobolos*, or ancient quoit-player. This room is devoted to Greek and Roman sculptures, among which are a fine candelabrum, some exquisite busts, and beautiful statues, particularly a Venus.—The third and fourth rooms are also filled with Greek and Roman sculptures, as is the last with the addition of many grand basso-relievos.—The fifth has a very fine collection of Roman sepulchral antiquities, and a beautiful mosaic pavement, lately discovered in digging the foundations for the new building at the Bank of England, and which was presented to the Museum by the directors of that opulent body.—The sixth contains 100 grand pieces of Greek and Roman sculptures of every sort.—The seventh, Roman antiquities; and the eighth, which is on the left, Egyptian antiquities, among which are two mummies with their coffins, presented by the present king; a manuscript or papyrus taken from a mummy; and an innumerable quantity of smaller articles, of great antiquity and curiosity.—The ninth room contains Egyptian sculptures, among which is the celebrated sarcophagus, commonly called the tomb of Alexander the Great, an engraving and dissertation on which is in the Monthly Magazine for February, 1809; and many other antique curiosities.—The tenth room has more Greek and Roman sculptures of singular beauty.

From hence you return, and go up-stairs to the eleventh room, which is devoted to ancient and modern coins and medals, arranged in geographical order, those of each country being kept separate.—In the centre of the anti-room, at the head of the stairs, is placed the celebrated Barberini Vase, which was for more than two centuries the principal ornament of the Barberini collection. This vase was purchased of sir William Hamilton, nearly thirty years ago, by the duchess of Portland; since which period it has been more generally known by the name of the Portland Vase. It was found about the middle of the sixteenth century, two miles and a half from Rome, in the road leading to Frascati. At the time of its discovery, the vase was enclosed in a marble sarcophagus, within a sepulchral chamber, under the mount called Monte del Grano. The material of which the vase is formed, is glass; the figures, which are executed in relief,



are of a beautiful opaque white; and the ground, which is in perfect harmony with the figures, is of a dark transparent blue. The subject of these figures is extremely obscure, and has not hitherto received a satisfactory elucidation; but the design and the sculpture are both truly admirable. This superb specimen of Greek art was deposited in the British Museum, in 1810, by the present duke of Portland.—The twelfth room is the collection of the late sir William Hamilton, which has been removed from the saloon. It principally consists of *penates*, or household goods, bronze vessels, utensils, &c. specimens of ancient glass, necklaces, bullæ, fragments of basso-relievos, and ancient armour, tripods, knives, pateræ, lamps, seals, weights, sculpture in ivory, bracelets, bits, spurs, and ancient paintings, from Herculaneum, Babylonish bricks, and his unrivalled collection of Greek vases; the greater part of which were found in the sepulchres of Magna Grecia. The forms of the vases are much varied, and are equally simple and beautiful.—In the thirteenth room is deposited the extensive and valuable collection of prints and drawings, the most important part of which was bequeathed by the Rev. William Cracherode. The contents of this room, as well as those of the coins and medals, can be seen only by a few persons at a time, by particular permission.

The reading-room of the Museum is kept open from ten till four every day in the week, except Saturday and Sunday, and for one week at Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide, and on thanksgiving and fast days. One of the librarians constantly attends during the above hours. Persons desirous of admission into this room, are to send their applications in writing to the principal librarian, who will lay the same before the trustees, when, if they see no objection, they will grant admission for a term not exceeding six months; and every reader, at the expiration of his term, may apply for a prolongation of the same without a fresh recommendation. In applications for admission to this room, it will be necessary to specify the description of the person, and his place of abode; and it is expected that a recommendation from some person of known and approved character may accompany the application. Readers are allowed to take one or more extracts from any printed book or manuscript; but no whole or greater part of a manuscript is to be transcribed without a particular leave from the trustees. In all cases where persons engaged in works of learning, or in the prosecutions of any useful design, have occasion to examine any part of the collection with more attention than can be done according to the ordinary rules of the Museum, or who wish to make any drawing of any thing contained in the Museum, they are to apply to the trustees in a general meeting, or to the standing committee, for particular leave for that purpose, who will give directions according to the circumstances of the case.

The collection of coins and medals is not shown but by leave of the trustees, or of the principal librarian. Not more than two persons are admitted at the same time, unless the principal librarian, or some officer, is present.

At the east end of Great Russell-street is Bloomsbury, formerly Southampton, square; a very handsome square, in the centre of which are grass-plats and a gravel walk, encompassed with neat iron rails. On the east, south, and west, sides, are some handsome buildings; but much of their beauty is taken off by their want of symmetry. The whole of the north side was occupied by Bedford-house; a magnificent mansion, built after a design of Inigo Jones, which was taken down in the year 1800; and the north side of the square is now formed by a row of uniform brick buildings. Behind this row, on the site of the gardens of Bedford-house, and of some fields to the north of them, called the Long Fields, several good streets, and a handsome square, called Russell-square, have been erected.

Russell-square is considerably larger than any other in London, Lincoln's-Inn Fields excepted. Its dimensions nearly (for it is not perfectly at right angles) are 678 feet

on each side. The north and south sides are built in an uniform manner; but the west and east sides are totally dissimilar; the latter consisting partly of the old buildings at the north end of Southampton-row, and of Bolton house, so called from its noble founder, but last the residence of the late earl Rofslyn. Since his decease, it has been new fronted, and, with some additions made in the court-yard of it, has been formed into three separate houses. The area of the square is laid out in grass-plats, shrubberies, and gravel walks, and encompassed with an iron railing; and on the south side of it, fronting Bedford Place, which leads into the centre of Bloomsbury-square, is the statue in bronze of the late Francis duke of Bedford, by Mr. Westmacott. This piece of foundery does the sculptor great honour. The noble duke is represented in his parliamentary robes, standing in a graceful attitude and one of his hands resting on a ploughshare, in allusion to his successful and expensive exertions in bringing the first of all arts, agriculture, to that state of perfection which so particularly distinguishes this country. Four children at the corners of the pedestal exemplify by their attributes the four seasons of the year; and we congratulate the artist on having given free scope to his imagination, and having left the common track so often trod by uninventive sculptors. The bas-reliefs are boldly executed; and the whole, surrounded by an iron railing, has an excellent effect. We should have wished that the sheep, which is squatted at the feet of the statue, had been left out; its insulated situation renders it awkward, and its allegorical meaning is useless, as the basso-relievos and other accompaniments are more than sufficiently expressive of the noble duke's partiality for the triptoleman art. We hope that this first attempt of adorning public places and squares with the statues of our worthies will be followed, in order that we may behold the sculptured image of departed worth without being obliged to pay for it. The streets of Corinth and Athens were peopled with those representations; and we doubt not but their presence had an excellent effect upon the morals of the people. Who would have dared to tell a lie at the foot of Aristides' statue; or to prove a coward before the pedestal that supported the image of Cynegyras!

These reflections lead us to mention the statue of sir Joshua Reynolds, the late president of the Royal Academy, placed in the north-west corner of the great area under the dome of St. Paul's. It has been exposed to view since we surveyed the metropolitan church; and is not one of the least ornaments to the interior of that noble pile. It is the work of Mr. Flaxman, and does him much honour; for, as long as simplicity is united with elegance, character and likeness with unencumbered fluency of drapery and dignified attitude, the strokes of the chisel are sure to please the sculptor and the public. What emulation may not the introduction of this worthy favourite of the chromatic muse into the company of the illustrious characters who have already obtained a place in our Christian Pantheon, create among our artists!—The statuary himself, whose genius, like Rhea, gives a stone to old Time to devour, in order to preserve the life of her son, (for this mythological allegory had sculpture in view,) has identified the block of marble with our affections and regrets; and the painters who have succeeded sir Joshua in the same career, will not fail to hear sweet whisperings of hope, that, when their mortal labours are at an end, their effigies will be placed in the other recesses of this church. Let us beg the reader's indulgence for this digression, and we will conclude by remarking, that under the dome of St. Paul's, in the most conspicuous station, the trustees of the cathedral have not admitted the heroes, who, by sea and land, could not fight their country's cause without shedding the blood of their fellow-creatures; but that they have consecrated this solemn spot to the memorials of those who practised the milder arts; those arts so intimately connected with the charities of our bosom. Philanthropy in Howard, domestic philology



in Johnson, foreign philology in Jones, and the pleasing and bewitching art of painting in Reynolds—these daughters of heaven, these comforters of man, have obtained, by due right of precedence, the first, the central, the most august, place in this national edifice; a discernment in choice which ought to be properly felt by all, and which reflects unprecedented honour upon the feelings of those who preconceived this admirable disposition. This happy thought had not been yet made obvious to the public mind; and we are proud to think that our readers will find it clearly explained and justly praised, for the first time, in our work. Every one will be delighted to know that a regular system has been adopted for the placing of the monuments; and that they are not to be jumbled together, but disposed according to the directions of sensible minds.

Another square is laid out, to the north of Russell-square, which is called Tavistock-square. The area is inclosed and planted, and the east side of it is formed by the continuation of Southampton-row; but the other three sides are scarcely begun.—Tavistock Place enters the square at the top of Southampton-row. Here is an elegant chapel lately built on ground belonging to the Foundling Hospital, and within the precincts of the parish of St. Pancras; whence it is properly one of the chapels-of-ease to that extensive and now very-populous parish. The rapid and extraordinary increase in the population of this parochial district, may be adduced as one of the singular features of modern London. All the houses and streets which are now the ornament of that part of the metropolis have been built within these fifteen years, but are not all inhabited; indeed, speculations have ruined many of the builders in this as in several other parts of this immense town.

Yet still they go on.—To the north of Tavistock-square, an area of about twenty acres is proposed to be surrounded with buildings; the centre to be occupied and dressed as nursery-grounds; the Paddington-road running between them. This is to be called Euston-square, of which the north side is nearly completed in a very elegant style; and it is said that directly northward, from the centre of this large area, a wide grand road is to lead to the Hampstead-road at Camden Town; the sides to be planted with double rows of trees, and the houses to be coupled or detached, allowing abundant space to each for respectable inhabitants.

Coming back to Bloomsbury, we find, in Hart-street, the church of St. George. It is one of the fifty churches appointed to be built by act of parliament within the bills of mortality. The name of St. George was given to it in honour of his late majesty; and it received the additional epithet of Bloomsbury, from its situation in the ancient village of Lomesbury, corruptly called Bloombury, to distinguish it from others of the same name. It is likewise farther distinguished by standing north and south. Mr. Walpole calls this building a matter-piece of absurdity. The portico on the south side is of the Corinthian order, and makes a very good figure in the street, but has no affinity with the church, which is plain and heavy, and might have corresponded with a Tuscan portico. The tower and steeple on the west side is a very extraordinary structure: on the top, standing on a round pedestal or altar, is a colossal statue of George I. supported by a square pyramid; at the corners of which, near the base, are a lion and unicorn, alternately, the first with his heels in the air; and between them are festoons: these animals, being very large, are injudiciously placed over very small columns, which appear hardly strong enough to support them. The under part of the tower is not less heavy than the church. This church was erected at the public expense, and consecrated in January 1731. A district, for its parish was, by authority of parliament, taken out of that of St. Giles; and the sum of three thousand pounds was given towards the support of its rector, to which one thousand two hundred and fifty pounds being added, by the inhabitants of St. Giles's parish, both sums were ordered to be laid out

in the purchase of lands, tenements, &c. in fee simple, as a perpetual fund for the maintenance of the rector and his successors; but the poor of this parish and that of St. Giles in the Fields are to be maintained by the joint assessment of both parishes, in the same manner as before their being divided. This church is a rectory, in the gift of the crown, but cannot be held *in commendam*; and all licenses to that effect are made void by the act of parliament for separating this parish from St. Giles's.

Coming down Southampton-street, from which, turning round, the perambulator has an excellent view, at a distance, of the duke of Bedford's statue, we follow Holborn, that noble street, which unfortunately has hardly any thing besides its length and its breadth to recommend it.—Between Bloomsbury-square and Red-lion-street, we find Red-lion-square, a small area, particularly inhabited by families of middling income and limbs of the law. Although the buildings are mostly uniform and neat, with a shrubbery surrounded with railing in the middle; although there is no lack of busy passengers pacing the sides of the square; yet we find, without knowing well why, that this place has an indelible melancholy look; and North-street, particularly, seems so silently dull, so quietly dismal, that the idea of becoming an inhabitant of it would be enough to create the most incurable vapours.

North of this is Queen-square; it is of an oblong form, and contains about four acres. It is built only on three sides, the north side having been formerly open, which not only rendered the square very airy and pleasant, but also admitted a beautiful landscape, terminated by the hills of Highgate and Hampstead. Of late years, however, this view has been intercepted by the houses in Guildford-street, which is built across the north end of the square. The houses on the east and west sides are very handsome; the area is laid out in grass-plats, shrubberies, and gravel-walks, and is inclosed with iron rails; and at the north end is a statue of her present majesty.

The origin of the parish of St. George, Queen-square, like that of many others round the metropolis, is to be attributed to the increase of buildings. Several gentlemen at the extremity of the parish of St. Andrew, Holborn, having proposed the erecting of a chapel for religious worship, six Streytham Masters, and fourteen others, were appointed trustees for the management of this affair. These gentlemen, in the year 1705, agreed with Mr. Tooley to give him three thousand five hundred pounds for erecting a chapel and two houses, on the south side of Queen-square, intending to reimburse themselves by the sale of the pews; and, this edifice being finished the next year, they settled annual stipends for the maintenance of a chaplain, an afternoon-preacher, who was also reader, and a clerk. But the commissioners for erecting the fifty new churches, resolving to make this one of the number, purchased it of the proprietors, caused a certain district to be appointed for its parish, and had it consecrated in the year 1723, when it was dedicated to St. George, in compliment to six Streytham Masters, who had been governor of Fort St. George, in the East Indies. This church is a very plain brick building, void of all elegance both within and without; it is however convenient and well lighted. The rectory, like that of St. Andrew's, is in the gift of the Montague family.

The improvements which have been made of late years in this northern district of the town are so considerable, that a man who has been absent since the commencement of the war in 1793, vainly looks out for fields, cricket-grounds, and nurseries, where however nothing but handsome streets intersecting each others at right angles can now be found.—Indeed Greenland-place, and the Bowling-green adjoining to it, which could not be reached from town but by crossing extended and grassy meadows, and where, a book in one hand and a glass of sparkling beer in the other, we have enjoyed many evening hours of rest and pleasure, are now surrounded by elegant houses and rows of edifices which would grace any metropolis in Europe.

From



From this curiously-metamorphosed place we come back to Brunswick-square, of modern creation, the ornaments of which consist, on three of the sides, in elegant mansions, with a delightful shrubbery in the middle. Here the highly-perfumed syringa, the sweet lilac, the sunac with red berries, the yellow groups of acacia-flowers, and the multicolor daisies studding the well-shaved plots of grass, exhibit all the luxuriance of a cultivated garden in the centre of the "busy haunts of men;" and on the east side the long walls and enclosure of the FOUNDLING HOSPITAL fill the mind with congenial ideas of humanity and benevolence.

An attempt was made in the reign of queen Anne, by several eminent merchants, to establish an hospital for the reception of such infants as the misfortunes or inhumanity of their parents should leave destitute of other support; and to bring them up in such a manner as to fit them for the most laborious offices and the lowest stations. With this view they opened a subscription, and solicited a charter, but without success, owing to the prejudices of some people, who conceived that such an undertaking would perhaps encourage vice in the parents, by making too easy a provision for their illegitimate children. But the design, though suspended, was not defeated; and several of its promoters left large benefactions for the use of such an hospital, as soon as it should be erected. Among the most zealous of its promoters was Mr. Thomas Coram, commander of a ship in the merchant-service, who was so earnest in the prosecution of the benevolent scheme, that he left the sea about the year 1722, and, after an unwearied exertion of seventeen years, accomplished it. Previous to presenting his petition to the king, he procured a recommendation of his design from a considerable number of noblemen and gentlemen, and a second from several of the female nobility, both of which he annexed to it; and these, with the plan itself, were so well received by his majesty, that he immediately granted his royal charter, dated October 17, 1739, for establishing the hospital.

The work now went on with spirit; books were opened, and large subscriptions being received, an act of parliament was obtained to confirm and enlarge the powers granted by his majesty to the governors and guardians of the hospital. A piece of ground was purchased in Lamb's-conduit-fields, of the earl of Salisbury, which his lordship not only sold at a very reasonable consideration, but promoted the charity by a noble contribution. The governors were so anxious for the commencement of this charity, that, during the building of the hospital, they hired a large house in Hatton Garden; nurses were provided, and it was resolved that sixty children should be admitted; but, as the funds increased, so a greater number were received in proportion. As soon as one wing of the hospital was finished, the committee ordered the children to be removed thither, and quitted the house in Hatton Garden. A chapel being much wanted, and several ladies of quality expressing their desire of contributing to it, a subscription was opened for that purpose, and a neat and elegant edifice was soon erected. Two years after, the governors being informed of the increase of benefactions to this charity, of the number of the children, and the expediency of keeping the boys separate from the girls, gave directions for building the other wing of the hospital; since which the whole design has been completed.

The Foundling Hospital is a very handsome building, and consists of two large wings directly opposite to each other, one of which is for the boys, and the other for the girls. They are built of brick, in a plain, but regular, substantial, and convenient manner, and with handsome piazzas. At the farthest end is the chapel, which is joined to the wings by an arch on each side, and is very elegant within. In the front is a large piece of ground, on each side whereof is a colonnade of great length, which also extends towards the gates, that are double, with a masonry pier between them, so that coaches may pass and repass at the same time. The large area between the gates and

the hospital is adorned with grass-plats, gravel-walks, and lamps erected upon handsome posts; besides which, there are two convenient gardens.

In erecting these buildings, particular care was taken to render them neat and substantial, without any costly decorations; but the first wing of the hospital was scarcely inhabited, when several eminent masters in painting, carving, and other of the polite arts, were pleased to contribute many elegant ornaments, which are preserved as monuments of the abilities and charitable benefactions of the respective artists. In the court-room are four capital pictures, taken from sacred history, the subjects of which are properly adapted to their situation. The first of these paintings was executed by Mr. Hayman, the subject of which is taken from Exod. ii. 8, 9. *The maid went and called the child's mother; and Pharaoh's daughter said unto her, Take this child away, and nurse it for me, and I will give thee thy wages.* The second piece was done by Mr. Hogarth, and the subject taken from the following words, viz. *And the child grew up, and she brought him to Pharaoh's daughter, and he became her son, and she called his name Moses.* The third painting represents the history of Ishmael, painted by Mr. Highmore, from Gen. xxii. 17. *And the angel of God called to Hagar out of heaven, and said to her, What aileth thee, Hagar? Fear not; for God hath heard the voice of the lad where he is.* The last piece was painted by Mr. Wills, and is taken from Luke xviii. 16. *Jesus said, Suffer little children to come unto me, and forbid them not, for of such is the kingdom of God.*—On each side of these paintings are small drawings in circular frames, of the most considerable hospitals in and about London, done by Mr. Hartley, Mr. Wilton, Mr. Wale, and Mr. Gainsborough. Over the chimney is a very curious bas-relief, executed and presented by Mr. Rysbrack, representing children employed in husbandry and navigation. The other ornaments in this room were given by several ingenious workmen, who had been employed in building the hospital, and were desirous of contributing to adorn it. In the other rooms of the hospital are portraits of several of the governors and benefactors, viz. his late majesty, by Mr. Shackelton; captain Coram, by Mr. Hogarth, &c. &c. In the dining-room is a large and beautiful sea-piece of the English Fleet in the Downs, by Mr. Monamy; and over the chimney in another room is Mr. Hogarth's original painting of the March to Finchley. The altar-piece in the chapel, which is most beautifully executed, is accounted one of Mr. West's best productions. It was painted for Macklin's Bible, and the subject is, *Except ye become as little children, &c.* The first organ was presented by Handel, and was rendered particularly useful, in the infancy of the institution, by that great musician performing on it at certain times for the benefit of the charity; but, this organ having become defective through time and use, a new one was put up in its stead.

The number of children received into this hospital, before the end of the year 1752, was 1040, of which 559 were at that time maintained by the charity, at an expense to which its income was by no means adequate. In 1756, therefore, the parliament voted the sum of 10,000. to the hospital, and large sums were afterwards granted. It was found, however, that the scheme of it was extended too far; numerous abuses crept in; the governors were finally obliged to contract their views; but, at present, from the income of their landed and funded property, and the collections of the chapel, sufficient is raised to maintain upwards of 400 children.

The ordinary age of reception is under two months. The previous good character and present necessity of the mother, and the desertion of the father, are enquired into; and also whether reception and secrecy will be attended with the consequence of the mother's being replaced in a course of virtue, and in a way of obtaining an honest livelihood. Where these concurrent circumstances can be ascertained on the testimony of credible persons, the unfortunate mother is requested to apply herself with her own  
petition;



petition; and is assured that both *recommendation and patronage will be unnecessary and useless*. The general committee sit every Wednesday morning at ten o'clock to receive petitions; upon the first hearing of which, the mother is examined, and an enquiry directed into the truth of the allegations; and the petition is decided upon at the next meeting. The age limited for children is twelve months, after which they cannot be received, unless they are the children of soldiers and sailors, the time for whose reception is extended to five years of age. If the mothers are in distress, the general committee have a discretion to make them some weekly allowance till the day of the child's mittance; exclusive of which, the governors have formed a fund for the occasional relief of those whose circumstances have compelled them to part with or pawn their clothes for the maintenance of their children, and other unavoidable expenses, and thereby have been prevented from getting into service or obtaining other means of livelihood. The children are received on the Saturday at noon preceding the public baptism, the circumstances of each case having been investigated during the preceding month; and proper nurses sent up by the inspectors in the country for the children to be admitted. The children are then numbered and registered, and their billets made up; the secretary writes a number on a slip of parchment, and affixes it to their clothes; these numbers follow each other in succession, and great care is taken that they remain fixed to the children while they remain at nurse: the secretary then makes up the billet, which contains the number, sex, and supposed age, the date of reception, and any particular writing or token brought with it, which is also marked with the child's number; the billet is marked on the outside with the number, date, and letter M or F to distinguish the sex. These billets, being the only means which can enable the governors to know the children, in case they should be enquired for, are kept with great secrecy and care, and are never opened but by order of the general committee.

No nurse has more than one wet-nurse child at one time; and, in case of the death of a child, the nurse is not to be entrusted with another, unless upon inquiry the case is very favourable to her. She is allowed 3s. per week; and, if the child is living at the end of the first year, she is entitled to a reward of 10s. The mortality is very small; the average of those who died under twelve months in ten years was only one in six, and for the last four or five years even less than that proportion. They continue with their nurses during four years, under the controul of their inspectors, and subject to frequent visits, without notice, by the general committee; and a written report of each child is read and preserved. They are then placed in the schools, and occasionally assist in the house-work: they are instructed in singing the Foundling hymns and anthems, and in their catechism, in reading, writing, and accounts, and in spinning of worsted yarn. The boys are fitted to be apprentices to London shopkeepers, without any apprentice-fee, and therefore writing and accounts are more particularly attended to, and found upon experience to be far more useful, than learning manufactures, which has been relinquished. The boys and girls are kept entirely separate.—The girls are divided into three classes, under the care of three different mistresses, by whom they are taught needle-work and reading, to assist in the house-work, kitchen, and laundry, &c. for this purpose needle-work is taken in and done for hire, in addition to all which this large family requires; the average produce of their work is 12l. each, from eleven to fourteen years of age; and 2l. 13s. from the age of seven to eleven. The boys are put out as apprentices at twelve or thirteen years of age, and the girls at fourteen. The applications for them exceed the number who are ready, notwithstanding several restrictions and precautions which the corporation adopt. No child is apprenticed to any other than a housekeeper, a very strict enquiry being made relative to

situation and character. No girl is apprenticed to an unmarried man, nor to a married man, unless the wife has seen the girl, and has expressed her concurrence in the application; nor, except in a few instances, are the girls apprenticed to any family that lets lodgings, nor unless there is an established servant engaged in the house. During their apprenticeship they are frequently visited by the matron, and the boys by the schoolmaster; and the general committee are always ready to interfere when necessary, their duty as guardians not being discharged until after the term of their apprenticeship at the age of twenty-one years.

The reports on this subject have always been very interesting, and redound greatly to the honour of the matron and the master, for the careful attention paid to the progress and welfare of the children; the publication of one of them in 1798, by sir T. Bernard, sufficiently shows the excellent method pursued; and by which it appeared, that, out of two hundred and fifty-two apprentices, one hundred and sixty-six were doing well and giving satisfaction; of the remaining eighty-six, fifteen had turned out ill, some from their own fault, and some from that of their masters. Of twenty-seven in distant situations, no complaint had been made; twenty-three apprenticed to their own relations; and twenty-one not free from blame, but requiring judicious treatment. The proportions of good servants in place, and good apprentices, far exceeds the number of the others; and there are many respectable persons at present in London married and settled in business, who have been thus educated and apprenticed by this charity.—The parents of the children are not informed of the place where they are apprenticed, without an order of committee, made after the master or mistress has been consulted. In case any of the girls are returned from any places where they may have been apprenticed, they are employed in the laundry or kitchen, or in other house-work, till otherwise disposed of, and are not permitted to intermix with the other girls. None of the children are ever suffered to go beyond the gates of the hospital.

Such are the principles of benevolence, and the excellent effects, of this most humane institution; the long establishment of which has been an invariable proof of the good sense which suggested the plan of it. When innocence, seduced, is led astray to the dark abodes of illicit pleasures, she seldom thinks of the dreadful consequences which may arise from her folly. When the guilt is committed; when left to herself by the ungenerous behaviour of the seducer, the future mother, in the vacant hours of abandonment, reflects upon her situation; if a distant idea of this kind establishment perchance alights, like a ray from heaven, upon her aching heart, then she feels comforted; and, determined to bear her misfortune on the wings of soothing hope, she shrinks from the unnatural idea of veiling her present shame by the commission of a much greater crime. Foundling Hospitals have been erected and endowed in other countries; in some no such establishment ever took place; and yet we cannot discover that the existence or absence of such a refuge for the spurious offspring of unauthorized love ever occasioned an increase or decrease in the daily commission of the sin of fornication, in large towns; and we therefore think, with the ever-to-be-praised founders of this hospital, that the encouragement (if there is any) given by these sort of houses to the loose passion of lust, does not bear proportion with the horrors which would result from the non-existence of such establishments.

This noble charity may be visited any Tuesday, Thursday, or Friday, for a small gratuity, on application to the porter at the gates. The kitchen, in particular, is an object worthy of inspection to all strangers: it is constructed on the plan of count Rumford, and is said to have caused a saving to the charity of twenty-five chaldrons of coals in the year.



To the eastward of the Foundling Hospital, a square is begun, of the same dimensions as Brunswick-square; to be called Mecklenburg-square. Northward of the hospital-garden, is the estate of Mr. Harrison, where a respectable neighbourhood is rapidly forming; and nearly adjoining, is a large field belonging to the Skinners' Company, for which extensive building-plans have been projected; but, through some extraordinary inadvertence, no agreement has been effected, to insure respectable accesses either by the south, east, or west, sides.

Opposite the Foundling Hospital is Lamb's-Conduit-street. We are told that Mr. William Lamb erected a conduit here in the year 1577, as a reservoir to supply another conduit on Snow-hill. Although we do not find, even with several maps of London before our eyes, how this conduit might have been carried over the vale of Oldbourne up to Snow-hill, yet we must yield to, supposed better, authorities, and leave the pretended fact as it is.—Of these conduits, we meet, in the course of our survey, with notices of many, within and without the metropolis; and indeed, we find that there was one called the Devil's Conduit, which stood on the west side of Queen's Square, somewhere about Southampton-row, and supplied Christ's Hospital with water. Yet we have not been able to procure any print, drawing, or written description, of these sorts of conduits. Had they been like the aqueducts of the Greeks and Romans, and those of Arceuil and Marli in France, we surely should find remains of them: but we verily believe, that at this moment no antiquarian can tell us, for a certainty, what these conduits were!

Gray's-Inn-lane, on the east of the Foundling Hospital, communicates from Holborn to the fine road which, as a continuation of the City Road, leads to Paddington. It has been lately much improved, by being paved to a greater extent towards the north, and by the erection of several rows of buildings which unite to exterior elegance all the internal advantages requisite for the habitation of genteel families. We remark particularly those which have been erected, within a few years, under the title of Verulam Buildings; but, unless we are told that they are particularly and purposely built for lawyers and men of learning who wish not to be disturbed by the bustle of a street, we cannot fancy the long and dead screen placed before them to be a very agreeable prospect for those who inhabit the ground-apartments.

We have mentioned above, p. 368, that the religious establishment of the *Sinner Saved*, the coal-heaver orator, was in this lane. The chapel makes no particular show; it retires gently and modestly a few feet from the row of houses on the east side of the street, and bears its title and date of existence on its plain and unaffected front. We understand that some Elihu (who did not catch the mantle of the prophet when falling from the fiery chariot, but who may have bought it at the famous auction of which all London has heard) is keeping up the firm, and that the spirit of the departed is still quickening among the living.

Higher up, to the north, we find the Welsh Charity-school.—The Society of Ancient Britons was originally established on the first of March, 1714, in honour of the birth-day of her royal highness Caroline, then princess of Wales, which happened to be coincident to the anniversary commemoration of the titular saint of the principality. About the year 1718, a few public-spirited gentlemen of Wales, stimulated by the same laudable zeal which gave birth to this noble institution, and observing that many poor children of their unfortunate countrymen, born in or near London, were not entitled to any parochial settlement, entered into a voluntary subscription for setting up and supporting a school in or near London, for instructing, clothing, and putting forth apprentices, poor children descended of Welsh parents, born in or near London, having no parochial settlement within ten miles of the Royal Exchange. The subscriptions at first being small, the society engaged a room near Hatton Garden, and took only

twelve poor children upon the establishment, until their charitable designs became better known, and the subscriptions increased. They afterwards increased the number to forty, until the year 1737, when a subscription was begun for erecting a school on Clerkenwell Green; this was completed by public generosity. The society, in the year 1768, on the recommendation of several ladies, enlarged their plan, and took six girls into the house, to be boarded, educated, and clothed. The patronage afforded by his royal highness the prince of Wales, the nobility, gentry, and public in general, induced the treasurer and trustees, in the year 1771, to attempt a further enlargement of their plan, and to undertake, in future, the education and *entire maintenance* of a certain number of boys and girls. As the school-house on Clerkenwell Green would not admit of enlargement sufficient for this purpose, the present building was begun in 1772, and secured to the use of the charity; and is sufficient to accommodate one hundred children. The school at present supports 75 boys and 25 girls; and from the secretary's account it appears, that 1043 boys and 162 girls had been entered upon the establishment; of the former 627 had been apprenticed with a fee, 164 had gone to sea, and 177 to service. Of the girls, 97 were sent to service, and 40 put out apprentices.

Gray's Inn, from which this lane received its name, occupies the site of the ancient manor-house of Portpool, one of the prebends to St. Paul's cathedral. See *INNS OF COURT*, vol. xi. p. 83.—The principal entrance is in Holborn, though the buildings are situated at some distance from the street. There is another entrance to it in Gray's-Inn-lane; part of the west side of which is occupied by the back of the buildings, and the wall that incloses the gardens. The inn consists of several well-built courts, particularly Holborn-court and Gray's-Inn-square; the latter of which was built in 1637. But the chief ornament of this inn is the spacious garden behind it, which consists of gravel-walks between lofty trees, grass-plats, agreeable slopes, and a long terrace, with a portico and seats at each end. It is open to the public in the summer season. There is, in the aspect of these gardens, when, on a summer evening, genteel companies repair thither to enjoy an undisturbed hour of conversation, something peculiarly pleasing, which reminds us of ancient times. The entrance into this place is by a handsome iron gate; and no improper persons are admitted; and indeed, we may bestow this general sprig of praise upon a certain class of our countrymen, that they seldom intrude where they suspect that they are not really welcome.

Opposite to Gray's-Inn-lane are the Bars of Holborn, the limits of the city-jurisdiction at this part.—A small mass of houses, with a passage on the south, might be taken out, and then the appearance of the street at the top of Holborn-hill, would be much improved. This little passage is called Middle Row, and communicates to Southampton Buildings behind Staple Inn, and leads to Chancery-lane. Several streets, intersecting each other most irregularly, form here a sort of labyrinth, the egresses of which are to Fetter-lane, Curstort-street, Castle-street, and Chancery-lane.

Opposite to Staple Inn is Furnival's Inn; and, crossing again, we come directly to Bernard's Inn. These inns of chancery have been fully described at p. 82, 84, of vol. xi. The chambers of these quiet retreats are not occupied by lawyers exclusively, but by many other persons of retired habits, chiefly single and independent gentlemen.—One of the oldest inhabitants of Bernard's Inn has been described in a late publication called "London Characters;" and, as the performance gives a general idea of the regular habits of a respectable member of society, and may serve to illustrate the customs and manners of some of our cotemporaries, we shall present it to our readers.

"J. M. is a native of Suffolk; but has been an inhabitant of London for these last thirty years. Liberally educated, literature and antiquarian pursuits are his hobby-horse; but too small an income has restrained the bent of his soul



nearly in all the circumstances of his life. However, perseverance and economy have conquered all. Retired, like a lonely anchorite, in the attic apartment of an inn of court, there, not unlike the bird of Minerva, who perches on the neighbouring gutter, and "moping to the moon complains," our friend silently and wisely enjoys what he calls (and who dares say he is not right?) a comfortable life. He is fond of old engravings and musty pictures; his room does not exhibit an inch of plaster that is not closely covered with such precious decorations. His tolerance has allowed him to be fond of popish relics; and pieces of copes and chalices, from the times of the heptarchy to this day, are respectfully hung around his bed-chamber. Old missals, and curious editions of scarce books, sleep on his shelves; and precious medals repose in his cabinets. Ancient stained glass chequers his window-frames with the seven-fold glories of the rainbow; and Mambrino's helmet chides its neighbour, the real bit of copper-ore, for not exposing more significantly the greenish treasures of its bosom. In fact, Mr. M's small apartment is truly a kind of microcosm, where time and place have lost their distances; where the productions of Oracheite and Mexico are contiguous to the English and French beautiful china; where the Etruscan vase displays its red and black allegories by the side of modern filagree.

"But how could any body gather so many and valuable curiosities, with no other help but a very small patrimony, which prudence bids him to preserve, and natural fearfulness forbids him to increase? For these last thirty years he has employed the same hair-dresser, who, out of respect (we suppose), never raised his price; the same laundress and her daughter have constantly attended him for the same wages, because, as they say, they are sure of their money, let it be ever so little; and the same eating-house has contributed to his subsistence. A constant customer for so long a period, is sure to be well-treated; and Mr. M. never found cause to change his board, though the landlord of the house he uses has been changed more than once. Sobriety with him is the order of the day; but a friend can enjoy, at his chambers, as comfortable a cup of tea as at any alderman's rose-wood table. Generally averse to crowds, he runs through the street; and, if he is ever pressed or jammed any where, it must be in some foreign chapel, where, though bred up a member of the established church, he often repairs to witness the Russian or Roman liturgies. As his days are peaceful and harmless, his nights are undisturbed and happy. His diet is regular, light, and wholesome; therefore he enjoys his health. But do not suppose that the overplus of his income is exclusively spent to satisfy his whims, and buy fodder for his hobby-horse. He feels as a man ought for the miseries of others; the fly shilling often drops from his hand into the worn-out hat of the blind and lame, and they bless him, as they would an angel, invisible and unknown.

"In a word, Mr. M's life, which, we are sorry to say, is now on the decline, has been like the nightly lamp, that keeps itself in darkness, whilst it illuminates others; and, for the many years we have observed him attentively, we never heard him complain of any body, nor any body of him. Mr. M. is a bachelor; therefore he never enjoyed the sweets of conjugal love, and the comforts of a father; no—nor the bitterness of jealousy, and the continual anxieties of a tender parent for his children. The journal of his daily conduct is as follows:—Mr. M. rises at half past seven in winter, and at half past five in summer; lights his fire himself, and dusts his curiosities; breakfasts exactly at nine; remains in his red damask morning-gown till ten or eleven; dresses, and goes to take a walk if the weather proves fine; returns home at one, studies till three, goes to Salisbury-court and dines, takes a second walk, or returns home if it rains; drinks tea at six precisely; writes or reads till nine; takes a glass of ale, with a crust of bread; and at half past nine retires to his bed, where he sleeps soundly till the next day brings the same routine over again." The reader will by this

time begin to think of "the diary of a single gentleman" mentioned in the Spectator.

The passage through Bernard's Inn into Fetter-lane encloses the buildings of an immense distillery which has been restored since it fell a prey to the infuriated mob in the year 1780, on account of the owner being a Roman catholic. The north access to Fetter-lane is as narrow as the south, and exhibits still one or two old houses with projecting stories.—Beyond Fetter-lane we find Bartlett's Buildings, a neat court well stored with neat houses; and a little farther on the same side of the street is Thavies' Inn, concerning which we can add nothing to what we have said at p. 82. of vol. xi.

Contiguous to this inn, and at the north-west angle of Shoe-lane, stands the parish-church of St. Andrew, Holborn. This church escaped the fire of London; notwithstanding which, it was found so ruinous, that it was entirely rebuilt in 1687, except the tower, which was not erected till 1704. The body of the church is a hundred and five feet long, sixty-three broad, and forty-three high, and the height of the tower is a hundred and ten feet. The body is well built, and lighted by two series of windows; and on the top of it runs a handsome balustrade. The tower rises a square, and consists only of two stages, crowned with battlements and pinnacles at the corners. The first stage, which is plain, has the dial; in the upper stage there is a very handsome window to each front; tall, arched, and decorated with Doric pilasters, which support a lofty arched pediment, decorated within by a shield. The cornice, that crowns the tower, is supported by scrolls; and the balustrade that rises above this has a very firm base. Each corner of the tower has an ornamental pinnacle, consisting of four large scrolls, which, meeting in a body, support a pine-apple; and from the crown of the fruit rises a vane. The inside is extremely neat, and well finished. Over the communion-table is a large painted window, the lower part of which represents the Messiah and his disciples at the Last Supper; and in a compartment above is represented his resurrection from the grave. The church stands at an advantageous distance from the street, from which it is separated by a wall, that incloses the church-yard, and the entrance to it is by large and elegant iron gates. This church is a rectory, the patronage of which was originally in the dean and canons of St. Paul's, who transferred it to the abbot and convent of Bermondsey, and they continued patrons of it till their convent was dissolved by Henry VIII. when that prince granted it to Thomas lord Wriothesley, afterwards earl of Southampton, from whom it descended by marriage to the late duke of Montague, in whose family the patronage still remains. Wriothesley was lord chancellor in the latter part of the life of Henry VIII. He was a fiery zealot, who, not content with seeing the amiable and innocent Anne Askew put to the torture, for no other crime than difference of faith, flung off his gown, degraded the chancellor into the *bourreau*, and with his own hands gave force to the rack. He was created earl of Southampton just before the coronation of Edward VI. but, obstinately adhering to the old religion, he was dismissed from his post, and confined to Southampton-house, where he died in 1550; and was buried in this church. The well-known party-tool Dr. Sacheverel was rector of this church. He had the chance of meeting in his parish a person as turbulent as himself, the noted Mr. Whiston: that singular character took it into his head to disturb the doctor while he was in his pulpit venting some doctrine contrary to the opinion of that heterodox man. The doctor in great wrath descended from on high, and fairly turned "wicked Will. Whiston" out of the church.

Nearly opposite St. Andrew's church is Ely Place, communicating by a narrow passage with Harton Garden, which is one of the handomest streets in London, and was built upon the site of the town-house and gardens of the Hartons, founded by sir Christopher Hatton, lord-keeper in the reign of queen Elizabeth. He first attracted the



royal notice by his fine person and fine dancing; but his intellectual accomplishments were far from superficial. The place he built his house upon was the orchard and garden belonging to Ely-house. Here sir Christopher died in 1591. By his interest with the queen he had extorted the ground from the bishop, Richard Cox, who for a long time resisted the sacrilege. Her letter to the poor bishop was dictated in terms as insolent as indecent. "Proud Prelate! You know what you was before I made you what you are now. If you do not immediately comply with my request, by G—d I will unfrock you. ELIZABETH."—This palace was long before distinguished by the death of a much greater man; for, at this house of the bishop of Ely, say historians, John duke of Lancaster, otherwise John of Gaunt, breathed his last, in 1399, after (according to Shakespeare) giving his dying fruitless admonition to his dissipated nephew Richard II. It was possibly lent to him, during the long possession that bishop Fordham had of the see, after the duke's own palace, the Savoy, was burnt by the insurgents.

Adjacent stood, in my memory, (says Pennant,) Ely House, the residence of the bishops of Ely. John de Kirkby, who died bishop of Ely in 1290, laid the foundation of this palace, by bequeathing several messuages in this place; others were purchased by his successor William de Luda: at length the whole, consisting of twenty, some say of forty, acres, was inclosed within a wall. Holinshed has recorded the excellency of the strawberries cultivated in the garden by bishop Morton: he informs us that Richard duke of Gloucester (afterwards Richard III.) at the council held in the Tower on the morning he put Hastings to death, requested a dish of them from the bishop. Grose has given two representations of the buildings and chapel. Here was a most venerable hall, seventy-four feet long; lighted with six gothic windows; and the furniture suited the hospitality of the times. This room the serjants at law frequently borrowed to hold their feasts in, on account of its size. In the year 1531, eleven gentlemen, who had just been honoured with the coif, gave a grand feast here five days successively. On the first, the king and his queen, Catharine of Arragon, graced them with their presence. For quantity of provisions it resembled a coronation-feast: the minutiae are not given; but the following particulars (from Stow) will suffice to show its greatness, as well as the wonderful scarcity of money in those days, evinced by the smallness of the prices compared those of the present day:

Brought to the slaughter-house 24 beeves, each	£1	6	8
One carcase of an ox from the shambles	-	1	4
One hundred fat muttons, each	-	0	2
Fifty-one great veales, at	-	0	4
Thirty-four porkes, at	-	0	3
Ninety-one pigs, at	-	0	0
Capons of Greece, ten dozens, at apiece	-	0	1
Capons of Kent, nine dozen and six, at	-	0	1
Cocks of grose, seven dozen and nine, at	-	0	0
Cocks course xiiii dozen at 8d. and 3d. apiece.	-	-	-
Pullets, the best 2 <sup>d</sup> . each. Other pullets	-	0	0
Pigeons 37 dozen, each dozen	-	0	0
Swans xiiii dozen.	-	-	-
Larkes 340 dozen, each dozen	-	0	0

The chapel (which was dedicated to St. Etheldreda, foundress of the monastery at Ely) has at the east end a very handsome gothic window, which looks into the court called Ely Place. Beneath is a crypt of the length of the chapel. The cloisters formed a square on the south side. The several buildings belonging to this palace falling into ruin, it was thought proper to enable, by act of parliament, in 1772, the bishop to alienate the whole. It was accordingly sold to the crown, for the sum of six thousand five hundred pounds, together with an annuity of two hundred pounds a-year, to be paid to the bishop and his successors for ever. Out of the first five thousand, six hundred was applied towards the purchase of Albermarle-house, in Dover-street, with other messuages and

gardens. The remainder, together with three thousand pounds paid as dilapidations by the executors of bishop Mawson, was applied towards building a handsome house in Dover-street, which was named Ely-house, and is settled on the bishops of Ely for ever.

At the eastern extremity of Holborn is Snow-hill, (Stow writes it *Snore-hill*;) an irregular and formerly very-inconvenient avenue into the city from the north western parts of the metropolis; but the erection of a new street, in a direct line from the bottom of the hill to the end of the Old Bailey, has removed the inconvenience, and added greatly to the beauty of this part of the city. It is named Skinner-street, in honour of the late alderman Skinner, an active member of the committee for improving the entrances into the city at Temple-bar and Snow-hill.—We are of opinion, that, if a bridge had been erected between the *croupe* of Snow-hill and that of Holborn, leaving on each side a passage for foot-passengers, it would have made a grander appearance, and been more commodious. The market might have been removed under the arches of this bridge, and thus have been sheltered from the inclemency of the weather. A large centre-arch might have opened into a prolongation of the street leading to Clerkenwell Green, opposite to Hicks's Hall. However, it has in its present state a fine appearance; and the perambulator cannot help stopping a few minutes on the brow of Holborn to give a circumspective glance to the objects which surround him.

Having once more arrived nearly at the point whence we set out at p. 51. we here take our leave; and, though we have drawn this article to an unprecedented length, we are sensible how much it still wants to make it complete; yet we hope it will not suffer by a comparison with others. We have, as carefully as it was in our power, perambulated the whole of this wonderful and extensive metropolis, sowing now and then our paths with the flowers of description, and reaping here and there the fruit of reflection and observation; endeavouring, at all times, to conform to the principle of the poet, *utile dulci*, mingling constantly pleasure and amusement with real utility. We conclude by referring our readers to the Plan of Survey which we have given upon Plate V. but we ought particularly to warn them not to look, in this sort of synopsis, for correctness and accuracy of distances, since our intention has been merely to show the tracks we have perused, and to bring under the eye, through the attraction of several focusses of light, some of the most striking objects described in this article. The Arabic characters mark the pages of the survey, and the Roman letters the plates; in order that, at first sight, any one may find the spot, where either the pen or the graver seems to have dwelt with well-grounded partiality or pardonable complacency.

#### GOVERNMENT AND POLICE OF THE CITY OF LONDON.

**CIVIL GOVERNMENT.**—No authentic documents are in existence to show what was the nature of the government of London during the time it was under the dominion of the Romans and Saxons; and as, when it was brought under the Danish yoke, they made no other use of it but as a place of security to fly to, in case of necessity, for shelter and defence; there is, therefore, no probability that a regular government existed during that period. At length, in 886, Alfred, having dislodged these freebooters, rebuilt the city in a more magnificent manner than it had formerly been, and committed the government of it to Ethelred duke of Mercia. From this time to the reign of Edward the Confessor, no mention is made of the names or functions of the municipal officers, though it is evident that London had a government and privileges peculiar to itself, before the reign of the last-named king, from some fragments of a charter granted by him, and addressed to the *portgrave*, whereby all the ancient customs and usages were confirmed, and others were added. This title of portgrave, or portreve, in its more confined sense, belonged to an officer appointed by the king, whose duty it was to collect the public imposts of a commer-



cial port; but from this charter, and that of William the Conqueror, the portreve of London appears to have been also at the head of its civil government. Of the change of the name of this high officer from portreve to *bailiff*, and from *bailiff* to *mayor*, we have spoken at p. 61.

In the year 1213, the citizens of London obtained the privilege of choosing their own mayor, but with this condition, that he should be presented annually to the king, or, in his absence, to his justice, to be sworn into office. King Edward III. a few years after his second charter, by which Southwark was granted to the citizens, added these privileges—that a gold or silver mace should be carried before the chief magistrate, and that the title of *lord* should be prefixed to that of mayor.

In these remote times, we understand that the elections for city-officers were made tumultuously, by all the citizens, without distinction; but, this giving rise to great disturbances, the magistrates were afterwards chosen by a select number, sometimes more, and sometimes fewer, out of each ward; and this select number was called the *commonalty*. This mode of election by delegates continued from the reign of Edward I. or perhaps earlier, to that of Edward IV. in whose reign (by act of common council, anno 1471) the elections were made by the liverymen of the respective companies; which method has continued ever since, and is established by act of parliament, 11 Geo. I. c. 18. By virtue of this authority the livery assemble annually, on Michaelmas day, at Guildhall for that purpose.

Soon after the election, the new lord-mayor, accompanied by the recorder and several of the aldermen, is presented to the lord-chancellor, as his majesty's representative, for his approbation, without which the person elected has no legal authority to execute the office; but, this being obtained, he is, on the 8th of November, sworn into the office of lord-mayor at Guildhall, and, the next day, before the barons of the exchequer at Westminster. On the morning of the 9th of November, being the day on which the lord-mayor elect enters upon his office, the aldermen and sheriffs repair to his residence, from whence they attend him to Guildhall, in a procession formed by coaches, which, about noon, proceed to Blackfriars, where the lord-mayor, aldermen, recorder, and sheriffs, go on-board the city-berge, (see p. 64.) attended by several corporations of the citizens, in their formalities, and stately barges, and thence proceed to Westminster, forming a grand and magnificent appearance. The ceremony being over at Westminster, the procession returns by water to Blackfriars-bridge, whence the livery of many of the city-companies, preceded by colours and bands of music, march to their halls to dinner. When the lord-mayor lands at Blackfriars, he is received by the artillery-company, a military body composed principally of young citizens, who take the lead of the procession, and are followed by the company to which his lordship belongs; after these come some others of the city companies, among whom, that of the Armourers frequently attends, preceded by a person on horseback dressed in polished armour. Next march the lord-mayor's officers and servants, followed by his lordship in the city state-coach; and after him come the aldermen, recorder, sheriffs, chamberlain, common-serjeant, town-clerk, &c. in their several carriages and splendid equipages; and in this manner they proceed to Guildhall, where an elegant entertainment is provided.

On all public occasions the lord-mayor is clothed, according to the season, either in scarlet or purple robes, richly furred, with a velvet hood, and golden chain, or collar of S.S. with a rich jewel appendant. Many conjectures and antiquarian disquisitions have been made upon the signification of the S.S. which compose the collar of the lord-mayor, as well as that of the heralds and serjeants at arms: some take them as the first letter of *Scutifer*, shield-bearer; esquire, *ecuyer*; others as the initials of *Senus Sulpicius*, &c. After long researches of our own on the subject, and nearly bewildered by the number of opinions, we simply return to our original surmise, that the S.S. are nothing more than an ornament without

special meaning, and merely chosen on account of their shape, which being bent contrary ways, forms naturally, when united, the links of a chain. See the article *HERALDRY*, vol. ix. p. 450.—When the lord-mayor, goes abroad in his state-coach, the mace-bearer sits upon a stool in the middle, facing one of the windows, and the sword-bearer upon another stool, opposite the other; when on foot, his train is supported by a page, and the mace and sword are carried before him. The first lord-mayor who had six horses to his coach was Humphrey Parsons, anno 1730.

The principal officers belonging to the lord-mayor, for the support of his dignity, are, the sword-bearer, the common hunt, the common crier, and the water-bailiff; who have all good salaries or perquisites, with each the title of Esquire. He has also three serjeant carvers, three serjeants of the chamber, a serjeant of the channel, two yeomen of the chamber, four yeomen of the water-side, a yeoman of the channel, an under water-bailiff, six young men waiters, three meal-weighers, two yeomen of the wood-wharf, an officer called a foreign taker, and the city marshals. There are, besides these, seven gentlemen's men; as, the sword-bearer's man, the common hunt's two men, the common crier's man, and the carver's three men. Nine of the foregoing officers have liveries of the lord-mayor, viz. the sword-bearer and his man, the three carvers, and the four yeomen of the water-side. All the rest have liveries from the chamber of London.

Although the office of lord-mayor is elective, it may be said to be, in some measure, perpetual; for his power does not cease on the death of the king. When this circumstance happens, the lord-mayor is the principal officer in the kingdom, and takes his place accordingly in the privy-council, until the new king is proclaimed; in proof of which, when James I. was invited to come and take possession of the throne of England, Robert Lee, the then lord-mayor, signed the invitation before all the great officers of state and the nobility. His power is very considerable; for he is not only the king's representative in the civil government of the city, but also first commissioner of the lieutenantancy, perpetual coroner, and escheator, within the city and liberties of London, and the borough of Southwark, chief justice of oyer and terminer and gaol-delivery of Newgate, judge of the court of wardmote at the election of an alderman, conservator of the rivers Thames and Medway, perpetual commissioner in all affairs relating to the river Lea, and chief butler of the kingdom at all coronations. He sits every morning at the mansion-house, to determine differences among the citizens, and to do the other business incident to his office of chief magistrate. The person of the lord-mayor is inviolable, and it is a high crime to assault or resist him. Thus, in the year 1339, in the mayoralty of Andrew Aubrey, he, with some of his servants, being assaulted in a popular tumult, headed by two persons of the names of Haunsart and Brewere, these two ringleaders were apprehended and tried for that offence at Guildhall, and, being convicted, were immediately beheaded in Cheapside.

The title of dignity, Alderman, is of Saxon original, and of the greatest honour, answering to that of earl; though now it is no-where to be found but in chartered societies. And from hence we may account for the reason why the aldermen and commonalty of London were called *barons* after the conquest. These magistrates are properly the subordinate governors of their respective wards, under the lord-mayor's jurisdiction; and they originally held their aldermanries either by inheritance or purchase; at which time the aldermanries, or wards, changed their names as often as their governors or aldermen. The oppressions, to which the citizens were subject from such a government, put them upon means to abolish the perpetuity of that office; and they brought it to an annual election. But, that manner of election being attended with many inconveniences, and becoming a continual bone of contention amongst the citizens, the parliament, in the year 1394, enacted, "That the aldermen of London



Shall continue in their several offices during life, or good behaviour:” and so it still continues, though the manner of electing has several times varied. At present it is regulated by an act of parliament, passed in the year 1725; and the person so elected is to be returned by the lord-mayor (or other returning officer in his stead, duly qualified to hold a court of wardmote) to the court of lord-mayor and aldermen, by whom the person so returned must be admitted and sworn into the office of alderman, before he can act. If the person chosen refuses to serve the office of alderman, he is subject to a fine of five hundred pounds. See p. 97, 243.

Their high officers constitute a second part of the city legislature, when assembled in a corporate capacity, and exercise an executive power in their respective wards. All the aldermen keep their wardmote for choosing ward-officers, and settling the business of the ward, for redressing grievances, &c. In the management of these affairs, every alderman has his deputy, who is by him appointed out of the common-council of his ward; and, in some of the wards that are very large, the alderman has two deputies. The aldermen who have passed the chair are justices of the quorum, and all the other aldermen are justices of the peace.

The division of the city into wards, under the government of an alderman to each, is as old as the year 1285. See p. 65. They were at that time twenty-four in number; but, by the dividing of Farringdon-ward into two, and the addition of Bridge-ward Without, in the borough of Southwark, they are now twenty-six; of which the following are the names and boundaries at the present time.

1. *Aldersgate-ward* takes its name from a city-gate which stood in the neighbourhood. It is bounded on the east by Cripplegate-ward; on the west, by Farringdon-ward Within and Without; and on the south, by Farringdon-ward Within. It is very large, and is divided into Aldersgate Within and Aldersgate Without. Each of these divisions consists of four precincts, under one alderman, eight common-councilmen, of whom two are the alderman's deputies, eight constables, fourteen inquest-men, eight scavengers, and a beadle; exclusive of the officers belonging to the liberty of St. Martin's-le-Grand, which contains 168 houses.

2. *Aldgate-ward* takes its name also from the ancient gate. The ward of Aldgate is bounded on the east by the city-wall, which divides it from Portoken-ward; on the north, by Bishopsgate-ward; on the west, by Lime-street and Langbourn wards; and on the south, by Tower-street-ward. It is governed by an alderman, six common-councilmen, six constables, twenty inquest-men, seven scavengers, and a beadle; besides the officers belonging to St. James's, Duke's Place. It is divided into seven precincts.

3. *Bassishaw or Basinghall-ward*, is bounded on the east and south by Coleman-street-ward, on the north by part of Cripplegate, and on the west by part of the wards of Cheap and Cripplegate. On the south, it begins at Blackwell-hall; and runs northward to that part of London-wall which was pulled down some time ago to make way for new buildings in Fore-street; and spreads eighty-eight feet east, and fifty-four feet west, against the place where that wall stood. This is a very small ward, and consists only of two precincts: the upper precinct contains no more than 66, and the lower only 76, houses. It is governed by an alderman, four common-councilmen, of whom one is the alderman's deputy, three constables, seventeen inquest-men, three scavengers, and a beadle. It has its name from Basinghall, the mansion-house of the family of *Basings*, which was the principal house in it, and stood in the place of Blackwell-hall. See p. 420.

4. *Billinggate-ward* is bounded on the east by Tower-street ward; on the north, by Langbourn-ward; on the west, by the ward of Bridge Within; and on the south, by the river Thames. It is divided into twelve precincts; and is governed by an alderman, ten common-councilmen, one of whom is the alderman's deputy, eleven constables,

fourteen inquest-men, six scavengers, and a beadle. The situation of Billinggate, on the river, gives it great advantages with respect to trade and merchandise; so that it is well inhabited, and is in a continual hurry of business at the several wharfs or quays.

5. *Bishopsgate-ward* is bounded on the east by Aldgate-ward, Portoken-ward, and part of the Tower-liberty, or Norton Falgate; on the west, by Broad-street ward and Moorfields; and on the south, by Langbourn-ward. It is very large, and divided into Bishopsgate Within and Bishopsgate Without. The first contains all that part of the ward within the city-wall and gate, and is divided into five precincts; the second lies without the wall, and is divided into four precincts. Bishopsgate Without extends to Shoreditch. This ward is governed by an alderman, two deputies, one within and the other without, twelve common-councilmen, seven constables, thirteen inquest-men, nine scavengers, and two beadles. It took its name from the gate, which was pulled down to make that part of the city more airy and commodious. See p. 104.

6. *Bread-street-ward* is encompassed on the north and north-west by the ward of Farringdon Within; on the east, by Cordwainers-ward; on the south, by Queenhithe-ward; and on the west, by Castle-Baynard-ward. It is divided into thirteen precincts; and is governed by an alderman, twelve common-councilmen, of whom one is the alderman's deputy, thirteen constables, thirteen inquest-men, thirteen scavengers, and a beadle; and yet contains no more than 331 houses. It takes its name from the ancient bread-market, which was kept in the place now called Bread-street; the bakers being obliged to sell their bread only in the open market, and not in shops.

7. *Bridge-ward Within* is bounded on the south by the river Thames and Southwark; on the north, by Langbourn and Bishopsgate wards; on the east, by Billinggate; and on the west, by Candlewick and Dowgate wards. It is divided into fourteen precincts, three of which were on London-bridge; and is governed by an alderman, fifteen common-councilmen, fourteen constables, fifteen inquest-men, fourteen scavengers, and a beadle. It takes its name from its connexion with London-bridge.

8. *Broad-street-ward* is bounded on the north and east by Bishopsgate-ward; on the south, by Cornhill and Wallbrook wards; and on the west by Coleman-street-ward. It is divided into ten precincts; and governed by an alderman, ten common-councilmen, ten constables, thirteen inquest-men, eight scavengers, and a beadle. It has its name from that part of it now distinguished by the name of Old Broad-street; and which, before the fire of 1666, was accounted one of the broadest streets in London.

9. *Candlewick-ward, Candlewick-street, or Candlewright-street-ward* as it is called in some ancient records, is bounded on the east by Bridge-ward; on the south, by Dowgate and part of Bridge-ward; on the west, by Dowgate and Wallbrook; and on the north, by Langbourn-ward. It is but a small ward, consisting of about 236 houses; yet is divided into seven precincts. It is governed by an alderman, eight common-council men, seven constables, thirteen inquest-men, seven scavengers, and a beadle. It has its name from a street, formerly inhabited chiefly by candle-wrights or candle-makers, both in tallow and wax. That street, however, or at least its name, *Candlewick*, is lost since the great conflagration, for which the name *Canon-street* is substituted, the candle-wrights being at that time burnt out, and dispersed through the city.

10. *Castle-Baynard-ward* is bounded by Queenhithe and Bread-street wards on the east; on the south, by the Thames; and on the west and north, by the ward of Farringdon Within. It is divided into ten precincts, under the government of an alderman, ten common-councilmen, nine constables, fourteen inquest-men, seven scavengers, and a beadle.

11. *Cheap-ward* is bounded on the east by Broad-street and Wallbrook wards; on the north, by Coleman-street, Bassishaw, and Cripplegate; and on the south, by Cord-



wainers-ward. It is divided into nine precincts; and is governed by an alderman, twelve common-councilmen, eleven constables, thirteen inquest-men, nine scavengers and a beadle. It has its name from the Saxon word *chepe*, which signifies a market, kept in this division of the city, now called *Cheapside*; but then known by the name of *Westcheap*, to distinguish it from the market then also kept in Eastcheap, between Canon or Candlewick street and Tower-street.

12. *Coleman-street-ward* is bounded on the east by Bishopsgate, Broad-street, and Cheap, wards; on the north, by Cripplegate-ward, Middle Moorfields, and Bishopsgate; on the south, by Cheap-ward; and on the west, by Bassishaw-ward. It is divided into six precincts; and is governed by an alderman, six common-councilmen, one of whom is the alderman's deputy, six constables, thirteen inquest-men, six scavengers, and a beadle.

13. *Cordwainers-ward* is bounded on the east by Wallbrook, on the south by Vintry-ward, on the west by Bread-street, and on the north by Cheap-ward. It is divided into eight precincts; and is governed by an alderman, eight common-councilmen, eight constables, fourteen inquest-men, eight scavengers, and a beadle. Its proper name is *Cordwainers-street-ward*; which it has from Cordwainers-street, now Bow-lane, formerly occupied chiefly by shoemakers and others that dealt or worked in leather.

14. *Cornhill-ward* is but of small extent. It is bounded on the east by Bishopsgate, on the north by Broad-street, on the west by Cheap-ward, and on the south by Langbourn-ward. It is divided into four precincts, which are governed by one alderman, six common council men, four constables, sixteen inquest-men, four scavengers, and a beadle. It takes its name from the principal street in it, known from the earliest ages by the name of *Cornhill*, because the corn-market was kept there.

15. *Cripplegate-ward* is bounded on the east by Moorfields, Coleman-street-ward, Bassishaw-ward, and Cheap-ward; on the north, by the parish of St. Luke's, Old-street; on the west, by Aldersgate-ward; and on the south, by Cheap-ward. It is divided into thirteen precincts, nine within and four without the wall; and is governed by an alderman, twelve common-councilmen, of whom two are the alderman's deputies, thirteen constables, thirty-four inquest-men, sixteen scavengers, and three beadles. It takes its name from Cripplegate, which stood on the north-west part of the city-wall. See p. 105.

16. *Dowgate-ward* is bounded on the east by Candlewick and Bridge wards, on the north by Wallbrook-ward, on the west by Vintry-ward, and on the south by the Thames. It is divided into eight precincts, under the government of an alderman, eight common-councilmen, of whom one is the alderman's deputy, eight constables, fifteen inquest-men, five scavengers, and a beadle. It has its name from the ancient watergate, called *Dowgate*, which was made in the original wall that ran along the north side of the Thames, for the security of the city against all attempts to invade it by water.

17. *Farringdon-ward Within* is bounded on the east by Cheap-ward and Baynard-castle-ward; on the north, by Aldersgate and Cripplegate wards, and the liberty of St. Martin's le Grand; on the west by Farringdon Without; and on the south, by Baynard-castle-ward, and the river Thames. It is divided into eighteen precincts; and governed by one alderman, seventeen common-councilmen, nineteen constables, seventeen inquest-men, nineteen scavengers, and two beadles. It takes its name from William Farringdon, citizen and goldsmith of London, who, in 1279, purchased all the aldermanry with the appurtenances, within the city of London and suburbs of the same, between Ludgate and Newgate, and also without these gates.

18. *Farringdon-ward Without* is bounded on the east by Farringdon Within, the precinct of the late priory of St. Bartholomew near Smithfield, and the ward of Aldersgate; on the north, by the Charter-house, the parish of St. John's Clerkenwell, and part of St. Andrew's parish without the freedom; on the west, by High Holborn and St. Clement's

parish in the Strand; and on the south by the river Thames. It is governed by one alderman, sixteen common-councilmen, of whom two are the alderman's deputies, twenty-three constables, forty-eight inquest-men, twenty-four scavengers, and four beadles. It takes its name from the same goldsmith who gave name to Farringdon Within.

19. *Langbourn-ward* is bounded on the east by Aldgate-ward; on the north, by part of the same, and Lime-street-ward; on the south, by Tower-street, Billingsgate, Bridge, and Candlewick, wards; and on the west by Wallbrook. It is divided into twelve precincts. It had its name from a rivulet or long bourn of fresh water, which anciently flowed from a spring near Magpye-alley, adjoining to St. Catharine Coleman's church.

20. *Lime-street-ward* is bounded on the east and north by Aldgate-ward, on the west by Bishopsgate, and on the south by Langbourn, wards. It is divided into four precincts; and governed by an alderman, four common-councilmen, four constables, thirteen inquest-men, four scavengers, and a beadle. It is very small; and has its name from some lime-kilns that were formerly built in or near Lime-street.

21. *Portoken-ward* is bounded on the east by the parishes of Spitalfields, Stepney, and St. George's in the East; on the north, by Bishopsgate-ward, and on the west by Aldgate-ward. It is divided into five precincts; and is governed by an alderman, five common-councilmen, five constables, nineteen inquest-men, five scavengers, and a beadle. See p. 438.

22. *Queenhithe-ward* is bound on the east by Dowgate, on the north by Bread-street and Cordwainers wards, on the south by the Thames, and on the west by Castle-Baynard-ward. It is divided into nine precincts; and is governed by one alderman, six common-councilmen, and nine constables. It has its name from the *hithe*, or harbour for large boats, barges, and lighters; for which, and even for ships, it was the anchoring-place, and the quay for loading and unloading vessels almost of any burden used in ancient times. It has the name of *queen*, because the queens of England usually possessed the tolls and customs of vessels that unloaded goods at this hithe, which were very considerable.

23. *Tower-ward, or Tower-street-ward*, is bounded on the south by the river Thames, on the east by Tower-hill and Aldgate-ward, on the north by Langbourn-ward, and on the west by Billingsgate-ward. It is governed by one alderman, twelve common-councilmen, twelve constables, thirteen inquest-men, twelve scavengers, and one beadle. It takes its name from *Tower-street*, so called because it leads out of the city in a direct line to the principal entrance of the Tower of London.

24. *Vintry-ward* is bounded on the east by Dowgate, on the south by the Thames, on the west by Queenhithe-ward, and on the north by Cordwainers-ward. It is a small ward, containing only 418 houses; but is divided into nine precincts, and governed by an alderman, nine common-councilmen, nine constables, thirteen inquest-men, three scavengers, and a beadle. It takes its name from the vintners or wine-merchants of Bourdeaux, who formerly dwelt in this part of the city, being obliged to land their wines on this spot, and to sell them in forty days, till the 23th of Edward I.

25. *Wallbrook-ward* is bounded on the east by Langbourn, on the south by Dowgate, wards; on the west by Cordwainers-ward, and on the north by Cheap-ward. It is small, containing only 306 houses; but is divided into seven precincts, and governed by an alderman, eight common-councilmen, seven constables, thirteen inquest-men, six scavengers, and a beadle. It has its name from the rivulet *Wallbrook*, that ran down the street of this name into the river Thames near Dowgate; but in process of time it was so lost, by covering it with bridges, and buildings upon those bridges, that its channel became a common sewer. See p. 426.

26. The ward of *Bridge Without* includes the borough of Southwark, and the parishes of Rotherhithe, Newington,



and Lambeth. It has its name from London-bridge, with the addition of the word *without*, because the bridge must be passed in order to come at it.

The office of *sheriff*, or governor of the shire, or county, is an office of great antiquity, trust, and authority. The lord-mayor and citizens of London have the sheriffalty of London and Middlesex, in fee, by charter; and the two sheriffs are by them annually elected. If one of the sheriffs dies, the other cannot act till a new one is chosen; for there must be two sheriffs for London, which is a city and a county, though they make but one sheriff for the county of Middlesex. Any citizen may be chosen alderman before he has served the office of sheriff; but he must discharge that office before he can be lord-mayor. The sheriffs are chosen on Midsummer-day, and enter into the office on Michaelmas-day. If a person chosen sheriff refuses to serve, he pays a fine of four hundred pounds to the city, and 13l. 16s. 8d. to the ministers of the city-prisons, unless he swears himself not worth fifteen thousand pounds; and, if he serves, he is obliged to give bond to the corporation. Their business, in general, is to collect the public revenues within their jurisdictions; to gather into the exchequer all fines belonging to the crown; to serve the king's writs of process; to attend the judges, and execute their orders; to impanel juries, and to take care that all condemned criminals are duly punished and executed. In particular, they are to discharge the orders of the court of common-council, when they have resolved to petition parliament, or to address his majesty. They have also a power to make arrests, and serve executions, on the river Thames.

The election of city-officers, in *common-halls*, as has been already mentioned, was regulated by an act of parliament passed in the year 1725; in conformity with which, it is now the custom for the lord-mayor, attended by the aldermen and sheriffs, to appear on the hustings; when, proclamation being made by the common crier, for the liverymen to draw near and give attention, according to their summons, and for all others to depart the hall on pain of imprisonment, the recorder, or common-ferjeant, declares to the livery the purport of their meeting; after which the lord-mayor and aldermen retire, leaving the intermediate proceedings of election to the sheriffs only. The common-ferjeant then proposing the candidates, the sheriffs form a judgment in whose favour the majority of hands appear. If a poll is demanded, it is taken by clerks under their appointment: if a scrutiny is demanded, it is referred to their judgment; and, after all, it is they who make a declaration of the majority to the lord mayor and aldermen.

In the election of a lord-mayor, all the aldermen under the chair, who have served the office of sheriff, are proposed in rotation, two of which are to be returned by the common-hall to the court of aldermen; and the majority of that court determine on which of the two the election is fallen. It has been the usual custom of the liverymen to nominate the two senior aldermen under the chair; and the court of aldermen, upon the like example, have usually elected the senior of those two into the office. Each of them, however, has a right to deviate from this usual method; and, in cases where a particular dislike is taken to any of the aldermen, especially when the city is divided into parties on political disputes, the order of rotation is seldom regarded. In like manner, upon the election of sheriffs, all the aldermen who have not served that office are first put up in their order of seniority; notwithstanding which, the livery have the privilege of choosing whom they think proper, either out of that court, or of those persons, who, having been drunk to by a lord-mayor as proper to be chosen to that office, are also put in nomination on Midsummer-day. After the sheriffs are elected, on Midsummer-day, the livery choose the chamberlain of the city, and other officers, such as the bridge-masters, the auditors of the city and bridge-house accounts, and the ale-conners.

The chamberlain is an officer of great trust, and, though

elective annually, is never displaced, unless for some great crime. He is the city-treasurer; he receives all the money belonging to the corporation, for which he annually accounts to the proper auditors; and in his custody are all the bonds and securities taken by the city, and the counterparts of the city-leases; for which reason he gives great security for the fidelity of his conduct.

The recorder, who is a counsellor experienced in the law, is chosen by the lord-mayor and aldermen for their instruction and assistance in matters of justice and proceedings according to law; and continues in his office during life. He takes place in all courts, and in that of the common-council, before any one that hath not been mayor. He is one of the justices of oyer and terminer, and a justice of peace for putting the laws in execution to preserve the peace and government of the city. He speaks in the name of the city upon all extraordinary occasions; reads and presents their addresses to the king; and, when seated upon the bench, delivers the sentence of the court. He is the first officer in order of precedence who is paid a salary, which originally (anno 1304) was no more than ten pounds per annum, with some perquisites; but it has been from time to time augmented to one thousand pounds per annum.

Besides these officers of trust belonging to the corporation, there are the following, viz. the common-ferjeant, the town-clerk, and the city-remembrancer; all of whom are appointed by the court of common-council.—The common-ferjeant is to attend the lord-mayor and court of aldermen on court-days, and to be in council with them, on all occasions, within or without the precincts or liberties of the city. He is to take care of orphans' estates, either by taking account of them, or to sign their indentures, before their passing the lord-mayor and court of aldermen. He is likewise to let, sell, and manage, the orphans' estates, according to his judgment, to their best advantage.—The town-clerk, or common-clerk, is an officer who keeps the original charters of the city, the books, rolls, and other records, wherein are registered the acts and proceedings of the city; so that he may not be improperly styled the city-register. He attends the lord-mayor and aldermen at their courts, in order to take down any extraordinary proceeding that may occur. The town-clerk and common-ferjeant take place according to seniority.—The city-remembrancer is to attend the lord-mayor on certain days, and to put his lordship in mind of the select days when he is to go abroad with the aldermen. He invites the great officers of state on lord-mayor's day; and is also to attend daily at the parliament-house during the sessions, and to report to the lord-mayor such proceedings of the house as may affect the city of London.

The four following officers, viz. the sword-bearer, common-hunt, common-crier, and water-bailiff, belong to the lord-mayor's household, and are esquires by virtue of their places. The two first purchase their offices, and the other two are in the appointment of the common-council.—The sword-bearer is to attend the lord-mayor, and carry the sword before him on all public occasions. The carrying of the sword before the lord-mayor being an honour he is entitled to as the representative of his majesty, Gerard Leigh, in his *Accidence of Armoury*, p. 94, says "That the bearer must carry it upright, the hilt being holden under his bulk, and the blade directly up the midst of his breast, and so forth between the sword-bearer's brows. This in distinction from bearing the sword in any town for a duke, or an earl, or a baron: if for a duke, the blade thereof must lean from the head, between the neck and the right shoulder, nearer to the neck than the shoulder: for an earl, the bearer must carry the same between the point of the shoulder and the elbow; and there is another different bearing of the sword for a baron."—The common hunt, whose business was formerly to take care of the hounds belonging to the city, and to attend the lord-mayor and citizens in hunting on those grounds which they were authorized by different charters to do, is now chiefly occupied in attendance upon the lady-mayorefs, and acts as  
makef



master of the ceremonies at public balls, &c.—The common crier is to summon all executors and administrators of freemen to appear, and to bring in inventories of the personal estates of freemen, within two months after their decease; and he is to have notice of their appraisements. He is likewise to attend the lord-mayor on set days, and at the courts held by the mayor, aldermen, and common-council; and he carries the mace on public occasions.—The water-bailiff is to look after the preservation of the river Thames against all encroachments, and to prevent the fishermen from destroying the young fry by unlawful nets. For that end there are juries for each county that lieth any part of it lying on the sides or shores of the said river: which juries, summoned by the water-bailiff at certain times, make enquiry of all offences relating to the river and the fish, and make their presentments accordingly. He is also bound to attend the lord-mayor on set days in the week.

There have been various opinions respecting the share which the commonalty of London anciently possessed in the government of it. That the government by aldermen is of Saxon origin, is almost demonstrable by the charter of Henry I. which was granted to the city only thirty-five years after the conquest, whereby all strangers are commanded to "give custom to none but to him to whom the shoke appertains," i. e. the alderman, "or to his officer." But it is equally evident from the same charter, that the government was not vested in the aldermen exclusive of the commons, for the citizens are empowered to choose their sheriff and justice; wherefore it cannot be doubted that they constituted a part of the city-legislature. In the absence of Richard I. in Palestine, John earl of Moreton, his brother, attended by the archbishop of Rouen, and most of the nobility and bishops, repaired to St. Paul's church-yard, where, being met by the *folkmote* of London, they unanimously agreed to degrade the bishop of Ely, chancellor, and one of the regents, for his tyrannical government. Many other instances will be found in the former part of this article, to prove that the great body of the citizens were always considered an integral part of the government of the city; but, when by the great increase of the citizens, these folknotes were found to be attended with inconvenience from the numbers who frequented them, they were discontinued, and the citizens chose from among themselves a certain number out of each ward as their representatives; who, being added to the lord-mayor and aldermen, constituted the court, denominated the *common-council*.

At first the number returned for each ward was only two; but, these being thought by the citizens insufficient to represent their numerous body, it was agreed in the year 1347, that each ward should choose a number of common-council-men proportionate to its extent, but none to exceed twelve, or be less than six; which has been since increased to the present number of two hundred and thirty-six. The common-council are chosen after the same manner as the aldermen; only with this difference, that, as the lord-mayor presides in the wardmote, and is judge of the poll at the election of an alderman, so the alderman of each ward is judge of the poll at the election of a common-council-man. No act can be performed in the name of the city of London, without their concurrence; but they cannot assemble without a summons from the lord-mayor, whose duty it is, nevertheless, to call a common-council, whenever it shall be demanded, on extraordinary occasions.

There are various courts held in the city of London, for the due administration of justice among the citizens; the most ancient of which is the Court of Hustings, it being of Saxon origin: *hus*, in the Saxon language, signifying a house, and *ding*, a plea, or cause; whence the term hustings implies a "house of pleas." This is a court of record, and the supreme judicature of the city of London. It is held weekly, on Tuesdays, and was originally established for the preservation of the laws, franchises, and customs, of the city. The judges are, the

lord-mayor and sheriffs, who are assisted by the recorder upon all causes of consequence. See COURTS, vol. v. p. 30.

The Lord-Mayor's Court is a court of record, held before the lord-mayor, aldermen, and recorder, every Tuesday, in Guildhall, wherein actions of debt, trespass, attachments, covenants, &c. arising within the city and liberties, of any value, may be tried; and actions from the sheriffs' court may be removed hither, before the jury be sworn. This is also a court of chancery, or equity, respecting affairs transacted in the city and liberties; and gives relief when judgment is obtained in the sheriffs' court for more than a just debt. This court has an office peculiar to itself, consisting of four attorneys, by whom all actions cognizable therein are entered, for the execution whereof there are six serjeants at mace, who daily attend in the said office. It is the most extensive court in the kingdom; for, whatever is cognizable in any of the several courts of England, can be brought before this, if the cause arises within the city of London. The juries for trying causes in this and the sheriffs' courts, are chosen annually in their respective wards, and serve monthly in the following rotation:

January,	Aldgate, Portfoken, and Cornhill.
February,	Cheap-ward.
March,	Bassishaw and Cripplegate.
April,	Vintry and Bread-street.
May,	Tower and Billingsgate.
June,	Farringdon Without.
July,	Bridge-ward.
August,	Aldersgate, Coleman-street, and Broad-street.
September,	Farringdon Within, and Cattle-Baynard.
October,	Queenhithe, Dowgate, and Wallbrook.
November,	Langbourn and Lime-street.
December,	Candlewick, Cordwainer, and Bishopsgate.

The Court of Lord-Mayor and Aldermen is a court of record, wherein is lodged a great part of the executive power of the city of London. All leases, and other instruments that pass the city-seal, are executed, the assize of bread is ascertained, contests relating to water-courses, lights, and party-walls, are adjusted, and the city-officers suspended and punished according to the notoriety of their several offences, in this court. It has also the power of appointing many of the city-officers, such as the recorder, the justice of the bridge-yard, the steward of Southwark, the clerks to the lord-mayor and the sitting aldermen, the keepers of the different prisons, and some others of inferior note: and no person can be admitted to the freedom of the city by purchase, or without serving a regular apprenticeship, unless by an order obtained from this court.

The Court of Common Council consists of the lord-mayor, aldermen, and representatives of the several wards, who assemble in Guildhall as often as the lord-mayor, by his summons, thinks proper to convene them; and their general business is to make laws for the due government of the city. Out of this body are chosen the various committees for managing all the concerns of the corporation; but it is a standing order of the court, that no commoner be eligible to serve on more than four committees. This court has the appointment of the common-serjeant, the town-clerk, the judges of the sheriffs' courts, the comptroller, the remembrancer, the solicitor, the common-crier, the bailiff of Southwark, the comptroller of the bridge-house, the water-bailiff, and most of the subordinate officers.

The Sheriffs' Courts are courts of record, held at Guildhall, every Wednesday and Friday for actions entered at Giltspur-street Compter; and on Thursdays and Saturdays for those entered at the Poultry Compter; of which the sheriffs being judges, each has his assistant or deputy, who are called the *judges* of those courts; before whom are tried actions of debt, trespass, covenant, &c. To each of these courts likewise belong a secondary, a clerk of the papers, a prothonotary, and four clerks sitters. There are also sixteen serjeants at mace, for each of the prisons belonging to these courts.



The Courts of Wardmote are the reliques of the Saxon folkmote, from which they only differ in being composed of the inhabitants of a single ward. They are summoned by the lord-mayor, and are held before the alderman of the ward, or his deputy, to correct disorders, remove annoyances, and to promote the common interest of the ward; but, when the business of the court is the election of an alderman, the lord-mayor presides. In this city, parishes being as towns, and wards as hundreds, this court resembles that of the leet in the county; for, as the latter derives its authority from the county-court, so does the former from that of the lord-mayor; as is manifest by the annual precept issued by the lord-mayor to the several aldermen, for holding their respective wardmotes on St. Thomas's day, for the election of proper officers in each ward.

The Court of Conservancy is held four times a-year, before the lord-mayor, at such places and times as he shall appoint, within the respective counties of Middlesex, Essex, Kent, and Surry; in which several counties he has a power of summoning juries, who, for the better preservation of the fishery of the river Thames, and regulation of the fishermen that fish therein, are, upon oath, to make inquisition of all offences committed in and upon the said river, from Staines-bridge, in the west, to Yen-fleet, in the east.

Court of Requests, or Court of Conscience. This court determines all disputes between citizens, where the debt is under five pounds. It is of great use to persons who have small debts owing to them, which they could not otherwise recover without entering into expensive proceedings; and it is also of great benefit to such persons as are not able to pay their debts at once, as the court can order the payment to be made in such portions as are suitable to the debtor's circumstances. The lord-mayor and court of aldermen appoint, monthly, such aldermen and commons to sit as commissioners in this court, as they think fit; any three of whom compose a court, kept in Guildhall-chapel, every Wednesday and Saturday, from eleven till two o'clock, to hear and determine such cases as are brought before them. See p. 73, 85, of this article; and COURTS, vol. v. p. 299.

The Chamberlain's Court is held daily, before the chamberlain, to determine differences between masters and apprentices, to enroll and turn over the latter, and to admit all who are duly qualified to the freedom of the city.

The Court of Orphans is held, occasionally, before the lord-mayor and aldermen, who are guardians to the children of all freemen, under the age of twenty-one years, at the decease of their fathers. The common-serjeant of the city is authorized by the court of aldermen to take accounts and inventories of freemen's estates; and the youngest attorney of the mayor's court, being clerk to that of the orphans, is appointed to take securities for their several portions, in the name of the chamberlain of London, who, for this purpose, is a sole corporation of himself, for the service of the said orphans. A recognizance, or bond, therefore, made to him upon the account of an orphan, shall, by the custom of London, descend to his successor.

Justice-hall Court, in the Old Bailey, is held eight times in a year, by the king's commission of oyer and terminer, for trying offenders for crimes committed within the city of London and county of Middlesex. The judges of this court are, the lord-mayor, the aldermen past the chair, and the recorder; who, on all such occasions, are attended by both the sheriffs, and, generally, by one or more of the national judges. The offenders, for crimes committed in the city, are tried by a jury of citizens; and those committed in the county by a Middlesex jury.

The Coroner's Court is held before the lord-mayor, who is perpetual coroner of the city, or his deputy, to enquire into the cause of the death of any person supposed to have come to an untimely end; and likewise into the escape of the murderer. It is also the duty of the coroner

to make inquisition respecting treasure-trove, deadlands, and wrecks at sea. See the article CORONER, vol. v. p. 220.

To these courts may be added that called the Pie-powder Court, a court of record incident to every fair, which is held in London before the lord-mayor and the steward, during Bartholomew-fair, to administer justice between buyers and sellers, and for the redress of such disorders as may arise there, in breach of the following proclamation, which is annually made before the lord-mayor, on the eve of St. Bartholomew, for the better regulation of the said fair; which, being little known, and seldom distinctly heard, we shall here set down at length. "The Right Honourable Sir William Domville, Bart. lord-mayor of the city of London, and his right worshipful brethren, the aldermen of the said city, straightly charge and command, on the behalf of our sovereign lord the king, that all manner of persons, of whatsoever estate, degree, or condition, they be, having recourse to this fair, keep the peace of our sovereign lord the king. That no person or persons make any congregation, conventicles, or affrays, by the which the same peace may be broken or disturbed, upon pain of imprisonment, and fine, to be made after the direction of the lord-mayor and aldermen. Also, that all manner of sellers of wine, ale, or beer, sell by measures ensealed, as by gallon, pottle, quart, and pint, upon pain that will fall thereof. And that no person shall sell any bread, except it keep the assise; and that it be good and wholesome for man's body, upon pain that will follow thereof. And that no manner of cook, pie-baker, nor huckster, sell or put to sale any manner of victual, except it be good and wholesome for man's body, upon pain that will fall thereof. And that no manner of person buy, nor sell but with true weights and measures, sealed according to the statute in that behalf made, upon pain that will fall thereof. And that no person or persons take upon him or them, within this fair, to make any manner of arrest, attachment, summons, or execution, except it be done by the officers of this city thereunto assigned, upon pain that will befall thereof. And that no person or persons whatsoever, within the limits or bounds of this fair, presume to break the Lord's day, in selling, showing, or offering to sale, or in buying, or offering to buy, any commodities whatsoever; or in sitting, tipping, or drinking, in any tavern, inn, ale-house, tipping-house, or cook's house, or in doing any other thing that may tend to the breach thereof, upon the pains and penalties contained in several acts of parliament, which will be severely inflicted upon the breakers thereof. And, finally, that what persons soever find themselves grieved, injured, or wronged, by any manner of person, in this fair, that they come with their complaints before the stewards, in this fair, assigned to hear and determine pleas; and they will minister to all parties justice, according to the laws of the land, and customs of this city."

The suburbs of the city of London in Middlesex, are under the jurisdiction of the justices of the peace for the county, as part of the county. The county-hall for Middlesex is on Clerkenwell-green; and, in sessions held there quarterly, great part of the civil government of the suburbs in Middlesex is exercised. As it is of the highest importance to strangers to be able to obtain redress in cases of injury, a list is subjoined of the police-offices in London, Westminster, and Southwark, in which magistrates sit every day:

The Mansion-house.

Guildhall.

Bow-street, Covent Garden.

Queen-square, Westminster.

Great Marlborough-street.

Hatton Garden, Holborn.

Worship-street, Shoreditch.

Lambeth-street, Whitechapel.

High-street, Shadwell.

Union-street, Southwark.

Wapping New-stairs, for offences connected with the shipping and port of London.



The magistrates of these offices are appointed to hear and determine in a summary way; particularly in cases relative to the customs, excise, and stamps; the game-laws; hawkers and pedlars; pawnbrokers; friendly societies; highwaymen; hackney-coaches, carts, and other carriages; quakers and others refusing to pay tithes; appeals of defaulters in parochial rates; misdemeanors committed by persons unlawfully pawning property not their own; bakers for short weight, &c. journeymen leaving their services in different trades; labourers not complying with their agreements, and disorderly apprentices; persons keeping disorderly houses; nuisances against different acts of parliament; acts of vagrancy by fraudulent lottery-insurers; gaming-houses; fortune-tellers; or persons of ill-fame found in avenues to public places, with an intent to rob; watching over the conduct of publicans; swearing in; charging and intrusting parochial constables and headboroughs from year to year, with regard to their duty; issuing warrants for privy searches; and in considering the cases of persons charged with being disorderly persons, or rogues and vagabonds, liable to be punished under the act of 17 Geo. II. c. 5, and subsequent acts of parliament; in making orders to parish-officers, beadles, and constables, in a variety of cases; in parish removals; in billeting soldiers; in considering the cases of poor persons applying for assistance, or admission to work-houses; in granting certificates and orders to the wives of persons serving in the militia, and also in attesting recruits for the army, and for examining persons accused of treason, murder, coinage, and uttering base money; arson; manslaughter; forgery; burglary; larceny; sedition; felonies of various descriptions; conspiracies; frauds; riots; assaults, and misdemeanors of different kinds.—To each of these police-offices three justices are attached; the chief-magistrate at Bow-street, has a salary of 1000l. per ann. and the other two 500l. each. A number of police-officers, constables, and patrols, parade the streets, avenues, and outskirts, day and night. The Thames police-office, in particular, has belonging to it 21 river-furveyors, 8 land-constables, and 60 river-constables, or watermen. As to the establishment of this office, and for some general remarks on police, see p. 122 of this article.

The following is a Statement of the Force of the Police existing in the Metropolis, copied from Sir Richard Phillips's Picture of London :

In the City of London—the marshalsmen, beadles, and constables, amount to	319
Watchmen and patrols	803
In the City and Liberty of Westminster—Constables	71
Watchmen and patrols	302
Holborn division—Constables	79
Watchmen and patrols	377
Finbury division—Constables	69
Watchmen and patrols	135
Tower Hamlets, including the eastern part of the town—Constables	218
Watchmen and patrols	268
Liberty of the Tower of London—Constables	17
Watchmen and patrols	14
Division of Kensington and Chelsea—Constables	22
Watchmen and patrols	66
Borough of Southwark—Constables	38
Watchmen and patrols	79
Seven Police-offices, including Bow-street—Officers and patrols	150
Total number of persons	3077

Our system of police, though thief-takers are continually upon the alert in our streets at every hour in the day, may be reckoned mild when compared with that of other countries. The police of Paris was carried to the greatest perfection of espionage under M. de Sartine. The minister

of police under the emperor Napoleon did not derogate from his predecessor in office. The system of police, particularly among servants, who were made spies over the families in which they are employed, was carried to a state of mechanical perfection; and the budgets of the fruits of espionage were as regularly conveyed to the office of the minister of police as a ditch-draining mill fills and discharges its buckets into the reservoir. Of this fact many woeful examples could be produced by the inhabitants of the French metropolis. A gentleman, who was a friend of the minister of police, on one occasion, in a select party, had been guilty of some unguarded expressions; he was sent for, and warned by the minister, who assured him that nothing even of the most private nature could escape his vigilance; for, says he, "by means of my agents, you may literally apply to me the words of Scripture, (Math. xviii. 20.) *Where two or three are gathered together, there am I in the midst of them!*"

**MILITARY GOVERNMENT.**—Though the origin of the military government of London cannot be ascertained, it nevertheless must be of great antiquity; for, in the reign of Alfred, the London forces being joined to the regular army, they, in 885, besieged and took a castle, or fort, erected by the Danes on the coast of Essex; and, in the following spring, in conjunction with the neighbouring auxiliaries, dislodged the Danes from a strong position they occupied near the site of the present town of Hertford. Hence it is highly probable, that a military government was established by that prince in London, immediately after he had recovered it from the Danes.

How soon the city became possessed of a military government, distinct from that of the state, does not appear; but Edward II. having received military assistance from the city of London, in the year 1321, in besieging the castle of Leeds in Kent, granted a charter to the citizens, whereby it is declared, that the same shall not be prejudicial to the mayor and good men of the city of London, their heirs, &c. nor be drawn into example in time to come. In a muster of the citizens in 1585, the men were provided by the different companies, in proportion to their abilities; an account of which was delivered to sir Thomas Pullyson, the lord-mayor, from which the following list of the numbers sent by the twelve principal companies is extracted; viz.

Mercers	-	294	Haberdashers	-	395
Drapers	-	347	Salters	-	160
Grocers	-	395	Ironmongers	-	147
Fishmongers	-	200	Vintners	-	107
Goldsmiths	-	284	Merchant Taylors	-	395
Skinners	-	174	Cloth-workers	-	214

In the middle of April, 1660, about six weeks before the restoration, there was a muster in Hyde Park of the troops belonging to the city, when there appeared six regiments of trained bands, six regiments of auxiliaries, and one regiment of horse. Of the twelve regiments of foot, eight had seven companies, and the other four had six companies, in each; in all, eighty companies of two hundred and fifty men, making eighteen thousand effective infantry. The regiment of horse consisted of six troops of one hundred men each. The assembling of this force before his majesty's return, was judged to be highly instrumental in facilitating that happy work. This force being judged very useful, not only for the defence of the city, but for the safety of the king's person, his majesty, soon after his restoration, appointed a commission of lieutenancy for the city of London, which he invested with the same powers as those possessed by the lord-lieutenants of counties, by whom the trained bands were new-modelled. The number of the regiments of infantry remained the same, but the cavalry was increased to two regiments of five troops, with eighty men in each. The six regiments of auxiliary infantry and the cavalry were not however kept up longer than necessity required; and the permanent military force of the city of London was settled



settled in the six regiments of trained bands, the effective strength of which was as follows :

Number of men in the Blue Regiment	1411
in the Green	1566
in the Yellow	1526
in the Orange	1740
in the Red	2089
in the White	1630
	9962
Officers and drums	336
Total	10,298

Subsequent to the period when this establishment was made, the continued tranquillity of the city rendered any call upon their own forces unnecessary; in consequence of which, the trained bands went to decay, though they were nominally kept up, and the commissions filled with the chief citizens; each regiment being commanded by an alderman, who was also usually a knight. But when, on the breaking out of the war with France, it was found necessary to put forth all the energies of the country, the insufficiency of the *trained bands* was so apparent, that a new system was resorted to; and, in July 1794, an act of parliament was passed, for raising two regiments of militia for the defence of the city, to be trained and exercised under the superintendance of the commissioners of lieutenancy; for which purpose, two courts of lieutenancy are held annually, viz. on the third Wednesdays in January and June. By the above act, it was proposed to raise the men by ballot, in the following manner: every person or corporation within the city, possessed of a tenement of the annual value of fifteen pounds, and less than one hundred pounds, if ballotted, was to serve, or find one substitute: from one to two hundred pounds, to find two substitutes; and above two hundred pounds, three substitutes. This mode of ballot, however, being found on trial to be attended with many inconveniencies, a second act was passed in May 1796, by which it was enacted, that a certain number of men should be raised, to be called the East and West Regiments of London Militia; and the expense be defrayed by an equal assessment upon the different parishes. The commissioners of lieutenancy for the city of London, are the lord-mayor, aldermen and their deputies, the recorder, chamberlain, and common-ferjeant, for the time being, with one hundred and fifty-five of the principal citizens, appointed by his majesty. Their usual place of meeting is at Barbers' Hall.

Besides these two regiments of militia, the city is defended by the Artillery Company, which is a voluntary enrolment of the younger citizens, and others, of long standing. See ARCHERY, and ARTILLERY COMPANY, vol. ii.—In addition to this force, which may be considered as peculiar to the city of London, there is also a regiment of volunteer infantry belonging to the Bank, and three regiments of the same description belonging to the East-India Company; all of which are composed of the servants of these two companies, and are officered by the directors and the principal persons in their employ. These regiments were raised for the purpose of defending the immense property belonging to these bodies, in case of insurrection or invasion: but whether they will be kept up, now that peace is restored, we are not informed.

ECCLESIASTICAL GOVERNMENT.—We have already shown at p. 55, that the Christian religion was introduced into Britain, and that London was a bishop's see, before the Romans abandoned it, although the Pagan worship of the Saxons appears to have supplanted Christianity in the interval between that event and the conversion of the latter people, which is attributed to Augustine the monk, a missionary from pope Gregory, who, in 604, constituted Mellitus a bishop, and sent him to preach among the East Saxons, of whose kingdom London was, at that time, the capital; and it has ever since remained the chief city of the see. This diocese, which has never experienced any alter-

ation, being formed of the ancient kingdom of the East Saxons, is in the province of Canterbury, and is composed of the counties of Middlesex, Essex, and part of Hertfordshire. It is governed by a bishop, who is assisted by a dean, precentor, chancellor, treasurer, five archdeacons, thirty canons or prebendaries, twelve petty or minor canons, six vicars choral, a sub-dean, and other inferior officers. The diocese comprehends not only Middlesex, Essex, and part of Hertfordshire, but the British plantations in America. The bishop of London, in common with all the bishops of the realm, has the power of holding a court in his own diocese, for the trial and punishment of spiritual offences; in which he may either sit as judge himself, or depute his power to a chancellor, suffragan, or other officer. The bishops' courts, therefore, though held by the king's authority, are not properly to be accounted the king's courts, since none of the judges possess this privilege, neither are writs from them issued in the name of the king, but of the bishop. In precedence, the bishop of London ranks next after the two archbishops, and is styled, in some of the old statutes, *primus baro regni*, "first baron of the kingdom;" the ecclesiastical barons taking precedence of all the temporal barons. It is also the privilege of this diocese, not to be subject to the visitation of the archbishop of Canterbury; there are, however, thirteen parishes in the city under his immediate government, and styled his *peculiars*, which are exempt from the bishop's jurisdiction; viz. Allhallows, Breadstreet; Allhallows, Lombard-street; St. Dionis Backchurch, Fenchurch-street; St. Dunstan in the East; St. John Baptist; St. Leonard Eastcheap; St. Mary Aldermary; St. Mary Bothaw; St. Mary le Bow; St. Michael, Crooked lane; St. Michael Royal; St. Pancras, Soper-lane; and St. Vedast, Foster-lane.

The dean is to assist the bishop in ordinations, deprivations, and other affairs of the church; and, on the king's writ of *congé d'élire*, the dean and prebendaries elect the bishop; but this election is now a mere matter of form, since the person recommended by the king is always chosen. The dean is also elected by the chapter, on letters missive from the king, whose assent must be obtained before the bishop can confirm and give power to install him. The precentor, or chanter, is to superintend the church-music. Under him is a sub-chanter, who officiates in his absence. The second stall, on the north side of the choir of St. Paul's cathedral, belongs to this officer, whose corps is in the church of Stortford, of which he is proprietor, and perpetual rector, and patron of the vicarage.—The chancellor was anciently called *magister scholarum*, from having had the charge of literature within the city of London, whereby he was empowered to license all the school-masters in the city, except those of St. Mary-le-Bow and St. Martin-le-Grand; but at present, he is only secretary to the chapter. He has the third stall on the north side of the choir, and his corps is in the church of Boreham and Yelling.—The treasurer has the custody of the valuables belonging to the cathedral church of St. Paul; for the faithful keeping of which he is sworn before the dean and chapter. He has the third stall on the south side of the choir, and his corps is in the church of Pelham and Aldebri. Under him is the sacrist, who is also sworn to the faithful discharge of his office, three vergers, and the inferior servants of the church.

The five archdeaconries are those of London, Essex, Middlesex, Colchester, and St. Alban's. Their office is to visit the several cures within their respective archdeaconries, and to enquire into the reparations and moveables belonging to them; to reform slight abuses in ecclesiastical matters, and to bring affairs of moment before the bishop. It is also the office of the archdeacon to induct clerks into their benefices upon the bishop's mandate.—The thirty canons, or prebendaries, with the bishop, compose the *chapter*, by which the affairs of the church are managed. All the prebends are in the collation of the bishop, and out of them there are three residentiaries, besides the dean;



so called from their (supposed) continual residence in the church. The disposition of the prebendal stalls has been spoken of at p. 410.

The twelve petty canons are usually chosen out of the ministers and officers belonging to the church. They were constituted a body politic and corporate, by letters patent of Richard II. dated in 1399, under the denomination of "The College of the Twelve Petty Canons of Paul's." They are governed by a warden chosen from among themselves, and have the privilege of a common seal. One of the petty canons is appointed sub-dean, by the dean with the consent of the chapter and minor canons. His office is to supply the dean's place in the choir. Two others are denominated cardinals of the choir, to which office they are elected by the dean and chapter, and are to superintend the duty of the choir.

Of the management of the choir, and of the claims of the singing-boys to have a house provided for their accommodation, where they might be boarded, and properly educated, in grammar as well as in music, we have spoken at p. 414, 15. Since those leaves were printed, namely, on the 5th of August last, the Master of the Rolls has delivered his opinion upon the allegations of the Petition which had been presented to him on behalf of these Choristers. We are sorry to find, that farther proceedings must be instituted before the matter can be fully decided; but, as his honour's opinion will give the reader a farther insight into the subject, we shall set down the substance of it, happy to find that some enquiry is to be entered into, and in anxious hope that more will be done; while the public will fully appreciate the disinterested zeal of an individual, who, at a great expense, has undertaken the cause of these friendless youths. His honour spoke to the following effect:

"A very considerable proportion of this petition relates to objects either wholly out of the jurisdiction of the court, or with regard to which the court cannot exercise its jurisdiction in this summary mode of proceeding. It complains that the statutes of St. Paul's Cathedral have not been obeyed; that there are various duties to be performed by the precentor and the almoner, and that these duties are not performed at all, or at least to the extent, or in the manner, enjoined by the statutes. I conceive that *this court has nothing to do with the observance or non-observance of the statutes of a cathedral*, or the performance of the duties of its various ministers and officers. It then states, that there are certain charitable funds, which are not applied to the purposes for which they were given according to the intention of the donors. It is an application to the jurisdiction of the court; and, *if it had jurisdiction*, it would be a proper ground of complain; but it is not every question of charitable trust that now can be decided here. The act gives the court jurisdiction to proceed in a summary manner to rectify abuses of a trust, and to give directions relative to the administration of it; but, where the question is as to the existence of a charitable trust, it becomes a question of property, and ought to be decided in the same solemn manner as every other question of property is decided. I conceive that in that case it is fitting that an information should be filed, or that a bill should be filed, in order to litigate the question in the same manner as every other question of property should be litigated. Now in this case, it is the existence of the trust that is the thing in controversy between these parties. It is attempted to be shown, that the estates of the dean and chapter, and of the chancellor, are liable to certain burthens and trusts, to which within living memory they have never been subjected. Documents are produced, which are ancient instruments, for the purpose of showing that grants have been made to the chancellor, of lands, tythes, and other property, for the purpose of supporting and maintaining a school for the education of the choristers; but *it does not appear to me that these documents do at any time distinctly show that to have been the purpose of these grants*. The officer (the registrar to the dean and chapter) does not admit the existence of any

such trust; and the question is, whether there is any trust, (and that must be decided in another form, not upon petition,) whether the dean and chapter of St. Paul's can be subjected to the payment of any grants to them, or any other sums than those which they confess themselves to be bound to pay to the almoner, to be applied for the support and maintenance of the choristers. The act of parliament says, not that this court is summarily to decide whether an estate be subject to a charitable trust, but that, in every case of a breach, or supposed breach, of any trust created for charitable purposes, or where an order of a court of equity was deemed necessary, it should be lawful for the court to proceed upon petition. It assumes the existence of the charitable trust as something that is admitted, or as so plain that there can be no question relative to it. The only case in which it is stated that there is any devise or grant to the almoner, for a charitable purpose, is that of the will of Richard de Newport, who gave certain houses to the almoner for the maintenance of one or two boys for a period not exceeding two years after their voices are broken. The petition states that as a charitable use; but *the almoner in his affidavit takes no notice whatever of that allegation in the petition*; he does not say whether these houses do or do not exist; whether they are or are not liable to the charitable use; he passes it by entirely. Now the trust by the will is plain and express; and I find that Mr. Hodgson (the registrar), in one of his affidavits, says, 'he is informed and believes that the almoner of the cathedral, for the time being, has been in the habit occasionally of maintaining a chorister or two after they have ceased to sing in the cathedral in consequence of the breaking of their voices, until they have been otherwise provided for.' This, therefore, should seem to be *a subsisting and an undisputed charity*; and it appears to me, that *there must be an enquiry what the trusts consist of, what are the rents and profits, and how those rents and profits are applied*. That is the only part of the petition upon which I can make any order, however laudable the motives may have been by which this petition has been set on foot, or however desirable the object to which it is applied."

With respect to the ancient state of the parish-priests of London, it is to be observed that their revenues did not arise from a glebe, or from tythe of lands, but from customary payments issuing out of the houses of their parishioners according to the value of the rents, which were called *oblations*, because they were small pieces of money offered by each parishioner to God and the church, on certain holydays. This custom had been used for many ages; but the earliest document on record for regulating the amount of the payments, is the Constitution of Roger Niger, bishop of London from 1229 to 1241, whereby the citizens were enjoined to pay to their respective parish-priests on all Sundays and festivals, the vigils of which were to be observed as feasts, one farthing for every house at ten shillings a-year rent; a halfpenny for one of twenty, and for those of forty shillings one penny each; all which amounted to about two shillings and sixpence in the pound; for there were but eight apostles' days on which these payments were to be made; and, if any of these chanced to fall on a Sunday, there was only one payment made for that day. This mode of payment continued until the 13th Richard II. when Thomas Arundel, archbishop of Canterbury, published "An Explanation" of the Constitution made by Niger, in which he added twenty-two other saints' days, by which the payments were increased to three shillings and five pence in the pound; this the citizens were constrained to pay until the seventeenth of Henry VIII. when an act of parliament was passed, by which the rate was reduced to two shillings and nine pence in the pound. But, although the citizens obtained this diminution of the rate, they remained equally unwilling to pay it, and sought to reduce it by various stratagems, particularly by taking their houses at low nominal rents, and making up the difference to the landlord by yearly or quarterly fines, annuities, new-years' gifts, &c. whereby



whereby the clergy were defrauded of their just demands, which occasioned repeated applications to parliament, and to the king and council; but no effectual redress was obtained until after the fire of London. By this event, eighty-four of the ninety-seven parish-churches within the walls were destroyed; and, their number being greatly reduced by the uniting of several parishes into one, in pursuance of the act for rebuilding the city, it was found necessary to make a more certain provision for the incumbents of the several livings; in consequence of which an act was passed in 1671, for providing a fixed annual revenue for the maintenance of the parsons, vicars, and curates, of the respective single or united parishes, to be raised by an equal assessment. This act remained in force until the year 1804, when, in consequence of a petition of the London clergy for an increase of their annual stipends, a new act was passed, by which they were settled as follows:

Allhallows, Lombard-street	-	-	£200	0	0
St. Bartholomew, Exchange	-	-	200	0	0
St. Bridget, or St. Bride's	-	-	200	0	0
St. Bennet Finck	-	-	200	0	0
St. Michael's, Crooked-lane	-	-	200	0	0
St. Dionis Back-church	-	-	200	0	0
St. Dunstan in the East	-	-	333	6	8
St. James, Garlick-hithe	-	-	200	0	0
St. Michael, Cornhill	-	-	233	6	8
St. Margaret Lothbury, and St. Christopher	-	-	366	13	4
St. Michael, Bassishaw	-	-	220	18	4
St. Mary, Aldermanbury	-	-	250	0	0
St. Martin, Ludgate	-	-	266	13	4
St. Peter's, Cornhill	-	-	200	0	0
St. Stephen, Coleman-street	-	-	200	0	0
St. Sepulchre's	-	-	333	6	8
Allhallows Bread-str. and St. John Evangelist	-	-	233	6	8
Allhallows the Great, and Allhallows the Less	-	-	333	6	8
St. Alban's Wood-str. and St. Olave's Silver-str.	-	-	283	6	8
St. Anne, St. Agnes, and St. John Zachary	-	-	233	6	8
St. Augustine and St. Faith	-	-	286	13	4
St. Andrew Wardrobe, and St. Anne Blackfriars	-	-	233	6	8
St. Antholine, and St. John Baptist	-	-	200	0	0
St. Benet's Gracechurch, and St. Leonard Eastcheap	-	-	233	6	8
St. Benet's Paul's wharf, and St. Peter's Paul's wharf	-	-	200	0	0
Christ-church, and St. Leonard, Foster-lane	-	-	233	6	8
St. Edmund the King, and St. Nicholas Acons	-	-	300	0	0
St. George Botolph-lane, and St. Botolph Billingsgate	-	-	300	0	0
St. Lawrence Jewry, and St. Mary Magdalen Milk-street	-	-	200	0	0
St. Magnus, and St. Margaret, New Fish-street	-	-	283	6	8
St. Michael Royal, and St. Martin Vintry	-	-	233	6	8
St. Matthew Friday-street, and St. Peter Cheap	-	-	250	0	0
St. Margaret Pattens, and St. Gabriel Fenchurch	-	-	200	0	0
St. Mary at Hill, and St. Andrew Hubbard	-	-	333	6	8
St. Mary Woolnoth, and St. Mary Woolchurch	-	-	266	13	4
St. Clement Eastcheap, and St. Martin Orgar	-	-	233	6	8
St. Mary Abchurch, and St. Laurence Poultry	-	-	200	0	0
St. Mary Aldermay, and St. Thomas Apostle	-	-	250	0	0
St. Mary le Bow, St. Pancras Soper-lane, and Allhallows Honey-lane	-	-	333	6	8
St. Mildred Poultry, and St. Mary Cole-church	-	-	283	6	8
St. Michael Wood-street, and St. Mary Staining	-	-	200	0	0
St. Mildred Bread-str. and St. Margaret Moses	-	-	216	13	4
St. Michael Queenhithe, and Trinity	-	-	266	13	4
St. Mary Magdalen, Old Fish-street, and St. Gregory	-	-	200	0	0
St. Mary Somersset, and St. Mary Mounthaw	-	-	200	0	0
St. Nicholas Cole-abbey, and St. Nicholas Olave	-	-	216	13	4
St. Olave Jewry, and St. Martin Ironmonger-lane	-	-	200	0	0
St. Stephen Wallbrook, and St. Bennet Shershog	-	-	200	0	0
St. Swithin, and St. Mary Bothaw	-	-	233	6	8
St. Vedast, alias Foster's, and St. Michael le Quern	-	-	266	13	4

These annual stipends are over and above glebes, gifts, bequests, and surplice-fees; and the vicar of St. Sepulchre's is entitled to one third part of the appropriate tythes, in respect of that part of the parish which is within the county of Middlesex.

We learn from Fabian's Chronicle, that, in his time, the number of parish-churches in London amounted to one hundred and thirteen, and that there were also twenty-seven houses of religion, monasteries, colleges, and chapels, which were not parochial.

The first instance of prefixing the word Saint to the name of the parish, occurred in the weekly bill of mortality from January 15th to January 22d, 1634; but this was thought so great a profanation, that in 1642, in the mayoralty of alderman Pennington, the title of Saint was ordered to be expunged for the future; and so it continued till the restoration of Charles II. when it was again brought into use.—The origin of the weekly bills of mortality is involved in great obscurity. In a work entitled "Reflections on the Weekly Bills of Mortality," published in 1665, it is said that the keeping of them began in the year 1592, being a great year of sickness; and, after some dispute, was established by order in the year 1603, the next year of sickness; the first of the continued weekly bills of mortality commencing October 29th, in the same year being the first year of the reign of James I. Diseases began first to be distinctly taken notice of in the year 1629. On this subject, however, Strype says, "I meet with an older bill of mortality, viz. for the year 1562, and ending 1563, when a plague raged in the city." The account whereof was as follows:

Buried in London, and the places near adjoining, from the 1st of January, 1562, to the 1st of January, 1563, in the whole number	-	-	23630
Whereof of the plague	-	-	20136

Here is set down likewise, how many died in each parish. This bill of mortality might be the first of this kind; at least it is much older than that mentioned by Capt. Grant, viz. 1592, 1593, which he seems to hold to be the oldest.

OF THE LIVERY COMPANIES OF THE CITY OF LONDON.

Although the word *livery* is indisputably derived from the latin *liber* (anciently pronounced *liver*), "free," yet the liverymen of London are a body distinct from the freemen at large; and, besides the advantages they gain in their respective companies, are invested with the sole privilege of electing the magistrates of the city, and its representatives to parliament. This privilege appears to have been obtained about the fifteenth year of the reign of Edward IV. when the master, wardens, and liveries, of the several companies were taken in to assist at the election of mayor, sheriffs, &c. and has continued uninterrupted ever since. They are all members of some one of the city-companies, each of which is a corporation within itself, possessed of the power of holding courts called hall-motes, for regulating the concerns of the company.

These companies were anciently called *guilds*; a term which, in its earliest use, was only applied in a secular sense to the body or community of a city or town; for there were also ecclesiastical guilds. Afterwards we find the aggregate body of the merchants or traders of a city or town, called by the name of *Gilda Mercatoria*; and the head officer thereof was usually called *alderman* of the merchant's guild, whose office seems to have been similar to that of the Dean of Guild in the royal boroughs of Scotland at the present day. In process of time, as trading towns increased in number of inhabitants, the retailers and artificers in great towns obtained charters for incorporating their respective callings; i. e. for engrossing and monopolizing all the business of their town, to the exclusion of non-freemen: they also obtained the names of guild, fraternity, and corporation. We find the last-named kind of guilds in London pretty soon after the Norman conquest: Mr. Madox, in his *Firma Burgi*, takes notice of several



several guilds in London as early as 1180, that were amerced to the crown as *adulterine*, i. e. set up without warrant from the king; as the Goldsmiths, Butchers, Glovers, Curriers, &c. On the other hand, there were then also several warranted or lawful guilds; for it appears that the Weavers of London paid a rent, or *ferme*, as it is called in the style of the exchequer, to king Henry I. who reigned between 1100 and 1135, for their guild; and had, in after times, great disputes with the city of London concerning their high immunities and privileges. But the oldest charters now in being, of the most eminent companies in London, are of a later date; viz. the Goldsmiths and Skinners, not till the year 1327; the Grocers, in 1345; and the other companies still later.

But, in respect to the livery companies, it is to be remarked, that they are not only establishments for carrying on trades, although that was the leading cause of their original incorporation; but they have been always in the practice of admitting upon their rolls persons who have no connection with that or any other trade, who desire to become members of the first corporation in the world, in order to enjoy its privileges, or to represent it in parliament; or of admitting others to whom the high estimation in which it is held throughout the united kingdom has rendered it the first compliment which the city of London can offer to their magnanimity and bravery, to their loyalty and patriotism, to their conduct in the field or on the seas, in the senate or in the cabinet, in the service of their king and country, or to their exemplary worth and integrity as upright citizens. Amongst such as these, the twelve first companies in particular can exhibit names which have been dignified with the applause and admiration of their country, and will ever live in the records of history. But these establishments do not stop here; for they are possessed of endowments which render them trustees for the benefit of their poorer brethren to a very large extent; so that it will be readily seen that every company is an institution of brotherhood and charity, and manifests how numerous and ample are the provisions against the misfortunes to which every class of human life is subjected. The twelve principal companies are seized of Irish estates in the county of Ulster; these were forfeited lands during the rebellion, and thence vested in the crown in 1609. King James proposed to the corporation of London to take them, on condition of their planting and repopling them; the corporation agreed to the proposal, and erected a society for this purpose, called the Irish Society, to treat with the king; and, having agreed to accept the terms, they raised a contribution among the companies of 60,000*l.* for the purchase. On the 29th of May, 11 James I. they were incorporated by the name of "The Governors and Assistants of the New Plantation in Ulster within the Realm of Ireland;" with the grant of cities, manors, and lands, and power to create manors and privileges, not exceeding 1000 acres. This charter vests the estates, in trust, for the ultimate benefit of the twelve chief companies, who were the contributors to this purchase, and hold the estates as a feignory.

Subjoined the reader will find a brief but correct account of every company, placed according to an order of precedence long established, but the motives of which we cannot find, since they are not ranged according to the chronology of their foundations. This order we have also followed in the Plates; while the name of each company will be found in its alphabetical order in the Index at the end of the volume.

PLATE VIII. contains the Armorial Bearings of the City of London, and of the Twelve Principal Companies.

*Arms of the CITY of LONDON.*—Argent, a cross, and in the first quarter a dagger in pale, point elevated; gules. Crest; a dragon's wing argent, charged with a cross as in the arms. Supporters; on each side a dragon argent, wings elevated and charged with a cross as in the crest.

It is generally understood, that the dagger became part of the arms of the city of London after the death of Wat Tyler in 1381; but we are told that there is a stone near Runnymede, bearing date 1285, on which the city-arms appear with a dagger. Yet who can say that the dagger has not been added since? See p. 66.

1. *MERCERS.*—The Company of Mercers, which is the first of the twelve principal companies, was incorporated by letters patent, granted by king Richard II. in the year 1393, under the title of "The Wardens and Commonalty of the Mystery of the Mercers of the City of London," with a licence to purchase an estate of twenty pounds per annum in mortmain, which by numerous gifts and additional grants is so increased, that when, in 1698, the company accepted of Dr. Astton's project for providing a maintenance for clergymen's widows, they invested upwards of fourteen thousand pounds in a fund for securing thirty pounds per cent. per annum, to the widow of each subscriber, during life; but, this annuity being found larger than the fund could bear, it was afterwards reduced to twenty per cent. The members of this company are not only exempt from quarterage, but, upon their admission to the livery, pay only a small fine. They are governed by a prime and three other wardens, and a court of assistants. It is a wealthy company, and they pay in charitable benefactions about three thousand pounds per ann.

The Mercers' Company are trustees for the management of an hospital called Norfolk College, founded in 1613, by Henry earl of Northampton, and by him dedicated to the Holy Trinity. He endowed it with lands and revenues for the support of a warden and twenty pensioners, twelve of whom are to be of the parish of Greenwich, and eight of the parish of Shotisham in Norfolk; they must have been inhabitants four years of the parish whence they are chosen, unmarried, fifty-six years of age at the least, able to repeat the Creed, Lord's Prayer, and Ten Commandments; neither common beggars, drunkards, or otherwise of immoral behaviour; neither idiots, blind, or in any way so impotent as to be unable to attend divine service in the chapel daily; and not possessing property to the amount of 1*l.* per annum; they receive 8*s.* a week for commons, the warden 16*s.* besides clothes, lodging, and salaries, variable at the discretion of the company. The present annual revenue of the college, which is in a very flourishing condition, is about 1100*l.* It stands by the river side, at the east end of the town of Greenwich; it is a brick structure, forming a small quadrangle. At the south-east end of the chapel is a handsome monument of the founder, which was removed with his body from the chapel at Dover Castle, where he had been buried. On a table-tomb, under a canopy supported by eight square pillars, stands a black sarcophagus, on which are inscriptions enumerating his titles and charities, &c. &c.—The Mercers' Company are also vested with the trust of an alms-house, which was founded in 1413, by sir Richard Whittington, thrice lord-mayor of London, for thirteen poor men; this establishment arose out of a college which he had founded on the north side of the church of St. Michael Paternoster, for a master, four fellows, clerks, chorists, &c.—They are also trustees for St. Paul's school.—Their hall is in Cheapside. See p. 470.

*Arms:* Gules, a demi-*virgin* couped below the shoulders, issuing from clouds, all proper, vested or, crowned with an eastern crown of the last, her hair dishevelled, and wreathed round the temples with roses of the second, all within an orle of clouds proper. Motto, *Honor Deo.*—Every company was anciently placed under the protection of some particular saint; and, on the commemoration-day assigned to that saint in the calendar, the company used to meet, go to church, transact the business of their guild, and dine together. These ancient customs have been kept up to this moment, except that of hearing church-service. The patroness of this company is the *Virgin Mary*, their dealings being mostly in silks, threads,  
and



and other articles useful to ladies. The etymology of the word *Mercer* comes from the Latin *merx*, merchandise. This company have no crest nor supporters to their arms.

2. GROCERS.—The Grocers' Company, anciently denominated *Pepperers*, were incorporated by letters-patent of Edward III. in the year 1345, by the name of "The Wardens and Commonalty of the Mystery of the Grocery of the City of London;" which was afterwards confirmed by Henry VI. in 1429, who also granted to this company the office of garbling, in all places throughout the kingdom of England, the city of London only excepted. These grants were confirmed by a new charter, granted by Charles I. in the 15th year of his reign, with an additional power of searching and inspecting the goods and weights of all persons, using or exercising the trade of a grocer in the city and suburbs of London, or within three miles round the same. Anciently they had also the management of the king's beam in this city, with a right of appointing a master weigher and four porters to attend it. This company formerly held the highest rank among the city companies; for in the reign of Henry IV. there were no less than twelve of the aldermen, at one time, belonging to it. It has also been dignified with the names of five kings enrolled among its members. Hall in Grocers' alley, Poultry; (see p. 470.) The livery-fine is 20l. Their estates are of considerable magnitude; out of which they distribute yearly about 1000l. to the poor, and maintain a set of alms-houses on their estate in Northamptonshire.

Arms: Argent, a chevron gules between nine cloves fable, 4, 2, and 3. Crest; a camel proper, bridled gules, on his back a bale argent, corded gules. Supporters; two griffins per fess gules and or. Motto; God grant grace.—We suppose the alliteration of the three G G G in the motto to have been made in allusion to the word Grocer, the etymology of which is *grofs*, as they were originally wholesale dealers in merchandises coming from the Levant.—Patron, St. Anthony, an hermit of the Thebais in Egypt, from and through which country the oriental drugs used to be conveyed to Europe.

3. DRAPERS.—Incorporated anno 1439, by the style and title of "The Master, Wardens, Brethren, and Sisters, of the Guild or Fraternity of the Blessed Mary the Virgin, of the Mystery of Drapers of the City of London." The hall is a spacious edifice, on the north side of Throgmorton-street, built upon the ruins of a palace belonging to Thomas Cromwell, earl of Essex, which stood upon the site of a priory, dedicated to St. Augustine. Being condemned for treason, his property fell to the crown; and this mansion was purchased by the Drapers, who converted it into a handsome hall. That being consumed by the great fire, the present elegant building arose from its ashes. It forms four sides of a square, surrounded by a piazza, composed of columns and arches. The common hall is adorned with portraits of several of the English monarchs, and of Henry Fitz-Alwyn, the first lord-mayor of London, who was a member of this corporation. The court-room, and the other apartments, are handsomely furnished. In one of them is an original picture of Mary queen of Scots, with her infant son, afterwards king James. A pleasant garden, allowing for its situation in the midst of a city, belongs to this hall, which is politely kept open for the accommodation of the public, and affords a safe and airy retreat for the children of the neighbourhood.—In Howel's Familiar Letters, we meet with the following passage relative to a privilege which may be claimed by persons of that name who become members of the Drapers' Company. "Sept. 30, 1629. When I went to bind my brother Ned apprentice in Drapers' Hall, casting my eyes upon the chimney-piece of the great room, I might see a picture of an ancient gentleman, and underneath, *Thomas Howel*. I asked the clerk about him; and he told me that he had been a Spanish merchant in Henry the Eighth's time; and, coming home rich, and dying a bachelor, he gave that hall to the Company of Drapers,

with other things, so that he is accounted one of their chiefest benefactors. I told the clerk, that one of the sons of Thomas Howel came now thither to be bound. He answered, If he be a right Howel, he may have, when he is free, three hundred pounds to help to set up, and pay no interest for five years. It may be hereafter we may make use of this. He told me also, that any maid, that can prove her father to be a true Howel, may come and demand fifty pounds towards her portion, of the said hall."

The company is governed by a master, four wardens, and thirty assistants; livery-fine 25l. Their charitable donations annually were estimated by Maitland, in 1760, at about 4000l. besides which, they are vested with trusts to a considerable amount for such purposes.—Among the charities, the administration of which is vested in the Drapers' Company, is a very ancient one, established on the south-west side of the town of Greenwich, where the roads branch off to London and Lewitham. It is an hospital consisting of twenty small tenements with gardens, which stand very low, and are separated by a dwarf-wall from the London-road; it was founded and endowed anno 1576, by William Lambard, author of the Perambulation of Kent, with the title of Queen Elizabeth's College, for twenty poor persons: he committed it to the trust of the Master of the Rolls (for the time being) and the Drapers' Company. It is said to be the first hospital which was founded by a protestant. The pensioners are appointed in the following manner: One by the Master of the Rolls, one by the two elder wardens of the Drapers' Company, one by the steward of the manor of Greenwich, out of the poor of that parish, one by the vicar and parish-officers, one from Deptford, three from Lewitham, one from Lee, three from Eltham, one from Charlton and Kidbrook, and one from Woolwich. They must be poor, honest, and godly, persons, who have been three years resident in the parish whence they are chosen; they may be either men or women, married or unmarried; the preference is to be given, in the first place, to the aged, who are past their work; secondly, to those who have been maimed; thirdly, to the blind; fourthly, to such as have been impoverished by casualty; fifthly, to those afflicted by any continual sickness, not contagious; and, lastly, to such as are burdened with a numerous family. Other secondary preferences are laid down also to be observed among those in other respects of equal pretensions; such as a man to be preferred before a woman, the married before the unmarried, the person who has been longer of the household of faith before him who has continued later in popish idolatry, &c. The original allowance to the pensioners was 6s. per month; it is now increased to 15s. per month, and one chaldron and a half of coals yearly to each pensioner.—The Drapers' Company are also the trustees for the management of the alms-houses of Francis Bancroft, as mentioned at p. 450. and of those of lady Aikew, noted at p. 458.—Finding the charities of the companies to be so extremely numerous, that it will be impossible for us to enumerate them all, we shall at once beg to refer the reader for full information to a work from which ourselves have derived very great assistance; namely, "*Pietas Londinensis*;" the History of the Public Charities in and near London, by A. Highmore."

Arms: Azure, three clouds proper, radiated or, each surmounted with a triple crown or, caps gules. Crest; on a mount vert, a ram couchant or, attired fable. Supporters; two lions argent pelletée. Motto, Unto God only be honour and glory.—Patroness, the virgin Mary, most likely for the reason assigned at the article MERCERS.

4. FISHMONGERS.—The Fishmongers were originally two bodies, viz. Stock-fishmongers and Salt-fishmongers; and between them had no less than six halls; two in Thames-street, two in New Fish-street, and two in Old Fish-street. Their present and only hall is in Thames-street. See p. 432.—This company, as well as other persons concerned in furnishing the city with provisions,

WERE



were anciently under the immediate direction of the court of lord-mayor and aldermen, to whom this power was confirmed by an act of parliament in the seventh of Richard II. in the year 1384. The Salt-fishmongers were incorporated, A. D. 1433; the Stock-fishmongers not till 1509. But, this separation proving prejudicial to both, they united, and obtained a charter from Henry VIII. in 1536, by which they were incorporated by the name of "The Wardens and Commonalty of the Mystery of Fishmongers of the City of London." After this, a desperate feud arose between this company and the Goldsmiths, about precedency; they grew so violent, that the court of aldermen, by their own authority, were obliged to pronounce them rebellious, and even *bannifati*, or banished the city, such of them as persisted in their contumacy. But, this charter becoming insufficient for the purposes of the company, whose estates and concerns considerably increased, they received from James I. the charter under which they are still incorporated; it bears date the 23d of August, 1604, retains the same title as the charter of Henry VIII. with power to purchase and take lands of the yearly value of 20l. and to any person to give, &c. lands of that value. The corporation consists of a prime and five other wardens, twenty-eight assistants, and a livery, who are not to exceed two hundred, and their fine is 13l. 6s. 8d.—There are, in the gift of the court of assistants, twelve exhibitions, of 10l. a-year each, to students, in either of the universities, except one, which is confined to Cambridge. The students enjoy them for seven years, from the time they are entered at college. If any candidate has been entered at their school at Holt, he has sometimes the preference, but not always; and no person can be admitted a candidate who has any annual employment of 30l. There are also in the gift of the court six presentations to Christ's Hospital, of children of freemen of this company, which are filled up by death or removal from the hospital of any such children as the court may from time to time present. The court has also the nomination of a person to the fellowship of Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge, called Smith's Fellowship; the value of which is supposed to be from 70l. to 100l. per annum; also of a scholar from Holt School, to Smith's Scholarship in the same college, with an exhibition of 12l. per annum, paid by the company, exclusive of the profits of the scholarships: this constitutes one of the twelve exhibitions above mentioned. They have also the nomination of a master to Sir John Gresham's free grammar-school at Holt in Norfolk, which is under the government of the company. The court also appoint two persons, freemen of the company, to be their tackle-porters at the water-side, for shipping and unshipping goods; and two other freemen to be the company's fish-meters, to prevent the landing and disposing of unwholesome fish, within the jurisdiction of London and the suburbs, at 10l. per annum each. Their alms-houses are ninety-four in number, viz. forty-two at Newington, Surry, called St. Peter's Hospital, noticed at p. 514, 15. forty at Jesus Hospital, at Bray in Berkshire; and twelve at Harrietham in Kent; all which are particularly described in Highmore's Public Charities, referred to above.

Arms: Azure, three dolphins naiant in pale argent, finned and ducally crowned or, between two pair of lucies (or pikes, in Latin, *lucius*) in saltier proper, over the head of each lucy a ducal crown gold; on a chief gules three pair of keys indorsed in saltier or. Crest; two cubit-arms erect, the dexter vested or, the sinister azure, both cuffed argent, holding in the hands proper a regal crown of the last. Supporters; the dexter a merman proper, on his head a helmet, the body in armour, in his dexter hand a sabre, all of the first; the sinister a mermaid proper, crined or, in her sinister hand a mirror of the last. Motto, All worship be to God only.—Patron, St. Peter, on account of his having been a fisherman.

5. **GOLDSMITHS.**—The Company of Goldsmiths appears to be of great antiquity; for in the reign of Henry II. in

the year 1180, it was, among other guilds, fined for being adulterine, that is, setting up without the king's special license. But at length, in 1327, Edward III. in consideration of the sum of ten marks, incorporated this company by letters patent, by the name of "The Wardens and Commonalty of the Mystery of Goldsmiths of the City of London;" and granted them the privilege of purchasing an estate of twenty pounds per annum in mortmain, for the support of their valetudinary members; which grant, in the year 1394, was confirmed by Richard II. for the sum of twenty marks. These grants were afterwards confirmed by Edward IV. in the year 1462, who also constituted this society a body politic and corporate, to have a perpetual succession, and a common seal. By the said grant they had likewise the privilege of inspecting, trying, and regulating, all gold and silver wares, not only in this city, but in other parts of the kingdom; and this privilege has been since so materially enlarged, that they have the power of inspecting all gold and silver wares in the following particular places, viz. Birmingham, Sheffield, Chester, Newcastle, Norwich, and Exeter; with the power of punishing all offenders concerned in working adulterated gold and silver; and of making bye-laws for their better government. This company is governed by a master, four wardens, and ninety-eight assistants; the livery-fine is 21l. Hall in Foster-lane; see p. 485.

Arms: Quarterly, gules and azure; in the first and fourth a leopard's head or; second and third, a covered cup; and in chief two round buckles, the tongues fesswise, points to the dexter, all of the third. Crest; a demi-lady, her arms extended proper, issuing out of clouds of the last, vested gules, garnished or, cuffed argent, round her neck a ruff of the last; in her dexter hand a pair of scales gold, in her sinister hand a touchstone sable. Supporters; two unicorns or, armed, crined, and hooped, argent. Motto, *Justitia virtutum regina*. They used also the motto, To God only be all glory.—Patron, St. Dunstan, whom tradition reports to have been a goldsmith by trade.

6. **SKINNERS.**—The Skinners' Company was incorporated by Edward III. in the year 1327, by the appellation of "The Master and Wardens of the Guild or Fraternity of the Body of Christ, of the Skinners of London." This charter was afterwards confirmed by Henry VI. in the year 1438; which deed of confirmation directs, that every person, on his being admitted to the freedom of the company, is to be presented to the lord-mayor. By these grants the corporation were restrained from making bye-laws. This company is governed by a master, four wardens, and sixty assistants. The fine on admission is 15l. The members of this company pay no quarterage, owing to their being possessed of great estates left in trust to them by several benefactors, out of which they pay 700l. annually to charitable purposes.—Their hall is on Dowgate hill, and has been noticed at p. 429. Besides their alms-houses mentioned at p. 455, they have another set, (adjoining those of the Trinity-house, p. 450.) founded by Louis Newbury in 1698, for twelve poor widows, who receive each 18l. per ann.

Arms: Ermine, on a chief gules, three crowns composed of crosses patée and fleurs de lis or, with caps of the first. Crest; a Norwegian cat gardant proper, wreathed about the neck with laurel-leaves vert, purfled or. Supporters; the dexter a cat as above, rampant gardant, proper; the sinister a martin sable; each gorged as above. Motto, To God only be all glory.—Patroness the virgin Mary, for reasons similar to those stated at the articles Mercers and Drapers.

7. **MERCHANT TAYLORS.**—The Company of Merchant Taylors, which was anciently denominated "Taylors and Linen-Armourers," was incorporated by letters patent of Edward IV. in the year 1466; but, many of the members of the company being great merchants, and Henry VII. a member thereof, he, in the year 1503, re-incorporated the same, by the name of "The Master and Wardens of the Merchant Taylors, of the Fraternity of St. John the Baptist, in the City of London." They



are governed by a master, four wardens, and a court of thirty-eight assistants. Their livery is numerous; and their estates are very considerable; out of which they pay to charitable uses, pursuant to the wills of the respective donors, about two thousand pounds per annum. Their hall is in Thread-needle-street. In the front is a large handsome door-case, adorned with two demi-columns; the entablature and pediment of which are of the composite order. Above the entrance are the arms of the company, finely carved in stone. Within are tapestry hangings, containing the history of their patron, St. John the Baptist, which, though very old, are curious and valuable. The great hall is so extensive, that it is better adapted for the reception of large assemblies than any other in the city; and is therefore often used for such purposes; and it was particularly honoured on the 17th of June last, by being made the scene of a grand entertainment given by the merchants and bankers of the city of London to the emperor of Russia, the king of Prussia, the duchess of Oldenburg, and the other illustrious visitors who honoured this country with their presence upon the occasion of the conclusion of a long and disastrous war. Merchant Taylors' School is a noble foundation, which has been noticed at p. 428.

Arms: A royal tent between two parliament-robos gules, lined ermine, the tent garnished or, tent-staff and pennon of the same; on a chief azure a lion passant gardant of the third. Crest; on a mount vert, a lamb passant holding a banner argent, the staff proper; on the banner a cross gules, all within a glory of the third. Supporters; two camels or. Motto, *Concordia parva res crescunt*.—Patron, St. John the Baptist; on account of his having made himself, as it is supposed, clothes of camel's hair in the desert, it being related in Mark. i. 6. that he wore such. The supporters and crest are allusive to the same text.

8. HABERDASHERS.—This company was anciently known by the name of Hurriers and Milainers, from their dealing principally in merchandise imported from Milan in Italy. They were afterwards incorporated by Henry VI. in the year 1467, by the style of "The Fraternity of St. Catharine the Virgin, of the Haberdashers of the City of London." At present, however, they are denominated "The Master and Four Wardens of the Fraternity of the Art or Mystery of Haberdashers in the City of London;" but by what authority does not appear. This corporation is governed by a master, four wardens, and ninety-three assistants. It has at all times been of such repute, that it has been intrusted with the benefactions of many pious persons, pursuant to the wills and directions of whom, they pay annually for charitable uses about three thousand five hundred pounds. The livery-fine is twenty-five pounds.—Their hall, which is in Maiden-lane Wood-street, has been noticed at p. 483, and their alms-houses, otherwise called Aske's hospital, at p. 460.

Arms: Barry nebuly of six, argent and azure; on a bend gules, a lion passant gardant or. Crest; two arms embowed proper, issuing from clouds of the last, holding a chaplet of laurel vert. Supporters; two Indian goats argent, attired and unguled or. Motto, *Serve and obey*.

9. SALTERS.—This company appears to be of great antiquity, from the grant of a livery from Richard II. in the year 1394; but we do not find they were incorporated till the first of Elizabeth, in the year 1558, when, by letters patent, they were styled, "The Master, Wardens, and Commonalty, of the Art or Mystery of Salters of London." This company is governed by a master, two wardens, and twenty-three assistants. Livery-fine, twenty pounds.—Their hall is in Swithin's lane. They expend large sums in charitable foundations, some of which we have noticed in the course of our survey, at p. 422 and 483.

Arms: Per chevron azure and gules, three covered salts, or sprinkling-salt-cups, argent. Crest; a cubit-arm erect, issuing from clouds, all proper, holding a salt-cup as in the arms. Supporters; two otters sable, bezantée ducally collared and chained or. Motto, *Sal sapit omnia*, "Salt seasons all things." This motto is appropriate;

but we cannot guess what analogy the supporters (otters) have to salt.—We do not find under whose protection this company was placed. The wife of the patriarch Lot would have been a proper person; had not her fatal curiosity prevented her being placed among the saints.

10. IRONMONGERS.—The Ironmongers' Company was incorporated in the year 1464, by the name and style of "The Master and Keepers, or Wardens, and Commonalty, of the Art or Mystery of Ironmongers of London;" and, by virtue of the charter, the government of it is now in a master, two wardens, and a court of assistants, which consists of the whole livery, and represents the commonalty, or whole freedom.

This company enjoys very great estates both in their own right and in trust from several donors, by whose wills they pay yearly near 1800l. in charities; besides the interest or profits of 26,000l. left to them by Mr. Thomas Betton, a Turkey merchant, in the year 1724, under the special trust of employing one moiety of the said profits perpetually in the redemption of British captives from Moorish slavery; and the other moiety to be equally distributed between the poor of the Company of Ironmongers, and the several charity-schools within the bills of mortality. In the year 1734, about a hundred and thirty-five captive Britons, nine of whom were commanders of vessels, arrived in England from the states of Barbary, and were presented to the king and the lords of the admiralty. The king gave them 100l. and several of the nobility and gentry five and ten guineas each, to which Sir Charles Wager added 50l. They afterwards dined together at the company's hall. The company, through correspondence with the British consuls at Algiers and its dependencies, have been continually instrumental in effecting the liberty of many slaves, about thirty of whom (says Highmore) have been emancipated within the last six years, and some of them have presented themselves at the company's great meetings. When will the powers of Europe combine to render such a charity unnecessary?

The Ironmongers have a stately and spacious hall on the north side of Fenchurch-street; erected in the year 1748. It is entirely fronted with stone, and the whole lower story is wrought in rustic. The centre projects a little; and presents a large arched entrance, and two windows, with two others on each side. Over this rustic story rises the superstructure, which has a light rustic at the corners, to keep up a correspondence with the rest of the building: the part which projects is ornamented with four Ionic pilasters, coupled, but with a large intercolumniation. In the middle is a very noble Venetian window, and over it a circular one. In each space, between the pilasters, is a smaller window, with an angular pediment; and over these are also circular ones; but the sides have arched windows, with square ones over them. The central part is crowned with a pediment, supported by these pilasters, and in its plane are carved the arms of the company, with handsome decorations in relieve. The rest of the building is terminated by a balustrade crowned with vases.

Arms: Argent, on a chevron gules, three swivels or, between three steel-gads azure. Crest; two scaly lizards, combatant, vert, gorged with a plain collar, the collars chained together; a chain with a ring at the end, pendant between the two lizards, collars, chain, and ring, or. Supporters; none. Motto, anciently *Affer (affiez) dure*; "Hard enough;" now, God is our strength. Patron, St. Laurence, on account of the instrument of his martyrdom, the gridiron.

11. VINTNERS.—The Vintners' Company was anciently denominated *Merchant Wine-tunners of Gascoyne*; and was composed of two sorts of dealers; viz. the *Vintinarii*, who were the importers of the wine; and the *Tabernarii*, who were the retailers of it. Some authors have erroneously asserted, that the craft of Vintners was incorporated by Edward III. which mistake arises from his charter, granted in the year 1365, to enable them to carry on an exclusive

importation.



importation-trade from Gascony. They were incorporated in the year 1437, by letters patent of Henry VI. by the name of "The Master, Wardens, and Freemen and Commonalty, of the Myftery of Vintners of the City of London;" but without the power of making bye-laws. This company is governed by a master, three wardens, and twenty-eight assistants. The freemen belonging to this company have the peculiar privilege of retailing wine without a license. They have considerable possessions, out of which they pay large sums annually for the relief of the poor.

Arms: Sable, a chevron between three tuns argent. We find neither supporters, crest, nor motto, to these arms, which were granted by Clarenceux in 1442.—The reason why this company chose St. Martin for their patron is fully stated in the account of the hall, at p. 425.

12. CLOTHWORKERS.—This company was at first incorporated by letters patent of Edward IV. in the year 1482, by the name of "The Fraternity of the Assumption of the Blessed Virgin Mary, of the Shearmen of London;" which was confirmed by Henry VIII. in the year 1528. But, they being afterwards re-incorporated by queen Elizabeth, she changed their first title to that of "The Master, Wardens, and Commonalty of Freemen, of the Art and Myftery of Clothworkers of the City of London." The last charter was confirmed by Charles I. in 1634. They are governed by a master, four wardens, and thirty-nine (Highmore says 33) assistants. The livery-fine is twenty pounds. They have considerable estates both in their own right, and in trust for others; out of which they pay large sums of annually to charitable purposes.—Their hall, which is in Mincing-lane, Fenchurch-street, has been described at p. 437.

Arms: Sable, a chevron argent, between habics in chief argent, and a thistle in base slipped or. Crest; on a mount vert, a ram statant or. Supporters; two griffins or, pelletée. Motto, My trust is in God alone.—Patrons; the Virgin Mary, for the reasons stated before.

#### PLATE IX.

13. DYERS.—This company was incorporated by Edward IV. in the year 1472, by the name of "The Wardens and Commonalty of the Myftery of Dyers of London." Among other privileges granted to this company by their charter, is that of keeping swans on the river Thames. This was originally one of the twelve principal companies. It is governed by two wardens and thirty assistants; the livery-fine is fifteen pounds.—Their hall is in Elbow-lane, for a description of which, see p. 429. and for a short account of their alms-houses, see p. 489.

Arms: Azure, a chevron engrailed argent, between three bags of madder of the last, corded or. Crest; an eastern crown or, filled with green. Supporters; two leopards, rampant gardant argent, spotted with various roundels, fire issuing from their ears and mouth proper, both ducally crowned or. Motto, *Da gloriam Deo*, "Give glory to God."

14. BREWERS.—The Brewers' Company was incorporated by Henry VI. in the year 1438, by the name of "The Master, and Keepers or Wardens, and Commonalty, of the Myftery or Art of Brewers of the City of London." Edward IV. not only confirmed that charter, but granted them a further power to make bye-laws. They are governed by a master, three wardens, and twenty-eight assistants; livery-fine, 6l. 13s. 4d.—Their hall is in Alder-street: it is a large and commodious building, supported by very neat pillars, and with a handsome entrance into a court paved with free-stone.

Arms: Gules, on a chevron argent, between three pair of barley-garbs in saltier or, three tuns sable. This corporation anciently bore the arms of Thomas-à-Becket impaled with their own; but, that saint's bones being taken up and burnt, and unfainted, by the powers in being, Clarenceux king at arms, in the year 1544, separated them, and gave the Brewers a crest in lieu thereof; which is,

a demi Moorish woman, couped at the knees proper, her hair dishevelled or, habited sable, fretté argent, her arms extended, holding in each hand three ears of barley of the cond. Motto, In God is all our trust.

15. LEATHER-SELLERS.—These were incorporated by a charter from Henry VI. in 1442, by the style of "The Wardens and Society of the Myftery, or Art, of Leather-sellers of the City of London." And, by a grant from Henry VII. the wardens of this company were empowered to inspect sheep, lamb, and calf, leather, throughout the kingdom, in order to prevent frauds in those commodities. The corporation is governed by a master, who is called *prime*, three wardens, and twenty-six assistants; and the fine, on admission to the livery, is twenty pounds.—Since their hall has been pulled down, this company meets in a house in Little St. Helen's. See p. 455 and 483.

Arms: Argent, three bucks trippant regardant gules, attired and unguled sable. Crest; a buck trippant gules. Supporters; the dexter a buck or, attired sable; the sinister a ram argent, attired or. Motto, *Soli Deo honor et gloria*, "To God alone be honour and glory."

16. PEWTERERS.—Incorporated by letters patent of Edward IV. in the year 1474, by the title of "The Master, Wardens, and Commonalty, of the Art and Myftery of Pewterers of the City of London." In the year 1534, the wardens of this company, or their deputies, were empowered by act of parliament to have the inspection of pewter in all parts of the kingdom, in order to prevent the sale of base pewter, and the importation of pewter vessels from abroad; and, as a farther encouragement to this company, all Englishmen are by the said act strictly enjoined not to repair to any foreign country to teach the art or myftery of pewterers, on pain of disfranchisement; and, for the more effectually preventing the art from being carried abroad, no pewterer shall take as an apprentice the son of an alien. This corporation is governed by a master, two wardens, and twenty-eight assistants: livery-fine, twenty pounds. Their hall is in Lime-street. See p. 453.

Arms: Argent, on a chevron or, between three antique limbecs argent, as many roses gules, seeded of the second, barbed vert. Crest; out of a mount vert, two arms embowed proper, vested argent, cuffed gules, holding in both hands erect a dish of the third. Supporters; two sea-horses or, their tails proper. Motto, In God is all my trust.

17. BARBERS.—The art of surgery was anciently practised in this city only by the barbers, who were incorporated by letters patent in the year 1461; and in 1512, an act was passed to prevent any persons besides the barbers from practising surgery within the city of London, and seven miles round, except such as were duly examined and admitted by the bishop of London, or dean of St. Paul's, and such persons expert in surgery as they should think proper to call to their assistance. At length, several persons who were not barbers being examined and admitted as practitioners in the art of surgery, the parliament united them in the thirty-second year of Henry VIII. by the appellation of "The Master or Governors of the Myftery or Commonalty of Barbers and Surgeons of the City of London;" and, by this act, all persons practising the art of shaving were strictly enjoined not to intermeddle with that of surgery, except what belonged to drawing of teeth. Thus this company obtained the name of Barber-Surgeons, which they continued to enjoy till the eighteenth of George II. when the Surgeons, applying to parliament to have this union dissolved, were formed into a separate company; though the Barbers were left in possession of the hall and theatre, and were constituted a body politic, under the name of "The Master, Governors, and Commonalty, of the Myftery of Barbers of London." This company is under the government of a master, three wardens, and twenty-six assistants; the livery-fine is ten pounds. The hall is in Monkwell-street: see p. 483.

Arms: Quarterly, first and fourth sable, a chevron between three razors argent; second and third argent, a rose gules



gules crowned with an imperial crown proper; over all a cross, also gules, charged in the centre with a lion passant guardant or. Crest; a dragon passant proper, wings elevated and purfled gules. Supporters; on each side a leopard argent, semé of roundels, gules, sable, and azure; collared with a ducal coronet and chain or. Motto, *De præscientiâ Dei*; "From the foreknowledge of God."

18. CUTLERS.—The Company of Cutlers was incorporated in the year 1417, by the style of "The Master, Wardens, and Commonalty, of the Mystery of Cutlers of London." And they were afterwards united to the Belt and Sheath Makers. They are governed by a master, two wardens, and twenty-one assistants; the livery-fine is ten pounds.—Their hall is in Cloak-lane; it is a small but very neat brick building, conveniently fitted-up for transacting the business of the company.

Arms: Gules, three pair of swords in saltier argent, hilted and pomelled or, two and one. Crest; an elephant argent, armed or, on his back a tower of the first; the trappings, ornaments, &c. of the second. Supporters; two elephants argent.

19. BAKERS.—The Company of Bakers appears to be of great antiquity, (see p. 60.) In the year 1155, it was charged in the great roll of the exchequer with a debt of one mark of gold for their guild; by which it seems as if the ancient guilds had held their privileges in fee-farm of the crown. This company, however, was not incorporated till about the year 1307; after which their charter was renewed by Henry VII. and confirmed by divers of his successors. It is incorporated by the name of "The Master and Wardens of the Mystery or Art of Bakers of the City of London." Livery-fine, ten pounds.—Their hall is in Harp-lane; see p. 435.

Arms: Gules, a balance between three garbs or; on a chief Barry wavy of six argent and azure, between two anchors in pale, the flukes in chief, an arm embowed proper, vested gules, cuffed or, holding a balance, and issuing from clouds proper. Crest; issuing from clouds proper, two arms embowed, vested gules, cuffed or, holding in the hands a chaplet of wheat gold. Supporters; two flags proper, attired or, each gorged with a wreath as in the crest.

20. WAX-CHANDLERS.—This was a flourishing company in days of old, when gratitude to saints called so frequently for lights. How many thousands of wax-candles were consumed on those occasions, and what quantities the expiatory offerings of private persons, none can enumerate. *Candle-mass* day wasted its thousands; and those all blessed by the priests, and adjoined in solemn terms: as "I adjure thee, O waxen creature, that thou repel the devil and his sprights, &c. &c." (Bourne's Antiq. Vulg.) This company was incorporated in 1483; and the following repait, more frugal than elegant, was given on the occasion:

	£.	s.	d.
Two loins of mutton, and two of veal	0	1	4
A loin of beef	0	0	4
A leg of mutton	0	0	2½
A pig	0	0	4
A capon	0	0	6
A coney	0	0	2
One dozen of pigeons	0	0	7
A hundred eggs	0	0	8½
A goose	0	0	6
A gallon of red wine	0	0	8
A kilderkin of ale	0	0	8
	£	0	7 0

They are governed by a master, wardens, and assistants: the livery-fine is five pounds.—Hall in Maiden-lane; see p. 483.

Arms: Azure, on a chevron argent, between three lamps or, as many roses gules, seeded of the third, and barbed vert. Crest; a demi-maiden, vested or, in her hand a chaplet of roses gules, leafed vert. Supporters;

two unicorns gules, gorged with a chaplet of roses as in the crest. Motto, Truth is the light.

21. TALLOW-CHANDLERS.—Incorporated by Edward IV. in the year 1460, by the name of "The Master and Keepers of the Art and Mystery of Tallow-chandlers of the City of London." It is governed by a master, four wardens, and a court of assistants: livery-fine, 15l. 8s.—Hall on Dowgate-hill.

Arms: Per fefs azure and argent, a pale counterchanged, three doves volant of the last, each holding in the beak an olive-branch vert. Crest; a demi-angel, vested azure, wings expanded or, crined of the last, holding a dish argent, thereon the head of St. John the Baptist, proper. Supporters; two angels proper, vested argent, wings and hair or, crowned with a celestial crown of the last. Motto, *Ecce Agnus Dei, qui tollit peccata mundi*; "Behold the Lamb of God, which taketh away the sins of the world." John i. 29.

22. ARMOURERS and BRAZIERERS.—The Company of Armourers was incorporated by Henry VI. about the year 1423, by the title of "The Master and Wardens, Brothers and Sisters, of the Fraternity or Guild of St. George, of the Men of the Mysteries of the Armourers of the City of London." The same prince also honoured the company by becoming one of their members. To this company, which formerly made coats of mail, is united that of the Braziers; and they are jointly governed by a master, two wardens, and twenty-one assistants: livery-fine, fifteen pounds.—Their hall is near the north-east corner of Coleman-street. It is an old plain brick-building; the court-room has been lately decorated with a painting by Northcote of the Entrance of Richard II. and Bolingbroke into London, purchased by the company for 113l. 8s.

Arms: Argent, on a chevron sable a hand proper; on a chief of the second, a shield between two helmets argent; impaling for the Braziers, azure, on a chief argent, between two ewers in chief and a pot in base or, three roses gules, seeded or, barbed vert. Crest; a demi-man in armour proper, garnished or; on his head a plume of three feathers, two argent, one gules, round the waist a sash of the last; holding in his dexter hand a sword proper. Supporters; two men in armour proper; the plume, sash, and sword, as in the crest. Motto, We are one.

23. GIRDLEERS.—This company was incorporated in the twenty-seventh of Henry VI. on the 6th of August, 1449; and re-incorporated with the Pinners and Wire-drawers by queen Elizabeth on the 12th of October, 1568, by the name of "The Master and Wardens or Keepers of the Art or Mystery of the Girdlers of London." It is governed by a master, three wardens, and twenty-four assistants: livery-fine, 10l. Hall in Basinghall-street. See p. 480.

Arms: Per fefs azure and or, a pale counterchanged; three gridirons of the last, the handles in chief. Crest; a demi-man proper, vested azure, holding a gridiron as in the arms.—From the arms, we should suppose, that the original and proper name of the company was Gridlers, or gridiron-makers.

24. BUTCHERS.—The Company of Butchers appears to be of great antiquity; for, in the 26th of Henry II. it was fined for setting up a guild without the king's license. Its present charter was not granted till the third of James I. who, on the 16th of September, 1605, did by letters patent incorporate them by the name of "The Master, Wardens, and Commonalty, of the Art or Mystery of Butchers of the City of London." They are governed by a master, five wardens, and twenty-one assistants: livery-fine, ten guineas.—Their hall is in Padding-lane: the building is small and neat, containing three handsome rooms, wainscoted and decorated with fret-work.

Arms: Azure, two slaughter-axes indorfed in saltier argent, handled or, between three bulls' heads coupéd of the second, armed of the third, two and one; on a chief argent a boar's head coupéd gules, between two bushes of knee-holly vert. Crest; a bull argent, with wings indorfed,



dorfed, armed and hoofed or, a halo of the laft around the head. Motto, *Omnia fubjecifti fub pedibus, oves et boves*; "Thou haft put all things under his feet; fheep and oxen." Pf. viii. 6, 7.

25. **SADLERS.**—The fraternity of Sadlers appears to be of great antiquity, by a convention between them and the dean and chapter of St. Martin's-le-Grand, about the reign of Richard I. but we do not find that they were legally incorporated till Edward I. granted them a charter by the ftyle of "The Wardens or Keepers, and Commonalty, of the Myftery or Art of Sadlers of London." They are governed by a prime, three other wardens, and a court of affiftants: livery-fine, ten pounds.—Hall in Cheapfide.

Arms: Azure, a chevron between three faddles complete or. Crest; a horfe paffant argent, crined, bridled, faddled, and trappings, or. Supporters, two horfes argent, hoofed and bridled or.

26. **CARPENTERS.**—This ancient fraternity was incorporated by letters patent of Edward III. in the year 1344, by the name of "The Mafter, Wardens, Affiftants, and Commonalty, of the Myftery of the Freemen of the Carpenters of the City of London;" with a power to make bye-laws for their better regulation. It is governed by a mafter, wardens, and court of affiftants: livery-fine, twelve pounds.—The hall is in the ftreet called London Wall, nearly oppofite the eaft end of old Bethlem Hofpital. This building is very old; and, like many of the city-halls before the fire of London, is principally compofed of timber and plafter; yet it is not devoid of beauty. It has a very pleafant profpect into the gardens of Drapers' Hall. At prefent it is ufed as a carpet-warehouse.

Arms: Argent, a chevron engrailed between three pair of compaffes expanded at the points, fable. We find neither creft, fupporters, nor motto.

27. **CORDWAINERS.**—The Company of Cordwainers, or Shoemakers, was at firft incorporated by Henry IV. in the year 1410, by the name of Cordwainers and Coblers, the latter of which names was at that time far from being contemptible, as it fignified not only a shoemaker, but a dealer in fhoes; nor does it appear that the word shoemaker was then in ufe. Since the original incorporation, the company have obtained a fresh charter, by which they are now called "The Mafter, Wardens, and Commonalty, of the Myftery of Cordwainers of the City of London." Livery-fine, ten pounds.—Their hall is in Dittaff-lane. See p. 483.

A fund is vefted, by the will of Mr. Came, in the Cordwainers' Company, for the relief, by penfion, of the widows of clergymen who had a fettled duty, at their deceafe, as clergymen in London, or within twenty miles thereof; the widows, having no children, muft be of forty years of age, and, having children unprovided for, they muft be thirty-five years at leaft.—Alfo another fund, by the will of the fame gentleman, for blind men of forty-five years of age, and blind women of forty years of age. The forms, and information how to proceed in claiming either of thefe charities, are readily furnished by the clerk at the hall.

Arms: Azure, a chevron or, between three goats' heads erafed argent, attired of the fecond. Crest; a goat's head as in the arms.

28. **PAINTER STAINERS.**—Incorporated by letters-patent of queen Elizabeth in the year 1581, by the name of "The Mafter, Wardens, and Commonalty, of the Freedom of the Art and Myftery of Painting, called Painter Stainers, within the City of London." They are governed by a mafter, two wardens, and nineteen affiftants: livery-fine, fourteen pounds. For a further account of this company, and of their hall in Little Trinity-lane, fee p. 423, 4.

A fund is vefted in this company, by the wills of Mr. Stock and others, which is fufficient to enable them to relieve 175 blind penfioners at 10l. each. For which application is made by petition: the forms are to be had of the clerk, at the company's hall.

Arms: Quarterly, firft and fourth azure, three ef-cutcheons, two and one, argent; fecond and third azure, a chevron argent between three griffins' heads erafed proper. Crest; a phoenix, wings expanded or, iffuing out of flames proper. Supporters; two leopards argent, spotted with various colours, ducally crowned, collared and chained or. Motto, *Amor et obedientia*, "Love and obedience."

29. **CURRIERS.**—The Curriers are a company of confiderable antiquity; and founded a guild, or brotherhood, in the conventual church of White Friars, in Fleet-ftreet, in the year 1367. James I. incorporated them on the 30th of April, 1605, by the ftyle of "The Mafter, Wardens, and Commonalty, of the Art or Myftery of the Curriers of the City of London." By Jac. I. c. 22. they were empowered to buy leather, curry it, and fell it again in pieces; whereas, previous to that, they could only curry the leather lent them by others. Since that time, therefore, they have flourifhed as individuals; though, as a company, they are poor, becaufe they have fpent all their money in law-fuits with their journeymen. They are governed, like moft of the other companies, by a mafter, two wardens, and a court of affiftants. Their hall is near Philip-lane, Cripplegate.

Arms: Sable, a crofs engrailed or, between four pair of currier's fhaves in falzier argent, handled of the fecond. Crest; two arms embowed proper, vefted to the elbow argent, holding in their hands a shave as in the arms. Supporters; on the dexter a buck proper, attired and hoofed or; on the finifter a goat argent, armed and hoofed or. Motto, *Spes noftra Deus*, "God is our hope."

30. **MASONS.**—This company was originally incorporated about the year 1410, by the name and ftyle of "The Free Mafons." In 1474, William Hanckflow, Clarenceux king at arms, granted them the arms of their fociety, as borne at this time; but the prefent company aft under the incorporation granted by letters patent of the twenty-ninth of Charles II. on the 17th of September, 1677, by the name of "The Mafter, Wardens, Affiftants, and Commonalty, of the Company of Mafons of the City of London." They are governed by a mafter, two wardens, and twenty-two affiftants: livery-fine, 11. 16s. Hall in Mafons'-alley, Bafinghall-ftreet.

Arms: Azure, on a chevron between three towers argent, a pair of compaffes open fable. Crest; a tower as in the arms.

31. **PLUMBERS.**—This company was incorporated on the 12th of April, 1611, by the name of "The Mafter, Wardens, and Commonalty, of the Myftery of Plumbers of the City of London." It is governed by a mafter, two wardens, and twenty-four affiftants: livery-fine, thirteen pounds.

Arms: Or, on a chevron fable, between two plummets in chief, and a level reverfed in bafe, two foldering-irons in falzier, between a cutting-knife on the dexter and a shave-hook on the finifter, argent; in the chief point a crofs-ftaff feffwife of the fecond. Crest; a triple fountain or, iffuing water proper; on the top an angel of the laft, vefted argent, ducally crowned and winged of the firft, holding in the dexter hand a fword, and in the finifter a pair of fcales, both or. See Plate IX. where the creft has been executed with the greateft care and correftnefs; and does credit to the engraver, who has made the whole of it plain in fo fmall a fpace.

32. **INNOLDERS.**—Thefe were incorporated by Henry VIII. on the 21ft of December, 1515, by the name of "The Mafter, Wardens, and Company, of the Art or Myftery of Innholders of the City of London." It is governed by a mafter, three wardens, and twenty affiftants: livery-fine, ten pounds. Hall, Great Elbow-lane.

Arms: Azure, a chevron quarterly argent and gules, between three garbs or; on a chief or St. Julian's crofs fable. Crest; an etoile of fix points or, in clouds proper, iffuing its rays gold. Supporters; two horfes regardant argent.



## PLATE X.

33. **FOUNDERS.**—The Founders were incorporated by letters patent of the twelfth of James I. in the year 1614, by the name of “The Master, Wardens, and Commonalty, of the Mystery of Founders of the City of London;” and they have power to search all brass weights, and brass and copper wares, within the city of London, and three miles round; and all makers of brass weights within that circuit are obliged to have their several weights sized by the company’s standard, and marked with their common mark; and such of these weights as are of avoirdupois weight, to be sealed at Guildhall; and those of troy-weight at Goldsmiths’-hall. The Founders are governed by a master, two wardens, and twenty-four assistants: livery-fine, 8l. 7s. 6d. Hall in Lothbury. See p. 479.

Arms: Azure, a laver-pot (i. e. vase) between two taper candlesticks or. Crest; a fiery furnace, two arms issuing from clouds, on the sinister side, proper, vested azure, holding in both hands a pair of closing-tongs sable, taking hold of the melting-pot in the furnace proper. Motto, God the only Founder.

34. **POULTERERS.**—Incorporated by letters patent of Henry VII. in the year 1504, by the name of “The Master, Wardens, and Assistants, of Poulterers, London.” Governed by a master, two wardens, and twenty-three assistants: livery fine, twenty pounds. They have no hall.

Arms: Argent, on a chevron between three storks azure, as many swans proper. Crest; on a mural coronet sable, a stork with wings expanded gules. Supporters; two pelicans or, with wings close, vulning their breasts proper.

35. **COOKS.**—This society was incorporated by letters patent of Edward IV. in the year 1480, by the name of “The Masters, and Governors, and Commonalty, of the Mystery of Cooks, in London.” Every person desirous of becoming a member of this company must be presented to the lord-mayor before he can be admitted to the freedom. It is governed by a master, wardens, and twenty-five assistants. Livery-fine, 10l. They had formerly a convenient hall in Alderfgate-street, which was destroyed by fire in 1771; and, not being rebuilt, the business of the company is transacted at Guildhall.

Arms: Argent, a chevron ingrailed gules, between three columbines proper, stalked and leaved vert. Crest; a mount vert; thereon a cock-pheasant proper. Supporters; the dexter a buck proper, attired or; the sinister a hind proper; each pierced in the shoulder with an arrow or. Motto, *Vulnerati, non victu*; “Wounded, not conquered.”

36. **COOPERS.**—The Coopers’ Company was incorporated in 1501, by letters patent of Henry VII. under the title of “The Master, Wardens, and Assistants, of the Company of Coopers of London and Suburbs thereof;” and, in the succeeding reign, was empowered, by an act of parliament, to search and gauge all beer, ale, and soap, vessels, within the city of London, and two miles round its suburbs, for which they were allowed a farthing for each cask. They are governed by a master, three wardens, and twenty assistants: their livery are very numerous; fine, fifteen pounds. Their hall is in Basinghall-street.—Alms-houses for six of their poor members, founded in 1613, by Toby Wood, esq. are situated at Ratcliffe.

Arms: Gyronny of eight gules and sable; on a chevron between three annulets or, a grose between two adzes (i. e. axes) argent; on a chief, vert, three lilies slipped, stalked, and leaved, argent. Crest; a demi-heathcock, with wings expanded, azure, powdered with annulets or; in the beak a lily argent. Supporters; two camels gules, bridled or, powdered with annulets of the last.

37. **TILERS and BRICKLAYERS.**—Though this fraternity appears to be very ancient, yet they were not incorporated till the reign of Elizabeth, who, by her letters patent, dated the 3d of August, 1568, incorporated them by the name of “The Master and Keepers, or Wardens, of the Society of Freeman of the Mystery or Art of Tilers and Bricklayers of London.” This company is governed

by a master, two wardens, and thirty-eight assistants: livery-fine, 12l. They had formerly a convenient hall in a court on the fourth side of Leadenhall-street; but it has been long deserted by the company, and is now used as a Jews’ synagogue. The business of the company is transacted at the New London Tavern.

Arms: Azure, a chevron or; in chief a fleur de lis argent, between two brick-axes, palewise, of the second; in base a bundle of laths of the last. Crest; a dexter arm embowed, vested per pale or and azure, cuffed argent, holding in the hand proper a brick-axe or.

38. **BOWYERS.**—The Bowyers were a fraternity by prescription, till the 18th of James I. anno 1620, when they were incorporated by the name of “The Master, Wardens, and Society, of the Mystery of Bowyers of the City of London.” It is somewhat singular, that this company should not have been incorporated until the above period; and that it should have been incorporated then, when the use of the bow, as a military engine, was superseded by the introduction of fire-arms. It is under the government of a master, two wardens, and twelve assistants; livery-fine, 8l. Having no hall, their business is transacted at the New London Tavern.

Arms: Sable, on a chevron between three floats or, as many mullets of the first. Crest; three long bows interlaced, one erect and two in saltier, gules.

39. **FLETCHERS.**—Though this is only a company by prescription, it has nevertheless obtained a coat of arms and a livery; and it appears to be in all respects as firmly established as those incorporated by letters patent. It is governed by two wardens and ten assistants: livery-fine, 10l. They had formerly a convenient hall in St. Mary-Axe; but, it having for some years past been used as a warehouse for goods, they now meet at the George and Vulture in Cornhill.

Arms: Azure, a chevron between three arrows or, headed and feathered argent. Crest; a demi-angel proper, with wings endorsed and vested, holding a bundle of arrows, and round the head a halo, all or.

40. **BLACKSMITHS.**—The Company of Blacksmiths was anciently a guild or fraternity by prescription, in which state it continued till the reign of queen Elizabeth, in the year 1571, when they obtained a charter of incorporation, by the name of “The Keepers, or Wardens, and Society, of the Art and Mystery de les Blacksmiths, of London;” which was confirmed by king James I. This company is governed by a master, three wardens, and twenty-one assistants: livery-fine, eight pounds. Since the company has abandoned the hall on Lambeth-hill, the business of it is transacted at Cutlers’ Hall.

Arms: Sable, a chevron or, between three hammers argent, handled of the second, ducally crowned of the last. Crest; a phoenix with wings elevated issuing out of flames proper.

41. **JOINERS.**—Incorporated by queen Elizabeth, in the year 1569, by the name of “The Master, and Wardens, and Commonalty, of the Faculty of the Joiners and Cielers of London.” They are governed by a master, wardens, and twenty-four assistants: livery-fine, eight pounds. Their hall is in Thames-street: see p. 429.

Arms: Gules, a chevron argent, between two pair of compasses in chief, extended at the points, and a sphere in base, or; a chief of the last, on a pale azure between two roses gules, seeded of the third, barbed vert, an escallop-shell of the second. Crest; a demi-savage proper, wreathed about the head and waist with leaves vert, holding in his dexter hand, over his shoulder, a tilting-spear or, headed argent. Supporters; two naked boys proper, the dexter holding in his hand an emblematical female figure; the sinister holding in his hand a square. Motto, Join truth with trust.

42. **WEAVERS.**—This fraternity is very ancient, and appears to be one of the first incorporated societies in the city of London. The Weavers were originally called *Theclarii*; and in the reign of Henry I. they paid sixteen



pounds annually to the crown for their immunities. See p. 60. The company originally consisted of tapestry and cloth weavers; and by an act of parliament passed in the reign of Henry IV. they were put under the management and authority of the lord-mayor and aldermen of the city. At present, however, the company chiefly consists of worsted, cotton, and silk, weavers. It is governed by two bailiffs, two wardens, and sixteen assistants; livery-fine, ten pounds. Hall, Basinghall-street.

Arms: Azure, on a chevron argent, between three leopards' heads, each having in the mouth a shuttle or, as many roses gules, seeded of the third, barbed vert. Crest; a leopard's head or, ducally crowned gules; in his mouth a shuttle of the first. Supporters; two wiverns with wings indorced argent, purled or; on each wing a rose gules, seeded or, barbed vert. Motto, Weave truth with trust.

43. WOOLMEN.—Though the antiquity of this society may reasonably be supposed to be equal to that of the wool-trade in this kingdom, yet it is only a fraternity by prescription. However, it is one of the city-companies, and is distinguished by the name of "The Master, Wardens, and Assistants, of the Fraternity or Company of Woolmen of the City of London." It consists of a master, two wardens, and eleven assistants; but has neither hall, livery, nor charter.—Arms: Gules, a woolpack argent.

44. SCRIVENERS.—This company, which was originally denominated "The Writers of the Court Letter of the City of London," was incorporated by letters patent of James I. in the year 1616, by the name of "The Master, Wardens, and Assistants, of the Society of Writers of the City of London." This is called a livery-company; and is governed by a master, two wardens, and twenty-four assistants. They had formerly a hall in Noble-street; but, being reduced to low circumstances, they sold it the Company of Coach-makers, in whose possession it still remains. The trade of a scrivener, if not the company itself, may be considered as extinct. In the case of Rague's bankruptcy, the lord-chancellor observed, (Aug. 9.) "that there was a company in the city of London, under the title of the Scriveners' Company; but there was not, he understood, a single member of that company now in existence, such a profession as that of a scrivener not now existing; and he believed Dr. Johnson was right that there had been no scrivener in this country since the time of Jack Ellis, of the Royal Exchange. His lordship added, that almost all the commissions sued out against attorneys were in the character of money-scriveners, whereas, he was persuaded not one in five hundred was really such."

Arms: Azure, an eagle with wings expanded or, standing on a book in base, lying fesswise gules, close clasped and garnished of the second; holding in his mouth an ink-horn sable, stringed gules. Crest; a dexter arm issuing from clouds proper, in the hand a pen as if writing on the wreath.

45. FRUITERERS.—This company was incorporated by letters patent of James I. in the year 1605, by the name of "The Master, Wardens, and Commonalty, of the Mystery of Fruiterers of London; and is governed by a master, two wardens, and thirty assistants; livery-fine, five pounds.—They have no hall.

Arms: Azure, on a mount in base vert, the tree of paradise, environed with the serpent, between Adam and Eve, all proper. Motto, *Arbor Vita Christus*; "Christ the tree of life."

46. PLASTERERS.—This company was incorporated by Henry VII. in the year 1501, by the name of "The Master and Wardens of the Guild or Fraternity of the blessed Mary, of Plasterers, London;" and this charter was confirmed by Charles II. in the year 1667. It is governed by a master, two wardens, and thirty-two assistants; livery-fine, eight pounds.—Hall in Addle-street.

Arms: Azure, a chevron engrailed between two plasterer's hammers or, and a trowel argent, in chief; and a treble flat brush in base of the second; a rose gules, seeded or, barbed vert, between two fleurs-de-

lis of the first. Crest; a dexter arm embowed, habited or, cuffed gules, holding in the hand proper, a hammer as in the arms. Supporters; two griffins vert, purled or, beaked sable, winged gules.

47. STATIONERS.—This company was incorporated by Philip and Mary, in the year 1557, by the name of "The Master, and Keepers or Wardens, and Commonalty, of the Mystery or Art of a Stationer of the City of London." It is governed by a master, two wardens, and twenty-four assistants; livery, 50s; fine, fifty pounds.—Their hall is on the north side of Ludgate-street, on the site of a mansion which anciently belonged to the dukes of Bretagne; after which it was possessed by the earls of Pembroke, and, in queen Elizabeth's time, by Henry lord Abergavenny; finally it belonged to the Stationers' Company, who rebuilt it of wood, and made it their hall. This building, however, shared in the common calamity of 1666, (by which the company lost 200,000l. the spacious warehouses under the hall being filled with printed books,) and was succeeded by the present brick edifice, which was newly fronted with stone, about ten years ago. It is a spacious convenient building, lighted by a single series of windows, over each of which is placed a neat medallion. The entrance is from a small paved court, enclosed with a dwarf wall, surmounted by an iron railing.—John Boydel, esq. an alderman and lord-mayor of London, presented to this hall two good pictures, one of George Douglas assisting Mary Stuart in her escape from Lochleven Castle: the queen and the gallant Douglas are represented by the painter, Mr. Graham, of exquisite beauty. The other is of Alfred dividing his loaf with a pilgrim, the work of Mr. West. In the stock-room is a well-painted portrait of Tycho Wing, son of Vincent Wing, a celebrated astrologer and almanac-maker. There is, besides, a bust of the celebrated printer William Bowyer, a man equally distinguished by his erudition and his probity; also a good portrait of his father, to whom he succeeded in business and reputation. The father died in December 1737, aged 74; the son in November 1777, aged 78. See vol. iii. p. 326. Both were patronised by the most respectable characters of the age. The father was honoured with the friendship of the pious Nelson, whose portrait is also in this hall.

This company, which also includes booksellers, letter-founders, printers, and bookbinders, have a stock which is employed in printing almanacs, primers, psalters, school-books, &c. of which they have the privilege, by virtue of a grant from the crown. This stock consists of shares, which are distributed in different proportions among those who have fined for, or served, the office of renter-warden; and whose shares, if they die married, devolve to their widows.

The Stationers' Company has a share in the Irish estates, noticed at p. 601, and others of considerable value, out of which they pay, in pensions, and other charities, considerable sums every year; and these have been much augmented of late years by the benevolence of some of their principal members.—Mr. Bowyer's bequests have been noticed under the article above referred to.—Mrs. Beata Wilkins, by will, dated November 24, 1773, after giving the picture of bishop Hoadly to the company, bequeathed the interest of her 40l. share in the company's stock to them in trust, to be annually distributed between six poor men and six poor widows, not pensioners of the company. The amount of this share was 320l. which was invested in the purchase of 358l. 11s. 4d. 5 per cent. navy annuities, in the name of the company; the dividend amounts to 17l. 18s. 6d. to which the court add 1s. 6d. to make the annuity 30s. to each person. Wm. Strahan, esq. by his will dated July 2, 1784, gave them 1000l. in trust, to be vested in government-securities, and to distribute one moiety of the dividends at Christmas, equally amongst five poor journeyman-printers, natives of England or Wales, and freemen of the company, to be selected by the court; and the other moiety to such five poor journeyman-printers, natives of Scotland, without regard to their being freemen.



freemen or non-freemen of the company, as the court should select. This sum was invested in 1324. 15s. 9d. 3 per cent. annuities of 1726, in their name; and, the dividend being 39l. 14s. 10d. the company add 5s. 2d. to make the annuities 4l. each.—Mr. Richard Johnson, by his will, dated January 3, 1795, gave the residue of his property to the company, subject to two annuities, to divide the interest among five very poor widows, who have seen better days, above the age of sixty years, whose husbands were liverymen, and in a good way of business, either as stationers, printers, bookfellers, or binders, in the selection of the court; 1800l. 4 per cent. annuities were transferred to the company, with 42l. 10s. 10d. in cash, by which 50l. annuities have been added, and 50l. 5 per cents. are yet in reversion.—Thos. Wright, esq. alderman, by his will, dated November 24, 1794, gave 2000l. 4 per cents. in trust, to pay 50l. 8s. among twenty-four poor freemen of the company, not receiving any other pension therefrom, at two guineas per annum; three guineas to the clerk for his trouble; and 26l. 9s. the remainder, for a dinner on the day of this distribution. The worthy alderman died on the 9th of April, 1798; and the above capital was soon after transferred.—Mr. Charles Dilly, who died in 1807, gave, during his life-time, 700l. consols. for the purpose of securing perpetual annuities of ten guineas each, to the widows of two liverymen of the company.

Arms: Azure, on a chevron or, between three bibles lying fesswise gules, garnished, leaved, and clasped, of the second, (the clasps downwards,) an eagle rising proper, between two roses gules seeded or barbed vert; on the chief point a demi-circle of glory, edged with clouds proper, therein a dove displayed argent, over the head a circle of the last. Crest; within a glory or, an eagle rising proper. Supporters; on each side an angel, habited azure, winged and sounding a trumpet or. Motto, *Verbum Domini manet in eternum*; "The word of the Lord endureth forever."

48. EMBROIDERERS.—The Embroiderers were incorporated in 1561, by letters patent of queen Elizabeth, by the name of "The Keepers, or Wardens, and Company, of the Art or Mystery of Broderers, of the City of London." They are governed by two keepers, or wardens, and forty assistants; livery-fine, 5l.—Their hall is a small but very handsome building, in Gutter-lane, Cheapside.

Arms: Paly of six argent and azure; on a fesse gules, between three lions passant gardant or, two broaches in saltier, between two trundles (i. e. quills of gold-thread) or. Crest; a dove displayed argent, encircled with a glory proper. Supporters; two lions or, guttée de sang. Motto, *Omnia de super*, "All from above."

49. UPHOLDERS.—This company was incorporated by letters patent of king Charles I. in the year 1627, by the name of "The Wardens and Commonalty of the Mystery or Art of the Upholders of the City of London." Livery-fine, 4l. 10s.—Hall, none.

Arms: Sable, on a chevron argent, between three pavillions ermine, lined azure, garnished or, as many roses gules; within the pavillion in base a lamb couchant argent.—These arms are found also without the lamb, and sometimes without the chevron, as may be seen over Crane-court, St. Peter's Hill, Doctors' Commons; where is also a smaller specimen of the same arms composed of three pavillions, the lamb in base, and two roses without the chevron. We must observe here, that in general we have found it extremely difficult to ascertain the original and true bearing of several of the arms of the companies, owing to the different manner in which we have seen them carved or painted in several places, and even in their halls.

50. MUSICIANS.—Incorporated by letters patent of James I. in 1604, by the name of "The Master, Wardens, and Commonalty, of the Art or Science of the Musicians of London." It is governed by a master, two wardens, and twenty assistants: livery-fine, 10l.—This company has no hall, nor is it of any respectability; few, if any, musicians, properly so called, belong to it.

Arms: Azure, a swan with wings expanded argent, within a double tressure flory-counterflory or; on a chief gules, on a pale argent, between two lions passant gardant or, a rose of the fourth, seeded of the third, barbed vert. Crest; a lyre or.

51. TURNERS.—The fraternity of Turners was incorporated by letters patent of king James I. by the name of "The Master, Wardens, and Commonalty, of the Art or Mystery de lez Turners of London." This company is under the government of a master, two wardens, and twenty-four assistants: livery-fine, eight pounds. Hall, on College-Hill.

Arms: Azure, a Catharine-wheel between two columns or; in chief a regal crown proper; in base an axe argent, handled of the second, lying fesswise, the blade downwards. Crest; a female figure proper, representing St. Catharine; her hair dishevelled; her head within a circle of glory of the first, and ducally crowned or, vested azure, lined with ermine; supporting with her dexter hand a Catharine-wheel of the second; in her sinister hand a sword, the point resting on the wreath, argent, hilt and pommel or.

52. BASKET-MAKERS.—These are a fraternity by prescription, and not by charter; but when, or by whom, erected into a fellowship, is unknown. They are, however, included in the list of the city-companies, by the title of "The Wardens, Assistants, and Freemen, of the Company of Basket-makers of the City of London." This community has neither livery nor hall.

Arms: Azure, three cross-baskets in pale argent, between a prime and an iron on the dexter, and a cutting-knife and an outticker on the sinister, of the second. The prime and cutting-knife are in chief, and the iron and outticker in base: they are the tools made use of in the business. Crest; a cradle, therein a child, rocked at the head by a girl, and at the feet by a boy, both vested, all proper.

## PLATE XI.

53. GLAZIERS.—This company was incorporated with that of the Glass-painters by letters patent of Charles I. in the year 1637, by the appellation of "The Master, Wardens, and Commonalty, of the Art or Mystery of Glaziers and Painters of Glass of the City of London." It is a livery-company, and is governed by a master, two wardens, and twenty-one assistants; but their hall, having been destroyed by the fire in 1666, was not rebuilt: their meetings are held at present at the New London Tavern. Livery-fine, three pounds.

Arms: Argent, two grozing-irons in saltier between four closing-nails sable; on a chief gules a lion passant gardant or. Crest; a lion's head coupé or, between two wings expanded azure. Supporters; two naked boys, each holding a torch-inflamed proper. Motto, *Lucem tuam da nobis, O Deus*; "O God, give us your light."

54. HORNERS.—The Horners were incorporated by letters patent of Charles I. in the year 1638, by the name of "The Master, Wardens, Assistants, and Commonalty, of the Art and Mystery of Horners of the City of London." It consists of a master, two wardens, and nine assistants; but has no livery nor hall. They have, however, a warehouse in Spital-fields; where they divide in lots, among themselves, such horns as are bought up by their members in Leadenhall and other markets: and in 1465, they obtained an act of parliament that none should be exported but such as they refused.

Arms: Argent, on a chevron, between three leather-bottles sable, as many bugle-horns stringed of the first. Neither crest, supporters, nor motto.

55. FARRIERS.—This fraternity was incorporated by Charles II. in the year 1673, by the style of "The Master, Wardens, Assistants, and Commonalty, of the Company of Farriers, London." It is a livery-company; and is governed by a master, three wardens, and twenty-four assistants: livery-fine, five pounds. Having no hall, they meet at the George and Vulture, Cornhill.



**Arms:** Argent, three horse-shoes fable. Crest; an arm embowed, issuing from clouds on the sinister side, all proper, holding in the hand a hammer azure, handled and ducally crowned or. Motto, *Vi et virtute*; "By strength and courage."

56. **PAVIORS.**—This is a company only by prescription, and may therefore be esteemed an adulterine guild. It is governed by a master, three wardens, and twenty-five assistants; but has neither hall nor livery.

**Arms:** Argent, a chevron between three flag-stones fable. Crest; an arm embowed, vested azure, cuffed argent, holding in the hand a pick-axe proper. Motto, God can raise to Abraham children of stones. Matth. iii. 9.

57. **LORINERS, or LORIMERS;** *lorimier*, Fr. from *lorum*, Lat. a thong; their trade being to make spurs, bits for bridles, and such-like small iron-ware.—This company, though it appears to be very ancient, and though mentioned stat. 1 Rich. II. c. 12. yet was not incorporated till the year 1712, by the name of "The Master, Wardens, Assistants, and Commonalty, of Loriners of London." It is a livery-company, under the government of a master, two wardens, and twenty-four assistants; livery-fine, ten pounds. Not having had a hall for some years, the affairs of the company are transacted at the Nag's Head in Leadenhall-street.

**Arms:** Azure, on a chevron argent, between three manger-bits or, as many bosses fable. We find neither crest, supporters, nor motto.

58. **APOTHECARIES.**—The Company of Apothecaries was incorporated at first with the Grocers by James I. in the year 1606; but were separated by another charter granted by the same king in the year 1617, and incorporated by the name of "The Master, Wardens, and Society, of the Art and Mystery of Apothecaries of the City of London;" at which time there were no more than one hundred and four apothecaries' shops within the city and suburbs of London. See APOTHECARY, vol. i. p. 311.—The members of this company, who by divers acts of parliament are exempt from ward and parish offices, have a spacious physic-garden at Chelsea; which, in 1721, was granted to the company for ever by sir Hans Sloane, the lord of the manor, on condition of their paying a quit-rent of 5l. and continuing it always as a physic-garden, and of presenting every year to the Royal Society fifty samples of different sorts of plants, there grown, till they amount to two thousand. The latter of these conditions hath been long since more than completed. The affairs of the company are managed by a master, two wardens, and twenty-one assistants. Livery-fine, sixteen pounds. Hall, Water-lane, Blackfriars: see p. 504.

**Arms:** Azure, Apollo with his head radiant, holding in his left-hand a bow, in his right an arrow, all or; riding a serpent azure. Crest; a rhinoceros statant proper. Supporters; two unicorns argent, armed, crined, and hooped, or. Motto, *Opiferaque per orbem dicor*; "And I shall be called a helper through all the world."

59. **SHIPWRIGHTS.**—This was a society by prescription for a great number of years, but was at length incorporated by James II. in the year 1605, by the name of "The Master, Wardens, and Commonalty, of the Art or Mystery of Shipwrights, London;" but was not admitted to have a livery till the year 1782. See p. 117.—Their hall, which stood at Ratcliff Cross, being pulled down, they now meet in the Irish Chamber, at Guildhall.

**Arms:** Azure, an antique hulk or; in a chief argent, the cross of St. George gules, charged in the centre with a lion passant gardant of the second. Crest; an ark or, on the top of the ark a dove argent, holding in the beak an olive-branch vert.

60. **SPECTACLE-MAKERS.**—Incorporated by letters patent of Charles I. in the year 1630, by the name of "The Master, Wardens, and Fellowship, of Spectacle-makers of London." They consist of a master, two wardens, and fifteen assistants; but have no livery.

**Arms:** Argent, three pair of spectacles vert, garnished or, two and one. Motto, A blessing to the aged.

61. **CLOCK-MAKERS.**—This fraternity was incorporated by Charles I. in the year 1632, by the name of "The Master, Wardens, and Society, of the Art of Clock-makers of the City of London." It is governed by a master, wardens, and twenty-eight assistants: livery, about 200; fine, 21l. Hall, none.

**Arms:** Sable, a time-piece, or clock, surmounted at top with a square pedestal supporting a crown, upon which a lion passant gardant is placed; all or. (The clock-makers of the present day do not admit the lion to be a part of their arms.) Crest; a sphere or. Supporters; on the dexter the figure of Time with his scythe, holding the hour-glass in his right-hand proper; on the sinister an emperor in his robes, on his head an imperial crown, and in his sinister hand a sceptre surmounted of a dove, all proper. Motto, *Tempus rerum imperator*; "Time governs all things."

62. **GLOVERS.**—The Company of Glovers was incorporated by Charles I. who, on the 5th of September, 1638, granted them a charter by the name and style of "The Master, Wardens, and Fellowship, of the Company of Glovers of the City of London." It is governed by a master, four wardens, and thirty assistants; livery-fine, 5l. 13s. 4d. Hall, see p. 438.

**Arms:** Per fess fable and argent, a pale counter-changed; three rams salient of the second, two and one, armed and unguled or. Crest; a ram's head issuing from a basket argent, between two wings expanded gules.

63. **COMB-MAKERS.**—The Comb-makers' Company was incorporated by Charles I. in the year 1636, by the name of "The Master, Wardens, and Fellowship, of the Comb-makers of London." It consists of a master, two wardens, and thirteen assistants; but has neither livery nor hall.

**Arms:** Argent, a lion passant gardant between three combs or. Crest; a mount, thereon an elephant standing against a tree, all proper.

64. **FELT-MAKERS.**—The Felt or Hat makers were anciently united with the Haberdashers; but, a separation being obtained by the former, they were, by letters patent of James I. in the year 1604, incorporated by the name of "The Master, Wardens, and Commonalty, of the Art or Mystery of Felt-makers of London." They are governed by a master, four wardens, and twenty-five assistants; livery-fine, 5l. They hold their meetings at Pewterers' Hall.

**Arms:** Argent, a dexter hand couped at the wrist gules, between two hat-bands nowed azure; in chief a hat fable banded of the third. Crest; a naked arm embowed proper, holding in the hand a hat fable, banded azure.

65. **FRAME-WORK KNITTERS.**—This fraternity was incorporated by letters patent of king Charles II. in the year 1663, by the name of "The Master, Wardens, Assistants, and Society, of the Art and Mystery of Framework Knitters in the Cities of London and Westminster, the Kingdom of England, and Dominion of Wales." It is under the direction of a master, two wardens, and eighteen assistants: livery-fine, 10l. They meet at the King's Head tavern, in the Poultry.

**Arms:** Argent, a knitting-frame sable, garnished or, with work pendant in base gules. Supporters; the dexter, a student of the university of Oxford, vested proper; the sinister, a woman proper, vested azure, handkerchief, apron, and cuffs to the gown, argent; in her dexter hand a knitting-needle, and in her sinister a piece of worried-knit gules.

66. **SILK THROWSTERS, or THROWERS.**—This art was first practised in London, in the reign of queen Elizabeth, by foreigners; whose descendants, and others, in the year 1562, were constituted a fellowship of this city; and by letters patent of Charles I. in the year 1630, were incorporated by the name of "The Master, Wardens, Assistants, and Commonalty, of the Trade, Art, or Mystery, of Silk-throwers of the City of London." They are governed by a master, two wardens, and twenty assistants; but have no livery nor hall.

**Arms:**



**Arms:** Argent, three bundles or hanks of silk in fess sable; on a chief azure, a silk-thrower's mill or. Crest; a mount vert, thereon a mulberry-tree, with silk-worms variously dispersed, all proper. Supporters; two workmen silk-throwers, each having a hank of silk hanging over his exterior arm. Motto, God in his least creatures.

67. **CARMEN.**—By an act of common-council, passed in the reign of Henry VIII. the Carmen were constituted a fellowship of the city of London; and, in 1605, they were incorporated with the fraternity of Fuellers, under the denomination of Woodmongers, with whom they continued till the year 1668; when the latter, having been convicted by the parliament of enormous frauds in the sale of coals, and being apprehensive of the consequences, threw up their charter; on which the Carmen were re-appointed a fellowship, by an act of common-council, under the title of "The Free Carmen of the City of London." The carts that belong to this fellowship, which are between four and five hundred, are, by an act of common-council, subjected to the rule of the president and governors of Christ's Hospital; to whom the owner of every cart pays 17s. 4d. a-year for a license to work it; and every cart is brought to the hospital annually to be marked. The Carmen are governed by a master, two wardens, and forty-one assistants, under the direction of the court of lord-mayor and aldermen; but have neither charter, hall, nor livery.

The Arms, which have been transmitted to our engraver as belonging to the Carmen and Woodmongers while they were united, appear to us rather to have belonged to the Woodmongers only. They are—Gules, a sword erect argent, hilt and pommel or, on the point a ducal coronet gold, between two branches of the second, each charged with a faggot proper. Crest, a mount vert, thereon a grove of trees all proper; a lion issuing from the grove or. Motto, *Vis unita fortior*; "Strength united becomes stronger;" which may allude either to the union of the companies, or to the union of the sticks of a faggot.

68. **PIN-MAKERS.**—This company was incorporated by Charles I. in the year 1636, by the name of "The Master, Wardens, Assistants, and Commonalty, of the Art or Mystery of Pin-makers of the City of London." It is governed by a master, two wardens, and eighteen assistants; but has no livery. Hall, see p. 464.

**Arms:** Vert, a demi-vein, couped at the waist proper, mantled gules, turned down ermine; her hair dishevelled; on her head an eastern crown or.

69. **NEEDLE-MAKERS.**—This fraternity was incorporated by letters patent of Oliver Cromwell, in the year 1656, by the name of "The Master, Wardens, and Society, of the Art and Mystery of Needle-makers of the City of London." It is a livery-company, under the government of a master, two wardens, and eighteen assistants; the livery-fine is 3l. 6s. 8d. Having no hall, this company meets at that belonging to the Cutlers.

**Arms:** Vert, three needles in fess argent; over each a ducal coronet or. Crest; a Moor's head, couped at the shoulders, in profile, proper, wreathed about the temples argent and gules, in his ear a pearl. Supporters; a man on the dexter side, a woman on the sinister, each wreathed round the waist with leaves proper; in the woman's dexter hand a needle argent.

70. **GARDENERS.**—The Gardeners were incorporated by letters patent of James I. in the year 1616, by the name of "The Master, Wardens, Assistants, and Commonalty, of the Company of Gardeners of London." Though this company is incorporated, yet it has neither hall or livery. It is governed by a master, two wardens, and eighteen assistants; and its meetings are held at Guildhall.

**Arms:** Azure, on a mount vert a man proper, vested round the loins with linen argent, digging with a spade, all of the first. Crest; a basket of fruit, all proper. Motto, *Arbor vite Christus*. "Christ is the tree of life."

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71. **SOAP-MAKERS.**—Incorporated by Charles I. in the year 1638, by the name of "The Master, Wardens, and Commonalty, of Soap-makers, London." They consist of a master, two wardens, and eighteen assistants; but have no livery nor hall.

**Arms:** Azure, a dolphin naiant, between three eel-spears, or. Crest; a mount vert; thereon a tree proper, enfiled with a ducal coronet or. Motto, *Deus rexque secundet*; "May God and the king favour us."—What analogy these arms have with the making of soap, we cannot divine.

72. **TIN-PLATE-WORKERS.**—This fraternity was incorporated by Charles II. in 1670, by the name of "The Master, Wardens, Assistants, and Commonalty, of the Art and Mystery of Tin-plate-workers, alias Wire-workers, of the City of London." It consists of a master, two wardens, and twenty assistants; but has neither livery nor hall. Their meetings are held at Guildhall.

**Arms:** Sable, a chevron or, between three lamps argent, garnished or, illuminated proper. Crest, a globular ship-lantern or lamp, ensigned with a royal crown, all proper. Motto, *Amore fitis uniti*; "Be united in love."

#### PLATE XII.

73. **WHEELWRIGHTS.**—Incorporated by letters patent, in the year 1670, by the name of "The Master, Wardens, Assistants, and Commonalty, of the Art and Mystery of Wheelwrights of the City of London." They consist of a master, two wardens, and twenty-two assistants; livery-fine, fifteen guineas. Hall, none.

**Arms:** Gules, a chevron between three wheels or; on a chief argent an axe lying fesswise proper. Crest; a dexter arm embowed, vested gules, cuffed argent, holding in the hand proper, a mallet or. Supporters; two horses argent.

74. **DISTILLERS.**—They were incorporated in the year 1638, by the name of "The Master, Wardens, Assistants, and Commonalty, of the Trade, Art, or Mystery, of Distillers of London." This is governed by a master, three wardens, and nineteen assistants; livery-fine, 13l. 6s. 8d. Having no hall, the meetings are held at Drapers' Hall.

**Arms:** Azure, a fess wavy argent, in chief the sun in splendour, encircled with a cloud, all proper, in base a still, on a fire proper, with two worms and bolt-receivers of the second. Crest; a garb of barley, environed with a vine fruited, both proper. Supporters, the dexter the figure of a man representing a Russian, habited in the dress of the country, all proper; the sinister an Indian, vested round the waist with feathers of various colours, wreathed about the temples with feathers as the last; in his hand a bow, at his back a quiver of arrows, all proper. Motto, *Drop as rain, distil as dew*.

75. **HATBAND-MAKERS.**—This fraternity was incorporated by letters patent of king Charles I. in the year 1638, by the appellation of "The Master, Wardens, Assistants, and Fellowship, of the Mystery of Hatband-makers of the City of London." It is governed by a master, two wardens, and twelve assistants. We are told that they were at one time united with the Needle-makers; which may account for their having at present neither livery nor hall.

**Arms:** Azure, on a chevron between three hatbands or, as many merillions sable. Crest; an arm erect, vested and cuffed proper; in the hand a round hat sable, banded argent.

76. **PATTEN-MAKERS.**—The Company of Patten-makers was incorporated by letters patent of Charles II. in the year 1670, by the name of "The Master, Wardens, Assistants, and Fellowship, of the Company of Patten-makers of the City of London." It is a livery-company; and is governed by a master, two wardens, and twenty-four assistants: the livery-fine 6l. and, having no hall, the meetings of the company are held at Guildhall.

**Arms:** Gules, a chevron argent between three pattens or, tied of the second, the ties lined azure, two cutting-

7 R

knives



knives conjoined fable. Crest; a patten as in the arms. Motto, *Recipiunt à nobis femine sustentacula*; "Women receive supports from us."

77. GLASS-SELLERS.—The Glafs-sellers and Looking-glafs-makers were incorporated by king Charles II. in the year 1664, by the name of "The Master, Wardens, Assistants, and Commonalty, of Glafs-sellers of the City of London." This company is under the direction of a master, two wardens, and twenty-four assistants; livery-fine, five pounds. They meet at the Antwerp Tavern, having no hall.

Arms: Azure, two serpents interlaced on a stand, in pale two phials of different shapes, in chief a bowl, argent. We find neither crest, supporters, nor motto, to these arms.

78. TOBACCO-PIPE-MAKERS.—This company was incorporated by letters patent of Charles II. in the year 1663, by the style and title of "The Master, Wardens, Assistants, and Fellowship, of the Company of Pipe-makers of the Cities of London and Westminster." They are governed by a master, two wardens, and eighteen assistants; but have no livery nor hall, and hold their meetings at Curriers' hall.

Arms: Argent, on a mount in base vert, three plants of tobacco growing and flowering, all proper. Crest; a Demi Moor; in his dexter hand a tobacco-pipe, in the sinister a roll of tobacco, all proper. Supporters, two young Moors proper, wreathed about the loins with tobacco-leaves vert. Motto, *Let brotherly love continue*.

79. COACH and HARNESS MAKERS.—The Company of Coach-makers was incorporated in 1671, by the name and style of "The Master, Wardens, Assistants, and Commonalty, of the Company of Coach and Coach-harness makers of London." It is governed by a master, three wardens, and twenty-three assistants; livery-fine, 10*l*. Their hall, in Noble-street, formerly belonging to the Scriveners, was used for a great many years in our remembrance by a weekly debating-society.

Arms: Azure, a chevron between three coaches or. Crest: the figure of Phœbus driving the chariot of the sun or, drawn by four horses argent, harnessed, reined, and bridled, of the second. Supporters; two horses argent, harnessed and bridled fable, saddled or, garnished gules; housings azure, fringed and purfled of the third. Motto, *Surgit post nubila Phœbus*; "After clouds, sun-shine."

80. GUN-MAKERS.—Incorporated by letters patent in the year 1638, by the name of "The Master, Wardens, and Society, of Gun-makers of the City of London." They consist of a master, two wardens, and eighteen assistants; livery-fine, 10*l*. they have no hall, but hold their meetings at Guildhall.

Arms: Argent, two guns in saltier proper; in chief the letter G, in base the letter V, fable, each letter crowned with a regal crown; on the dexter side, in fess, a barrel, and on the sinister three balls, all of the second.

81. WIRE-DRAWERS.—This fraternity was incorporated by letters patent of king James I. in the year 1623, by the name of "The Governor, Assistants, and Commonalty, &c." but, being re-incorporated by William and Mary, in the year 1693, the title was changed to "The Master, Wardens, Assistants, and Commonalty, of the Art and Mystery of Drawing and Flating Gold and Silver Wire, and Making and Spinning of Gold and Silver Thread and Stuffs, in our City of London." This company is governed by a master, two wardens, and eighteen assistants: they have neither livery nor hall, and hold their meetings at the New London Tavern.

Arms: Azure, on a chevron or, between two coppers in chief of the second, in base two points in saltier argent, a drawing-iron between two annulets fable. Crest; two arms embowed, vested gules, cuffed argent, holding between their hands proper, an engrossing-block or. Motto, *Amicitiam trahit amor*; "Friendship draws love."

82. BOWSTRING-MAKERS.—This is not a company by charter, but only by prescription; and may therefore be considered as an adulterine guild. It consists of two wardens and nineteen assistants; but has no livery nor hall.

Arms: Argent, a quiver with arrows in pale or, on a chief three bows gules. Crest; a man vested proper, shooting with a bow and arrow of the last. Motto, *Nec habeo, nec curio, nec curo*; "I neither have, lack, nor care."

83. CARD-MAKERS.—Incorporated by letters patent of Charles I. in the year 1629, by the name of "The Master, Wardens, and Commonalty, of the Mystery of the Makers of Playing-cards of the City of London." They are governed by a master, two wardens, and eighteen assistants; but have neither livery nor hall.

Arms: Gules, on a cross argent, between the four ace-cards proper, (viz. the aces of hearts and diamonds in chief, the aces of spades and clubs in base,) a lion passant gardant of the first. Crest; an arm embowed in armour, holding in the hand an ace of hearts, all proper. Supporters; two men in armour complete proper, garnished or, on each a fash gules.

84. FAN-MAKERS.—This company was incorporated by queen Anne, in the year 1709, by the appellation of "The Master, Wardens, Assistants, and Society, of the Art or Mystery of Fan-makers, in the Cities of London and Westminster, and twenty miles round the same." It is governed by a master, two wardens, and twenty assistants; but has neither livery nor hall: their meetings are held at the London Tavern, Bishopsgate-street.

Arms: Or, a fan displayed with a mount of various devices and colours, the sticks gules; on a chief, per fess gules and fable, on the dexter side, a shaving-iron over a bundle of fan-sticks tied together or, on the sinister side a frame-saw in pale of the last. Crest; a hand coupé proper, holding a fan displayed or. Motto, *Arts and trade united*.

85. WOODMONGERS.—This fraternity was incorporated with that of the Carmen, by letters patent of James I. in the year 1605, with whom they continued till the year 1668, when, being found guilty of mal-practices, they threw up their charter to avoid a more severe punishment. However, by an act of common-council passed in the year 1694, they obtained the privilege of keeping a hundred and twenty carts (exclusive of those kept by carmen), for the more effectually executing their business. This company had the management of the public carts committed to them for some time; but, by reason of their bad conduct, the privilege was taken from them, and the charge of inspection restored to Christ's Hospital.—Arms, see Plate XI.

86. STARCH-MAKERS.—These were incorporated by letters patent of James I. in the year 1662, by the appellation of "The Master, Wardens, Assistants, and Commonalty, of the Art or Mystery of Starch-makers, London." They are governed by a master, two wardens, and twenty-four assistants; but have neither livery nor hall.

Arms: Azure, two garbs in saltier or; on a chief gules, a lion passant gardant or. Crest; a woman's head and breast proper, vested argent, her hair distwelled, all within a chaplet of ears of wheat proper. Supporters; the dexter represents a labouring man, on his head a cap, habited in a short jacket and trowsers azure, stockings argent, and shoes fable; in his dexter hand a hammer erect of the last; the sinister a female figure representing Plenty; in her sinister hand a cornucopia, and round her temples ears of wheat proper.

87. SILKMEN.—Incorporated by letters patent in 1637, by the name of "The Governor, Commonalty, and Assistants, of the Art or Mystery of Silkmen of the City of London." They are under the direction of a governor and twenty assistants; but have neither livery nor hall.

Arms: Argent, a ship of three masts in full sail on the sea, in base, all proper; on a chief or, a bale of silk, corded proper, between two bundles of silk pendant of the last. Neither crest, supporters, nor motto.

88. FISHERMEN.



88. FISHERMEN.—They were incorporated by letters patent of James II. in the year 1687, by the name of "The Free Fishermen of London." But they have neither livery, hall, nor arms; and, with the three preceding companies, may be considered as extinct.

89. PARISH CLERKS.—This company was incorporated by letters patent of Henry III. in the year 1233, by the name of "The Fraternity of St. Nicholas;" by which they were known till re-incorporated by James I. in the year 1611. These grants were afterwards confirmed by letters patent of Charles I. in the year 1636, who incorporated them by the name of "The Master, Wardens, and Fellowship, of Parish Clerks of the Cities of London and Westminster, Borough of Southwark, and fifteen out-parishes." This company consists not only of a master, two wardens, and nineteen assistants, but also the whole body of parish-clerks within the bills of mortality. By a decree of the Star-chamber court in 1625, they obtained a privilege to keep a press in their hall, for printing the weekly bills of mortality, by a person appointed by the archbishop of Canterbury. They are, by their charter, to make a report of all the weekly christenings and burials in their several parishes every Tuesday. Their hall is in Woodstreet.

Arms: Azure, a fleur-de-lis argent; on a chief gules, a leopard's head between two books of the second, fringed vert. Crest; a cubit-arm erect, holding in the hand proper a music-book open of the last, garnished or, fringed vert. Motto, *Unitas societas stabilitas*; "The union of a society is its strength."

90. PORTERS.—This fraternity, or fellowship, which consists of Tackle and Ticket Porters, was constituted by act of common-council in the year 1646, with a power of annually choosing from among themselves twelve rulers, viz. six of each denomination, for their good government, and for hearing and determining all differences that might arise between the members of the united body. However, the court of lord-mayor and aldermen have reserved to themselves a power of appointing one of their own body as the chief determinator of all controversies. See p. 433. This fraternity has neither hall, livery, nor arms.

91. WATERMAN.—The Watermen do not appear to have had any charter of incorporation before the reign of Philip and Mary, when they were established by parliament; and it was enacted in the 2d and 3d of that reign, cap. 16, that, out of the watermen between Gravesend and Windsor, eight overseers shall be chosen by the court of aldermen of the city of London, to keep order over the whole body. Besides it is ordained, that their wherries are to be twelve feet and a half long, and four feet and a half broad in the midship, or be liable to forfeiture: watermen's names are to be registered by the overseers, and their fares appointed by the court of aldermen, &c. and the lord-mayor and aldermen of London, and the justices of the peace of the counties adjoining to the Thames, have power to determine offences. By stat. 11 and 12 W. III. 21. lightermen, &c. on the Thames, between Gravesend and Windsor, are to be of the Society of Watermen and Wherry-men, who are made a company.

The lord-mayor and court of aldermen shall yearly elect eight of the best watermen, and three of the best lightermen, to be overseers and rulers; and the watermen shall choose assistants, not exceeding sixty, nor less than forty, and the lightermen nine, at the principal stairs, for preserving good government. The rulers, &c. on their court-days, are to appoint forty watermen to ply on Sundays, betwixt Vauxhall and Limehouse, for carrying passengers across the river, and to pay them for their labour, and apply the overplus of the money for decayed watermen, &c. They may make rules to be observed under penalties; and the lord-mayor and aldermen, on complaint, are to hear and determine offences, &c. None but such as have served their time, or are servants or apprentices to watermen, shall row or ply on the river. By an act passed in the second year of the reign of George II. no waterman on the Thames shall take any apprentice or servant, unless he registers the place of his known habitation with the clerk of the company, on pain of forfeiting ten pounds; and, if any person, not having served seven years to a waterman, shall row any boat for hire, he incurs the like penalty; but gardeners' boats, dung-boats, lighters, &c. are excepted. There is also a court of assistants, which, by the same act, is restrained to the number of thirty. It is said that they are to furnish 1000 men for the navy, upon demand by the admiralty. They have a hall at St. Mary's Hill, (see p. 429.) and pay to their poor about 800l. a-year, chiefly raised by ferries over the Thames on Sunday.—The Companies of Parish-clerks, Porters, and Watermen, have not the privilege of making their members freemen of the city of London.

Arms: Barry wavy of six, argent and azure; on the middle bar a boat or, on a chief of the second two oars in saltier of the third, between two cushions of the first, tasselled or. Crest; a dexter hand couped at the wrist in bend proper, holding an oar in bend sinister or. Supporters; two dolphins azure, finned or. Motto, *At the command of our superiors.*

92. BROWN BAKERS.—They were incorporated in the 19th year of James I. but are now considered as extinct, or as confounded with the ancient company of Bakers, or White Bakers, from whom their armorial bearings do not greatly differ.

Arms: Gules, on a chevron quarterly argent and azure, between three garbs, a pair of scales or, sustained by a hand issuant from a cloud at the centre chief point; on a chief, barry wavy of six, argent and azure, an anchor in fess, the fluke towards the dexter, or. They appear to have assumed neither crest, supporters, nor motto.

93. MARBLERS.—The company called by the name of Marblers, for their excellent knowledge and skill in the art of insculping figures on grave-stones, monuments, and the like, were an ancient fellowship; but, being no incorporated company of themselves, are now joined with the company of Masons.

Arms: Gules, a chevron between two chipping-axes in chief argent, and a mallet in base or. Crest; an arm embowed vested azure, cuffed argent, holding in the hand proper, an engraving-chisel of the last. Motto, *Grind well.*



LIST of the LORD-MAYORS of the CITY OF LONDON from the Year 1735 to the present Time, being a Period of Eighty Years; with the Price of the Quartern Loaf of Wheaten Bread at the Beginning of each Mayoralty, as entered in the Town-Clerk's Office, at Guildhall. The Quartern Loaf should weigh 4lb. 5oz. 8 dwts.

Nov. 9.	Lord-Mayors.	s.	d.	Nov. 9.	Lord-Mayors.	s.	d.
1735	Sir John Williams, Knt.	-	5½	1775	John Sawbridge, Esq.	-	6½
1736	Sir John Thompson, Knt.	-	5¼	1776	Sir Thomas Hallifax, Knt.	-	6½
1737	Sir John Barnard, Knt.	-	5½	1777	Sir James Esdaile, Knt.	-	7½
1738	Micajah Perry, Esq.	-	5½	1778	Samuel Plumbe, Esq.	-	6½
1739	Sir John Salter, Knt.	-	6	1779	Brackley Kennet, Esq.	-	5½
1740	Henry Parsons, Esq.	-	7½	1780	Sir William Lewes, Knt.	-	7½
1741	Sir Robert Godschall, Knt.	-	5½	1781	Sir William Plomer, Knt.	-	7
1742	Robert Willmot, Esq.	-	4½	1782	Nathaniel Newnham, Esq.	-	8½
1743	*Sir Robert Westley, Knt.	-	4¼	1783	Robert Peckham, Esq.	-	7½
1744	Sir Henry Marthal, Knt.	-	4½	1784	Richard Clarke, Esq.	-	7½
1745	Sir Richard Hoare, Knt.	-	4¾	1785	Thomas Wright, Esq.	-	6½
1746	William Benn, Esq.	-	5½	1786	Thomas Sainbury, Esq.	-	6
1747	Sir Robert Ladbroke, Knt.	-	5	1787	John Burnell, Esq.	-	6½
1748	Sir William Calvert, Knt.	-	6	1788	William Gill, Esq.	-	6½
1749	Sir Samuel Pennant, Knt.	-	5½	1789	William Pickett, Esq.	-	7½
1750	Thomas Winterbottom, Esq.	-	6	1790	John Boydell, Esq.	-	7½
1751	Francis Cockayne, Esq.	-	5½	1791	John Hopkins, Esq.	-	6½
1752	Sir Crisp Gascoyne, Knt.	-	5½	1792	Sir James Sanderfon, Knt.	-	7½
1753	Edward Ironside, Esq.	-	6½	1793	Paul Le Mesurier, Esq.	-	7½
1754	Sir Stephen Theodore Janflen, Knt.	-	5	1794	Thomas Skinner, Esq.	-	7½
1755	Slingby Bethell, Esq.	-	5	1795	†Sir William Curtis, Bart.	-	10½
1756	†Martin Dickenfon, Esq.	-	7½	1796	Sir Brooke Watfon, Bart.	-	8½
1757	Sir Charles Afgill, Knt.	-	7½	1797	Sir John William Anderfon, Bart.	-	9½
1758	Sir Richard Glyn, Knt.	-	6	1798	Sir Richard Carr Glyn, Bart.	-	8
1759	Sir Thomas Chitty, Knt.	-	5	1799	Harvey Christian Combe, Esq.	-	11
1760	Sir Matthew Blackiston, Knt.	-	5½	1800	§Sir William Staines, Knt.	-	11
1761	Sir Samuel Fludyer, Bart.	-	4½	1801	Sir John Eamer, Knt.	-	10½
1762	William Beckford, Esq.	-	5½	1802	Sir Charles Price, Bart.	-	10
1763	William Bridgen, Esq.	-	6	1803	Sir John Perring, Bart.	-	10
1764	Sir William Stephenfon, Knt.	-	6½	1804	Peter Perchard, Esq.	-	11
1765	George Nelson, Esq.	-	7	1805	Sir James Shaw, Bart.	-	10½
1766	Sir Robert Kite, Knt.	-	8	1806	Sir William Leighton, Bart.	-	11½
1767	Right Honourable Thomas Ha	-	8½	1807	James Anley, Esq.	-	10½
1768	Samuel Turner, Esq.	-	6½	1808	Sir Charles Flower, Bart.	-	11
1769	William Beckford, Esq.	-	6	1809	Thomas Smith, Esq.	-	11
1770	Brafs Crosby, Esq.	-	6½	1810	J. J. Smith, Esq.	-	11
1771	William Nafh, Esq.	-	7½	1811	Claudius Stephen Hunter, Esq.	-	11
1772	James Townfend, Esq.	-	8	1812	George Scholey, Esq.	-	11
1773	Frederic Bull, Esq.	-	7½	1813	Sir William Domville, Bart.	-	11
1774	John Wilkes, Esq.	-	8	1814	Charles Birch, Esq.	-	11

\* This year the quartern loaf was at 4d. for two weeks. † In this mayoralty the bread was 9½d. the quartern loaf for four weeks. ‡ During this mayoralty the quartern loaf was 1s. 3d. for five weeks. § Whilst Sir William Staines was lord-mayor, the quartern loaf was at its highest price, being for four weeks at 1s. 10½d.

ADDENDUM.—Since the printing of p. 520, 1. we have been favoured with the following correct account of Surry Chapel and the charities connected with it, which we take this opportunity of inserting.

Surry Chapel was opened in 1783. Mr. Hill has ever since been the stated minister of it; and, during his absence from town in the summer months, it has been supplied by various ministers of all denominations, churchmen as well as dissenters.

The Surry Chapel Almshouses were built in 1811. They are intended for twenty-four poor women, but are not confined to the members of the congregation at Surry Chapel, as any aged pious women are eligible.

Besides these, there are various charitable institutions connected with the chapel.

1. The Benevolent Society, for visiting and relieving the sick poor at their own habitations, established in 1784, by which from 600l. to 700l. is now annually distributed.

2. The Southwark Sunday-School Society, by which upwards of 2000 children are educated. They have seven schools in different parts of the Borough; and are now building one in Amicable Row, Kent-street, which will cost upwards of 1000l.

3. The School of Industry, by which 24 girls are educated and clothed, instructed in needle-work, and fitted for service.

4. The Dorcas Society, for assisting poor women in their lying-in, by lending them linen, &c.

5. The Surry-Chapel Bible-Association, by which in two years 900l. have been remitted to the Southwark Auxiliary Bible Society, and upwards of 5000 Bibles and Testaments sold at reduced prices.

6. The Surry-Chapel Female Missionary Association, by which upwards of 100l. a-year is raised for the Missionary Society.

All this is exclusive of the assistance rendered to other charitable institutions, such as the Missionary Society, which generally receives 400l. or 500l. by annual collection at Surry Chapel; and the distribution of the sacramental money to the poor, amounting to upwards of 150l. a-year; besides occasional collections for other objects of public benevolence, by which at one time upwards of 400l. was obtained for the Patriotic Fund, and nearly the same sum last year for the distressed Germans.



LONDON, a town of the state of Maryland, on a river which runs into the Chesapeake: five miles south-west of Annapolis.

LONDON (Little), a village in Essex, near Samford Magna.—A village in Middlesex, south of Hillingdon-leath.

LONDON (New), a town of the state of Connecticut: seventy-five miles south-west of Boston, and 100 east-north-east of New York.

LONDON E'ASTCOTE, a village in Lincolnshire, among the fens upon Boston-dyke.

LONDON GROVE, a township in Chester-county, Pennsylvania, containing 921 inhabitants.

LONDON HARBOUR, a bay and harbour on the north coast of the island of St. John, in the gulf of St. Laurence. Lat. 46. 26. N. lon. 63. 8. W.

LONDON PRIDE, in botany. See SAXIFRAGA.

LONDON THORP, a village of Lincolnshire; north-east of Grantham.

LONDONDER'RY, a county of Ireland, in the province of Ulster; bounded on the north by Lough Foyle and the Atlantic Ocean, on the east by the county of Antrim, on the south-west by the county of Tyrone, and on the west by Donegal; extending in its greatest dimensions thirty-two miles from north to south, and about the same from east to west. It contains thirty-one parishes, in which are about 25,000 houses, and 125,000 inhabitants. This county was formerly called *Coleraine*, but changed its name in the reign of James I. who granted the principal part of the county, with the towns of Londonderry and Coleraine, to the citizens of London, in consideration of their settling an English colony after the rebellion, in the north of Ireland, under the name of the Society of the Governors and Assistants at London, of the New Plantation of Ulster, in the Realm of Ireland. See p. 600. and the article IRELAND, vol. xi. p. 307. The linen-manufacture prospers through every part of the county. Two members are returned to the Irish parliament; and one for the city of Londonderry, the capital.

LONDONDER'RY, or DERRY, the capital of the county, and the see of a bishop, stands at the bottom of Lough-Foyle. This city has a very good port, to which ships of the greatest burden have access, and a considerable trade. It will be ever famous for the gallantry and perseverance with which it defended itself in three memorable sieges, in defiance of the greatest hardships and discouragements; namely, 1st, In 1641, when the rebels could not reduce it either by fraud or force. 2dly, In 1649, when it was besieged by the lord Ardes, and reduced almost to extremity by famine, till at last relieved by troops sent from England. 3dly, When it held out against the French and Irish from the 7th of December, 1688, to the last day of July, 1689, though it was neither well fortified nor provided with a garrison or stores of provision and ammunition, and hardly any attempt made to relieve it during so long a time. See the article IRELAND, vol. xi. p. 321. Though the city is twenty miles up the river, yet very large ships can come up to the quay, where there are four or five fathoms of water. It is now well fortified with a strong wall, besides outworks; and along the banks of the river are several castles and a fort. This city is of no great antiquity, having been built and planted in the reign of James I. by a colony sent by the society above mentioned. The trade of the town is very considerable, having not only a large share in the herring-fishery, but sending ships also to the West Indies, New England, and Newfoundland, for which they are so advantageously situated, that a vessel bound from thence to America often arrives there before a London ship can get clear of the soundings, or arrive in the latitude of Londonderry. Though there are a great many shallows in Lough-Foyle, which serves it instead of a road; yet they are easily avoided, as there are deep channels between them. These points, called Emistone, Rufferhull, or Cald-head, which lie a little to the west of the mouth of the

harbour, are counted the most northerly of Ireland. The inhabitants of this city are almost all Protestants. It gave title of earl and baron to a branch of the family of Pitt, which became extinct in 1764; but part of the title was revived in Robert Stewart, who was created Baron Londonderry in 1789. A late traveller says, "Derry is perhaps the cleanest, best-built, and most beautifully-situated, town in Ireland; and, excepting Cork, as convenient as any for commerce, foreign and domestic." The lake almost surrounds it; and the whole ground-plot both of it and its liberties belongs to the 12 great companies of London. Great quantities of salmon, salted and barrelled, are exported from hence to America. It contains 10,000 inhabitants; and has a wooden bridge 1068 feet long, which was erected in 1791. Lat. 55. 4. N. lon. 7. 5. W.

LONDONDER'RY, a post town of America, in Rockingham county, New Hampshire, near the head of Beaver-river, which discharges itself into Merrimack-river at Pawtucket Falls; settled in 1718, incorporated in 1722, and containing 2650 inhabitants, mostly the descendants of emigrants from Ulster-county, Ireland; and employed in the manufacture of linen-cloth and thread: thirty-six miles south-west-by-south from Portsmouth.—A township in Halifax-county, Nova Scotia, on the north side of Cobequid or Colchester river, about thirty miles from its mouth, at the basin of Minas; settled by North Irish and Scotch.—A township in the north-west part of Windham-city, Vermont, on the head-waters of West-river, about thirty-three miles north-east of Bennington. In 1795 it was divided into two parts, the east half being called *Windham*, and the west part retaining its original name.—Two townships in Pennsylvania; one in Dauphin-county, and the other in Somerset-county.

LONDONER, *f.* One born in the city of London; an inhabitant of London.

LONDRES, or LONDON, a town of South America, in the province of Tucuman, built by Tarita, then governor, in 1555, in compliment to Mary queen of England, then married to Philip king of Spain. Lat. 29. 12. S.

LONE, *adj.* [contracted from *alone*.] Solitary; unrequented; having no company.—Here the lone hour a blank of life displays. *Savage*.

Thus vanish sceptres, coronets, and balls,  
And leave you in lone woods, or empty walls. *Pope*.

Single; not conjoined or neighbouring to others.—No lone house in Wales, with a mountain and a rookery, is more contemplative than this court. *Pope*.

LONE'E, a town of Hindoostan: twelve miles east-south-east of Poonah.

LONEL', a town of the island of Sardinia: twenty-two miles south-east of Bosa.

LONELINESS, *f.* Solitude; want of company.—The huge and sportful assembly grew to him a tedious loneliness, esteeming nobody since Daiphantus was lost. *Sidney*.—Disposition to solitude:

I see  
The mystery of your loneliness, and find  
Your salt tears' head. *Shakespeare*.

LO'NELY, *adj.* Solitary:  
Why thus close up the stars  
That nature hung in heav'n, and fill'd their lamps  
With everlasting oil, to give due light  
To the misted and lonely traveller? *Milton*.  
Addicted to solitude:

When, fairest princess,  
You lonely thus from the full court retire,  
Love and the graces follow to your solitude. *Rowe*.

LO'NENESS, *f.* Solitude; dislike of company.—I can love her who loves loneness best. *Donne*.  
If of court-life you knew the good,  
You would leave loneness. *Donne*.



LO'NER, a town of Hindooftan, in Baglana: sixteen miles north-west of Chander.

LO'NESOME, *adj.* Solitary; dismal:

You either must the earth from rest disturb,  
Or roll around the heavens the solar orb;  
Else what a dreadful face will nature wear!  
How horrid will these *lonesome* feats appear! *Blackman.*

LO'NERSLATT, a town of Bavaria: fourteen miles south-south-west of Bamberg.

LONFEL'DEN, a town of Austria: six miles west of Freiskatt.

LONG, *adj.* [Fr. from *longus*, Lat.] Not short: used of time.—He talked a *long* while, even till break of day. *Aëts* xx.—He was desirous to see him of a *long* season. *Luke* xxiii.—Not short: used of space.—Emp'refs, the way is ready, and not *long*. *Milton*.—Having one of its geometrical dimensions in a greater degree than either of the other.—His branches became *long* because of the waters. *Ezekiel*.—Of any certain measure in length.—Shall women eat their children of a span *long*? *Lam.* ii. 20.

The fig-tree spreads her arms,  
Branching so broad and *long*. *Milton.*

Not soon ceasing, or at an end.—Man goeth to his *long* home. *Ecclef.* xii. 5.—Honour thy father and thy mother, that thy days may be *long* upon the land. *Exodus* xx. 12.

They open to themselves at length a way  
Up hither, under *long* obedience try'd. *Milton.*

Him after *long* debate of thoughts revolv'd  
Irresolute, his final sentence chose. *Milton.*

Dilatory.—Death will not be *long* in coming, and the covenant of the grave is not shlowed unto thee. *Eccles.* xiv. 12.—Tedious in narration.

Reduce, my muse, the wand'ring song,  
A tale should never be too *long*. *Prior.*

Continued by succession to a great series.—But first a *long* succession must ensue. *Milton*.—[From the verb *To long*.] Longing; desirous; or perhaps long-continued, from the disposition to continue looking at any thing desired.—Praying for him, and casting a *long* look that way, he saw the galley leave the pursuit. *Sidney.*

By ev'ry circumstance I know he loves;  
Yet he but doubts, and parlies, and casts out  
Many a *long* look for succour. *Dryden.*

[In music and pronunciation.] Protracted: as, A *long* note; a *long* syllable.

LONG, *adv.* To a great length in space:

The marble brought, erects the spacious dome,  
Or forms the pillars *long*-extended rows,  
On which the planted grove and pensile garden grows. *Prior.*

Not for a short time.—When the trumpet soundeth *long*, they shall come up to the mount. *Exodus* xix. 13.

So stood the pious prince unmov'd, and *long*  
Sustain'd the madness of the noisy throng. *Dryden.*

In the comparative, it signifies for more time; and in the superlative, for most time.—When he could not *longer* hide him, he took for him an ark of bullrushes. *Exodus* ii. 3.—Eldest parents signifies either the eldest men and women that have had children, or those who have *longest* had issue. *Locke*.—Not soon.—Not *long* after there arose against it a tempestuous wind. *Aëts* xxvii. 14.—At a point of duration far distant.—If the world had been eternal, those would have been found in it, and generally spread *long* ago, and beyond the memory of all ages. *Tillotson.*

Say, that you once were virtuous *long* ago?  
A frugal, hardy people. *Philips.*

[For along; *au long*, Fr.] All along; throughout: of time.—Forty years *long* was I grieved with this generation. *Psalms.*

Some say, that ever 'gainst that season comes,  
Wherein our Saviour's birth is celebrated,  
The bird of dawning singeth all night *long*. *Shakespeare.*

LONG, *adv.* [Zelang, Sax. a fault.] By the fault; by the failure. *Out of use*.—If we owe it to him that we know so much, it is perhaps *long* of his fond adorers that we know so little more. *Glanville.*

Maine, Blois, Poitiers, and Tours, are won away,  
*Long* all of Somerset, and his delay. *Shakespeare.*

LONG, *f.* in music, a character for time in the first time-table, half the duration of the *maxima*, or large, and twice the length of the *breve*. See *MUSIC*.

To LONG, *v. n.* [Zelangen, Germ. to ask.] To desire earnestly; to wish with eagerness continued: with *for* or *after* before the thing desired.—If erst he wished, now he *longed* sore. *Fairfax*.—And thine eyes shall look, and fail with *longing* for them. *Deut.* xxviii. 32.—Nicomedes, *longing* for herrings, was supplied with fresh ones by his cook, at a great distance from the sea. *Arbutnot*.—The great master perceived, that Rhodes was the place the Turkish tyrant *longed* after. *Knolles.*

There's the tie that binds you;  
You *long* to call him father: Marcia's charms  
Work in your heart unseen, and plead for Cato. *Addison.*

His sons, who seek the tyrant to sustain,  
And *long* for arbitrary lords again,  
He dooms to death deserv'd. *Dryden.*

Fresh expectation troubled not the land  
With any *long'd* for change, or better state. *Shakespeare.*

To belong.—But wit's ambition *longeth* to the best. *Davies*.  
But he me first through pride and puifance strong  
Assay'd, not knowing what to arms doth *long*. *Spenser.*

LONG, a city of China, of the second rank, in Quang-fu: 1195 miles south-south-west of Pekin. Lat. 22. 22. N. lon. 106. 21. E.

LONG, a city of China, of the second rank, in Chen-fu: 562 miles south-west of Pekin. Lat. 34. 39. N. lon. 106. 32. E.

LONG (Thomas), a learned divine, was born at Exeter in 1621, and educated at the college of that name in Oxford. His highest preferment was a prebend in Exeter cathedral, of which he was deprived at the revolution for refusing the oaths. He died in 1700. He was author of many theological pieces; of a *Life of Julian*; *History of all the Popish and Fanatical Plots and Conspiracies*; and a *Vindication of the Claim of King Charles I. to the Authorship of the Eikon Basilike*.

LONG (James le), an industrious and learned writer, was born at Paris in 1665. He occupied the post of professor in several houses of the society of the Oratory, and finally was appointed their librarian at St. Honoré. He passed his life in learned labours, and died of a pulmonary disorder in 1721, with the character of a virtuous and estimable man. Father le Long was well versed in the ancient and in many modern languages, and had a thorough acquaintance with the history of literature, of bibliography, and printing. When bantered for the pains he took in verifying a date, or investigating some minute fact, he would say, "Truth is so desirable a thing, that no labour should be spared in discovering it, even in trifles." With this disposition, it is no wonder that he had no taste for poetry, and that his erudition was without amenity. Of his works, one of the principal is his *Bibliotheca Sacra*, containing a catalogue of all the editions and translations of the Scriptures, in 2 vols. 8vo. 1709; to which he subjoined, in a second part, a list of all the authors who had written upon the Scriptures: this was printed in a new edition after his death by father Desmolets, his successor in the library, in 2 vols. folio, 1723. It is accounted a very valuable performance, though not without mistakes. His *Bibliothèque Historique de la France*, being an account of all



all the historical works relative to that country, is highly esteemed by all engaged in similar studies, and ranks among the great productions of the reign of Louis XV. A new edition of it in five volumes folio, was given by M. de Fontete in 1768 et seq. Father le Long also published an Historical Discourse on Polyglot Bibles, and their several editions, 8vo. 1713. He had planned a new collection of the French historians, but did not live to put into execution. *Moreri.*

LONG (Roger), a learned English divine and astronomical professor, was born about the year 1679, in the county of Norfolk, but in what place we are not informed. Cambridge was his *alma mater*; and in that university he became master of Pembroke-hall, was admitted to the degree of D.D. and appointed Lowndes's professor of astronomy and geometry. Dr. Long had also the honour of being elected a fellow of the Royal Society. His ecclesiastical preferments were, the rectory of Cherry Hinton in Huntingdonshire, and of Bradwell juxta Mare in Essex. He was the author of a well-known and much-approved treatise of Astronomy, in five books, forming two volumes 4to. the first of which was published in 1742, the second in 1764; and he was the inventor of a very curious astronomical machine, erected in a room at Pembroke-hall; which was a hollow sphere, of eighteen feet diameter, in which more than thirty persons might sit conveniently. Within-side the surface, which represented the heavens, were painted the stars and constellations, with the zodiac, meridians; and it had an axis, parallel to the axis of the world, upon which it was easily turned round by a winch. An engraving of this *Uranium*, as the doctor called it, is given as a frontispiece to the second volume of his Astronomy, to which is also prefixed a particular description and explanation of the machine. *Hutton's Math. Dict.*

LONG AS'TON, a village in Somersetshire; four miles from Bristol.

LONG-BACKED, *adj.* Having a long back.

LONG BA'LL, a village in Dorsetshire, near Brandsey-island.

LONG BA'Y, a bay on the east coast of Jamaica. Lat. 18. 8. N. lon. 76. W.—A bay on the west coast of the same island. Lat. 18. 20. N. lon. 78. 21. W.—A bay on the south coast of the same island; six miles east of Callibath bay.—A bay of America, extending along the shore of North and South Carolina, from Cape Fear to the mouth of Pedee-river.—A bay on the west side of the island of Barbadoes; another on the south side of the same island.

LONG BE'ACH, a village in Kent, near Charing.

LONG-BOAT, *f.* The largest boat belonging to a ship.—At the first descent on shore, he did countenance the landing in his *long-boat.* *Wotton.*

LONG-BOW. See ARCHERY, vol. ii.

LONG-BREATHED, *adj.* Having good breath; long-winded.

LONG-CANE CREEK, a river of South Carolina, which runs into the Savanna in lat. 33. 45. N. lon. 82. 11. W.

LONG CHAPEL, a village in Shropshire; north-west of Wellington.

LONG COP'PICE, a village in Hampshire, in the parish of Warblington.

LONG DIT'CH, Northamptonshire, a causeway that runs by Collham-bridge, through West-Deeping, to Lincolnshire.

LONG DIT'TON. See KINGSTON, vol. xi. p. 749.

LONG-EA'RED, *adj.* Having long ears.

LONG FOR'GAN, a town of Scotland, in the county of Perth, erected into a burgh of barony in 1674, by Charles II. twelve miles east-north-east of Perth.

LONG-HAN'DED, *adj.* Having long hands. *Johnson.*

LONG-HEAD'ED, *adj.* Having a large stretch of thought; penetrating, subtle.

LONG HOR'SLEY, a village in Northumberland, near Widdrington Castle. The church stands at a distance from the town.

LONG-HOU-KO'EN, a town of China, in the province of Hou-quang: fifty-two miles south-south-west of Tao.

LONG-JOINT'ED, *adj.* Having long loose joints.

LONG I'SLAND, a small island near the west coast of Scotland. Lat. 56. 15. N. lon. 5. 37. W.

LONG I'SLAND, an island of America, formerly called *Manhattan*, afterwards *Nassau Island*, discovered by Henry Hudson, an Englishman, in 1609; and now belonging to the state of New York. It extends from Hudson-river, opposite to Staten-island, almost to the western boundaries of the coast of Rhode-island, terminating with Montauk-point. Its length is about 104 miles, and its medial breadth from ten to fourteen miles; and it is separated from Connecticut by Long-Island Sound. It contains 1400 square miles, and is divided into three counties, viz. King's, Queen's, and Suffolk; and these are again subdivided into nineteen townships. The north side of the island is rough and hilly, but the soil is well adapted for raising grain, hay, and fruit. The south side of the island lies low, and its soil is light and sandy. On the sea-coast are extensive tracts of salt-meadow, which extend from Southampton to the west end of the island. Nevertheless, the soil is well adapted to the culture of grain, especially Indian corn. Near the middle of the island is Hempstead-plain, in Queen's County, which is sixteen miles long, and about eight broad. This plain, the soil of which is black, and apparently rich, yields naturally a particular kind of wild grass and a few shrubs; but it produces some rye, and furnishes, together with the salt marshes, food for large herds of cattle. On the east part of the island, east of Hempstead-plain, is a large barren heath, called Brushy-plain, overgrown with shrub-oak, intermixed with a few pine-trees, which afford harbour to wild deer and grouse. In a bay on the south side of the island, vast quantities of oysters are taken, and also of bafs. The largest river in the island is Peakonok, which is but an inconsiderable stream; it runs east, and discharges itself into a large bay that separates Southhold from Southampton. In this bay are Robin and Shelter islands. Rockonkama-pond lies about the centre of the island, between Smith-town and Illip; it is about a mile in circumference, and has been found to rise gradually for several years, until it had arrived to a certain height, and then to fall more rapidly to its lowest bed; and thus it is continually ebbing and flowing. Two miles to the southward of the pond is a stream called Connecticut River, which runs into the bay. There are two whale-fisheries; one from Sogg-harbour, which produces about 1000 barrels of oil annually; the other is much smaller, and is carried on by the inhabitants in the winter season, from the south side of the island. They commonly catch from three to seven whales in a season, which produce from twenty-five to forty barrels of oil each. This fishery was formerly a source of considerable wealth to the inhabitants, but, on account of a scarcity of whales, it has of late years much declined. From Sogg-harbour to the West Indies and other places, there is a considerable trade in whale-oil, pitch, pine-boards, horses, cattle, flax-seed, beef, &c. The produce of the middle and western parts of the island is carried to New York. The island contains 42,097 inhabitants, of whom 3893 are slaves. *Morfe.*

LONG I'SLAND, an island of Virginia, at the mouth of York River.

LONG I'SLAND, an island in Penobscot Bay, on the coast of Main: ten miles long, and one and a half broad.

LONG I'SLAND, an island of America, on the coast of Main: four miles long, and one and a half wide. Lat. 44. 20. N. lon. 68. 20. W.

LONG I'SLAND, an island near the south coast of Jamaica. Lat. 17. 51. N. lon. 76. 58. W.

LONG I'SLAND, an island near the north coast of the island of Antigua. Lat. 17. 17. N. lon. 61. 28. W.

LONG I'SLAND, an island in Hudson's Straits. Lat. 61. N. lon. 75. W.



LONG ISLAND, an island in Hudson's Bay. Lat. 55. 10. N. lon. 78. 30. W.

LONG ISLAND, a narrow island, about two miles in length, on the south coast of Ireland, and county of Cork, in Roaring-Water Bay. Lat. 51. 26. N. lon. 9. 27. W.

LONG ISLAND, one of the smaller Bermuda Islands.

LONG ISLAND, a small island in the Gulf of Mexico, near the coast of East Florida. Lat. 27. 50. N. lon. 82. 55. W.

LONG ISLAND, a small island, near the coast of South-Carolina. Lat. 32. 50. N. lon. 79. 45. W.

LONG ISLAND, a small island, near the coast of Virginia, at the mouth of York River. Lat. 37. 16. N. lon. 76. 35. W.

LONG ISLAND, a small island in the Atlantic, near the coast of Brazil. Lat. 16. 30. S.

LONG ISLAND, a small island in Pool Harbour.

LONG ISLAND, a small island in the Eastern Indian Sea, near the west coast of Billiton. Lat. 2. 51. S. lon. 107. 30. E.

LONG ISLAND, a small island in the Eastern Indian Sea, near the south-east coast of the island of Madura. Lat. 7. 16. S. lon. 113. 5. E.

LONG ISLAND, a small island in the Eastern Indian Sea, near the north coast of the island of Flores. Lat. 8. 6. S. lon. 122. 27. E.

LONG ISLAND, a small island in a bay on the north coast of New Guinea. Lat. 1. 4. S. lon. 135. 18. E.

LONG ISLAND, an island in Queen Charlotte's Sound, on the coast of New Zealand, called by the natives Hamote, about four miles in length: nine miles south of Port Jackson.

LONG ISLAND, an island in the South Pacific Ocean, at the entrance of Broad Sound, on the north-north-east coast of New Holland, about thirty miles in length. Lat. 22. 24. S. lon. 210. 33. N.

LONG ISLAND, a small island in the Eastern Indian Sea, near the coast of Africa. Lat. 10. 25. S.

LONG ISLAND, one of the islands, in the Mergui Archipelago. Lat. 12. 36. N. lon. 98. 12. E.

LONG ISLAND. See YUMA.

LONG ISLAND SOUND, a kind of inland sea, from three to twenty-five miles broad, and about 140 miles long, extending the whole length of Long Island, in the state of New York, and dividing it from Connecticut. This sound communicates with the ocean at both ends of the island, and affords a very safe and convenient inland navigation.

LONG ISLE, or ISLE-RIVER, Indians, are Indians who inhabit the territory on Isle, or White, river, which runs west into the Wabash-river. The mouth of White-river is in lat. 38. 58. N. lon. 90. 7. W.

LONG KA'NG, a town of Corea: thirty miles west-north-west of Hoang-tcheou.

LONG KE'Y (Middle), a small island in the bay of Honduras, near the coast of Mexico. Lat. 17. 10. N. lon. 88. 48. W.

LONG KE'Y (North), a small island in the bay of Honduras, near the coast of Mexico. Lat. 17. 50. N. lon. 88. 40. W.

LONG KE'Y (South), a small island in the bay of Honduras, near the coast of Mexico. Lat. 16. 57. N. lon. 88. 50. W.

LONG KOU'ANG, a town of Corea: 125 miles south-fourth-east of King-ki-tao. Lat. 35. 55. N. lon. 127. 54. E.

LONG LA'KES, a chain of small lakes in Upper Canada, extending westerly from the grand portage of lake Superior toward Rain lake.

LONG LE'AT. See WARMINSTER.

LONG'-LEGGED, *adj.* Having long legs.

LONG'-LEGS, *f.* in entomology. See TIPULA.

LONG'-LIVED, *adj.* Living long.

LONG ME'ADOW, a town of America, in Hampshire-county, Massachusetts, on the east bank of Connecticut-

river, about four miles south of Springfield, and twenty-three north of Hartford; incorporated in 1783, and containing a congregational church, and about seventy houses, forming a street parallel with the river.

LONG MEASURE. See the article ARITHMETIC, vol. ii.

LONG-MEG'. See KESWICK, vol. xi. p. 692.

LONG MEL'FORD, Suffolk, within three miles of Sudbury, is a pleasant village, and perhaps one of the largest in England, being about a mile in length. Melford has an annual fair, several good inns, many handsome houses, and creditable inhabitants. Here lived the unhappy Mr. Drew, who, in the year 1739, was barbarously murdered; and his son, Charles Drew, executed for it, who effected it either with his own hands, or by those of another person whom he procured to do it, by shooting him, for the sake of enjoying his estate. This parricide was attended with circumstances of great horror. *British Directory*, vol. iv.

Few villages in England can boast of a more agreeable situation than this, the immediate vicinity being distinguished by much beautiful and picturesque scenery. The church, which stands on an elevated spot at the north end of it, is a curious piece of architecture in the pointed style of the fifteenth century: its length is 120 feet, exclusive of the school-house at the western extremity: the chancel, or east end, is distinguished for its masonry, consisting of flint-work, and square stones; and beneath the parapet is an inscription in old letters. In the north aisle is an altar-tomb for William Clopton, esq. whose statue, in armour, rests on the top; he died in 1446. His son, John Clopton, who was sheriff of the counties of Norfolk and Suffolk in the time of Henry VI. was interred under an altar-tomb in the chancel. Near the communion-table is a large and stately marble monument to the memory of sir William Cordell, who was speaker of the house of commons in the reign of queen Mary: this gentleman founded an hospital here, which is still standing, almost close to the church: it is a respectable brick building, and is sufficiently endowed for the support of a warden, twelve poor men, and two women, who are required to be old and decayed housekeepers of Melford. Several Roman urns have been dug up in this parish within these few years.

At a short distance east of the church is Melford Hall, the seat of sir H. Parker, bart. lately killed in America. The house, a large brick building, appears to be of the age of queen Elizabeth. At the dissolution of religious houses, this estate was granted to sir William Cordell.—About half a mile north of the church is Kentwell Hall, formerly the seat of the Cloptons, but now of Richard Moore, esq. The house is large, and was formerly surrounded by a moat, three sides of which are still remaining; the fourth or east side has been filled up. *Shoberl's Beauties of England and Wales*.

LONG MEN', a town of China, of the third rank, in Quang-tong: forty-two miles north of Hoi-tcheou.

LONG MOUNTAIN, a mountain of Virginia: eighty miles west-south-west of Richmond. Lat. 37. 15. N. lon. 79. 20. W.

LONG-NAN', a city of China, of the first rank, in Setchuen, on the river Mou-qua. This city is considered as one of the most important of the province, having several forts under its jurisdiction, which were formerly of great use to prevent the invasions of the Tartars. It is 710 miles south-west of Peking. Lat. 32. 22. N. lon. 104. 18. E.

LONG-NAN', a town of China, of the third rank, in Kiang-si: fifty miles south of Nan-ngan.

LONG'-NECKED, *adj.* Having a long neck.

LONG-NEN', a town of China, of the third rank, in Pe-tche-li: twenty-seven miles north-west of Yen-king.

LONG NESS POINT', a cape on the south coast of the Isle of Man: ten miles south-south-west of Douglas.

LONG NEWTON, a town of Scotland, in the county of Roxburgh: six miles north-west of Jedburgh.

LONG-



LONG-NGAN', a town of China, of the third rank, in Quang-si: seven miles south-west of Tou-nang.

LONG' NOSE, a cape on the east coast of New Holland, in the South Pacific Ocean. Lat. 35. 6. S. lon. 151. 15. E.

LONG'-PATED, *adj.* Having a long head; more than commonly discerning.

LONG POINT, is a long beach or sand-bank, on Lake Erie, in Upper Canada, now called the North Foreland, stretching into Lake Erie from the township of Walsingham, and forming the deep bay of Long Point, upwards of twenty miles in length.

LONG PRIMER, *f.* A printing-type, one size larger than the present.

LONG RE'ACH, a narrow part of the Straits of Magellan, between Cape Quad and Buckley Point.

LONG RE'EF, a shoal in the Spanish Main, near the Mosquito Shore. Lat. 12. 22. N. lon. 82. 50. W.

LONG SAU'T, a small island in the river St. Laurence, Lat. 55. 2. N. lon. 74. 55. W.

LONG SHO'AL, a river of North Carolina, which runs into Pamlico Sound in lat. 35. 21. N. lon. 76. 4. W.

LONG SHOAL POINT', a cape on the coast of North Carolina, at the mouth of Long Shoal River. Lat. 35. 22. N. lon. 76. 2. W.

LONG-SI'UEN, a town of China, of the third rank, in Kiang-si: forty-two miles south of Ki-ngan.

LONG-SI'UEN, a town of China, of the third rank, in Tche-kiang: forty-five miles west-fourth-west of Tchu-tcheo.

LONG STO'W, a village in Cambridgeshire, from which the hundred takes its name; two miles from Caxton. The neighbourhood is remarkable for its fine woods.

LONG-SUF'FERING, *adj.* Patient; not easily provoked.—The Lord God, merciful, and gracious, *long-suffering*, and abundant in goodness. *Exod.* xxxiv. 6.

LONG-SUF'FERING, *f.* Patience of offence; clemency.—We infer from the mercy and *long-suffering* of God, that they were themselves sufficiently secure of his favour. *Rogers.*

LONG SUT'TON, or SUTTON ST. MARY'S, a small market-town in Lincolnshire; five miles east of Holbeach.

LONG'-TAIL, *f.* *Cut and long tail:* a canting-term for one or another. A phrase taken perhaps from dogs, which, belonging to men not qualified to hunt, had their tails cut.—I will come cut and *long-tail* under the degree of a squire. *Shakespeare.*

LONG'-TAILED, *adj.* Having a long tail.

LONG-TAN', a town of Corea: forty-two miles south-east of Hetsin.

LONG-TCHANG', a town of China, of the third rank, in Se-tchuen: thirty-five miles north-north-west of Tche-li-leou.

LONG-TCHANG-CHING', a town of China, in Chang-tong: fifteen miles east of Tci-nan.

LONG-TCHI'AN, a mountain of Thibet. Lat. 27. 48. N. lon. 86. 39. E.

LONG-TCHU'EN, a town of Corea: fifty-five miles west-north-west of Han-tcheou.

LONG-TCHU'EN, a town of China, of the third rank, in Quang-tong: fifty miles east-south-east of Lien-ping.

LONG-TE', a town of China, of the third rank, in Chen-si: twenty-two miles west of Pin-leang.

LONG-TONGUED, *adj.* Loquacious.—A *long-tongued* babbling gossip! *Titus Andronicus.*

LONG-TSU'EN, a town of China, of the third rank, in Koei-tcheou: twenty-seven miles south-west of Se-nan.

LONG-TY', a town of China, of the third rank, in Koei-tcheou: twelve miles south-east Koei-yang.

LONG-WINDED, *adj.* Long-breathed; tedious:

My simile you minded,  
Which, I confess, is too *long-winded*.

*Swift.*

LONG-YANG', a town of China, of the third rank, in Hou-quang: fifteen miles south-east of Tchan-te.

LONG-YEN', a town of China, of the third rank, in Fo-kien: fifty-two miles south-east of Ting-tcheou.

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LONG-YE'OU, a town of China of the third rank, in Tche-kiang: fifteen miles east-north-east of Kiu-tcheou.

LON'GA, one of the smaller Shetland Islands. Lat. 60. 12. N. lon. 1. 37. W.

LON'GA, a small island near the west coast of Scotland. Lat. 56. 12. N. lon. 5. 40. W.

LONGAHOO', one of the smaller Friendly Islands: twelve miles east-fourth-east of Neeneeva.

LONGANIMITY, *f.* [*longanimitas*, Lat.] Forbearance; patience of offences.—It had overcome the patience of Job, as it did the meekness of Moses; and surely had mattered any but the *longanimity* and lasting sufferance of God. *Brown's Vulgar Errors.*—That innocent and holy matron had rather go clad in the snowy-white robes of meekness and *longanimity*, than in the purple mantle of blood. *Howel's England's Tears.*

LONGA'RA, a town of Naples, in Calabria Ultra: twenty miles west-north-west of St. Severina.

LONGA'RES, a town of Spain, in Arragon: twenty miles south-south-west of Saragossa.

LONGA'Y, a small island near the east coast of Skye. Lat. 57. 19. N. lon. 5. 53. W.

LONG'BOROUGH, a village in Gloucestershire: three miles north from Stow, seven south from Campden, and twenty-five east from Gloucester.

LONG'BRIDGE, a town of Scotland, in the county of Murray: four miles east of Elgin.

LONG'BRIDGE, a village in Dorsetshire; north-west of Axminster.—A village in Gloucestershire, near Ashelworth.—Another, north of Berkeley; where formerly was a monastery.—A village in Warwickshire; on the south side of Warwick.

LONG'CHAMP, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Marne: twelve miles east of Chaumont.

LONG'CHAMP, a town of France, in the department of Paris: three miles west of Paris.

LONG'CHAMPS, a town of France, in the department of the Vosges: three miles north-north-east of Epinal, and seven west of Bruyeres.

LONG'COMB, a village in Oxfordshire, near Woodstock-park.

LONG'COT, a village in Berkshire, near Farringdon.

LONG'DON, a decayed market-town in Staffordshire; four miles from Lichfield, in the road to Chester, on a brook that runs into the Trent.

LONG'DON, the name of two villages in Shropshire; one near Drayton, the other south of Shrewsbury.

LONG'DON, a village in Worcestershire; south of Upton, and north-west of Tewkesbury.

LONG'DRIDGE, a village in Cornwall; north-west of Kellington.

LONGEAU', a town of France, in the department of the Upper Marne: six miles south of Langres.

LONGE'E, *f.* [French.] A thrust at fencing; a lunge.—When he accosts a lady, he stamps with his foot like a French fencer, and makes a *longee* at her. *Butler's Characters.*

LONGE'E, in geography. See LOONGHEE.

LONGEPIERRE, a town of France, in the department of the Saône and Loire, situated near the river Doubs: sixteen miles north-east of Châlons sur Saône, and seven east-north-east of Verdun sur Saône.

LONGEPIERRE (Hilaire-Bernard de Roqueleyne, lord of), born of a noble family at Dijon in 1659, was secretary of commands to the duke of Berry. He distinguished himself by an accurate knowledge of the Greek language, and taste for the beauties of its authors. In 1685, he published notes upon Anacreon, Sappho, Bion, and Moschus, and the Idylls of Theocritus, with a French translation in verse, or rather in measured prose, which had considerable success. In 1690, he gave to the public a collection of Idylls of his own invention, which are said to contain natural painting, but to be feeble and profane in their versification. His tragedies of Medea and Electra, written in the manner of the Greek tragedians, were both acted, and gave him a reputation among dra-



matic poets. Voltaire says of the first, that, although unequal, and too declamatory, it is superior to the *Medea* of Peter Corneille. He wrote other tragedies in the same style, which had the merit of not enfeebling the grand and terrible by the intermixture of insipid love-scenes; but at the same time they too closely imitated the prolix common-place and the naked plots of the Greek theatre, without emulating its beauty of diction. Longepierre died at Paris in 1721. *Moreri*.

LONGERI, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Loango, where the kings are generally interred.

LONGETERRE, a small island near the west coast of France: two miles west of Bourg Neuf. Lat. 47. 1.

LONGEVILLE, a town of France, in the department of the Moselle: four miles east-south-east of Boulay, and three west of St. Avold.

LONGEVILLE, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Marne: fifteen miles south-south-west of St. Dizier.

LONGEVITY, *f.* [*longævus*, Lat.] Length of life.—The instances of *longevity* are chiefly amongst the abstemious. *Arbuthnot on Aliments*.—See the article LIFE, vol. xii. p. 634.

LONGVOUS, *adj.* [from the Lat. *longus*, long, and *ævum*, an age.] Living long, long-lived.

LONGFIELD, a village in Buckinghamshire, near Fenny Stratford.

LONGFIELD, a village in Kent, between Dartford and Cobham.

LONGFLEET, Dorset, at the bottom of Poole-harbour; a member of Great Lanford.

LONGFORD, a county of Ireland, in the province of Leinster, bounded on the north-west by the county of Leitrim, on the north-east by Cavan, on the south and south-east by Westmeath, and on the west by Roscommon, about 21 miles in length, and 14 in its general breadth. It contains 23 parishes, about 10,000 houses, and rather more than 50,000 inhabitants. Towards the north it is mountainous, but the other part is in general flat, in some places subject to be overflowed by the Shannon, which bounds it on the west, and the Inny, which crosses it on the south. A considerable quantity of linen is manufactured in the county, and great quantities of flax are sent to other parts. It is intended that the Royal Canal should cross this county, and join the Shannon at Tarrionbury; a measure which cannot fail of leading to much improvement, if it should be ever completed. The towns are small. For Longford, the county-town, see the next article; and for Granard and Laneshorough, those names in their alphabetical order.

Edgeworthstown, though not of importance enough to form a separate article in this work, is remarkable for the residence of a family distinguished for literary and scientific attainments. The name of Maria Edgeworth is too well known, and her talents as a pleasing and useful author too generally acknowledged, to need our praise. The same may be said of her lively, ingenious, and patriotic father, Richard Lovell Edgeworth; and there is reason to expect that some of the younger branches of this family will add to a celebrity already very great. We might instance the reports of the bog-commissioners, the eighth of which contains many proofs of the ingenuity of Mr. William Edgeworth. Mr. Edgeworth's house and the adjoining church contain many proofs of his mechanical skill.—The whole of the county of Longford was formerly called *Annaly*, and was a principality so late as the fifteenth century. It is now only represented in parliament by two knights of the shire; though it had, before the union, no less than four boroughs, which sent two members each.

LONGFORD, a town of Ireland, in the county of that name, on the river Cammin. Here was formerly a Dominican convent, founded in 1400, by O'Farrel bishop of Ardagh. In 1641, this town was taken by the Irish rebels, and the garrison in the castle murdered after a promise of quarter. It has a charter-school for sixty boys.

It is forty miles south-south-west of Sligo, and fifty-eight west-north-west of Dublin. Lat. 52. 42. N. lon. 7. 45. W.

LONGFORD, a village in Derbyshire, west of Derby.—A village in Gloucestershire, near Gloucester.—A village in Middlesex, south-east of Colnbrook.—A village in Shropshire, near Drayton.

LONGFORD'S BURLEY, a hamlet in the parish of Hampton, Gloucestershire.

LONGHAM, a village in Dorsetshire, east of Winburnminster; with a bridge, built in 1740.

LONGHAM, a village in Norfolk, north-west of East Dereham.—A village in Somersetshire, north-west of Somerton.

LONGHAVEN, a bay of Scotland, on the coast of Aberdeenshire: four miles south of Peterhead.

LONGHOLM. See LANGHOLM, vol. xii. p. 150.

LONGHOPE, a village and parish in Gloucestershire; three miles north-east of Mitchel-Dean, and nine north-west of Gloucester. Part of Yartleton-hill lies in this parish. Annually on the first of May, there is a custom of assembling in bodies on the top of that hill, from the several parishes, to fight for the possession of it, upon which account it is sometimes called May-hill. What gave rise to this custom is the ancient Campus Martius, which was an annual assembly of the people upon May-day, when they confederated together to defend the kingdom against all foreigners and enemies, as mentioned in the laws of Edward the Confessor. The church is a large building in form of a cross; and has a spire with five bells at the west end. The chancel was rebuilt, and the church repaired, in the year 1771.

LONGHURST, a village in Northumberlandshire, north-east of Morpeth.

LONGIANO, a town of Italy, in the department of the Rubicon: twelve miles north-west of Rimini.

LONGILO'QUY, *f.* [from the Lat. *longus*, long, and *loquor*, to speak.] A long discourse. *Bailey*.

LONGIMANOUS, *adj.* [*longimanus*, Lat.] Long-handed; having long hands.—The villainy of this Christian exceeded the persecution of heathens, whose malice was never so *longimanous* as to reach the soul of their enemies, or to extend unto the exile of their elyiums. *Brown*.

LONGIMANUS, a surname of Artaxerxes from his having one hand longer than the other. The Greeks called him *Macrochir*, which signifies the same.

LONGIMETRY, *f.* [*longus*, and *metrew*.] The art or practice of measuring distances.—Our two eyes are like two different stations in *longimetry*, by the assistance of which the distance between two objects is measured. *Cheyne's Phil. Pr.*

LONGING, *f.* [from *To long*.] Earnest; desire; continual wish.—Within short time I came to the degree of uncertain wishes, and that those wishes grew to unquiet longings, when I would fix my thoughts upon nothing, but that within little varying they should end with Philoclea. *Sidney*.

I have a woman's *longing*,  
An appetite that I am sick withal,  
To see great Hector in the weeds of peace. *Shakespeare*.

Sometimes with *after*.—The will is left to the pursuit of nearer satisfactions, and to the removal of those uneasinesses which it then feels in its want of, and *longings after*, them. *Locke*.

Whence then this pleasing hope, this fond desire,  
This *longing after* immortality. *Addison's Cato*.

LONGING in pregnant women, an inordinate desire for some particular kind of food, which, if not procured for them, was supposed to occasion wasting, and sometimes hysteric affections, in the woman; and on the child, besides impairing its health, to impress the figure of the object longed for. This affection, which heretofore occasioned in families much anxiety and uneasiness, seems wearing away, just in proportion as the belief in witches, ghosts,



ghosts, and hobgoblins, vanishes, or as reason and common sense procure an ascendancy over superstition and folly.

LONG'INGLY, *adv.* With incessant wishes :

To his first bias *longingly* he leans,  
And rather would be great by wicked means. *Dryden.*

LONG'ISH, *adj.* Somewhat long.

LONGINICO, a town of Turkey in Europe, in the Morea, anciently called *Olympia*, famous for being the place where the Olympic games were celebrated, and for the temple of Jupiter Olympus, about a mile distant. It is now but a small place, seated on the river Alpheus, ten miles from its mouth, and fifty south of Lepanto. Lat. 37. 50. N. lon. 22. 0. E.

LONGINUS (Dionysius), a celebrated Greek critic and philosopher of the third century, is supposed by some to have been an Athenian, by others a Syrian. He was first the disciple, and then the heir, of Cornelius Fronto, the nephew of Plutarch. In his youth Longinus travelled for improvement to Athens, Rome, Alexandria, and other cities distinguished for literature; and attended the lectures of all the eminent masters in eloquence and philosophy. The system he chiefly followed was the eclectic of Ammonius Sacca: he was likewise a great admirer of Plato, whose memory he honoured by an annual festival. Such was the extent of his erudition, that he was called by his cotemporaries "the living library." He appears to have taught philosophy at Athens, where Porphyry was one of his disciples. His reputation caused him to be invited to the court of the celebrated Zenobia, queen of Palmyra, who took his instructions in the Greek language, and made use of his counsels on political occasions. This distinction was fatal to him. After the emperor Aurelian, in his expedition against Zenobia, had defeated her troops, and made her captive, she attempted to avert the resentment of the conqueror by imputing her resistance to the advice of her ministers and counsellors. Longinus, who fell into his hands among the rest, was particularly suspected of having composed the spirited answer of the queen to Aurelian's summons; and, without respect for his genius and learning, he was ordered for instant execution. His philosophy supported him in this hour of trial; and he calmly submitted to his fate, with expressions of pity for his unfortunate mistress, and consolation to his afflicted friends. This event took place A.D. 273. Among the numerous writings of Longinus, his "Treatise on the Sublime" is the only one remaining, and this, too, in a mutilated and imperfect state. It has always been greatly admired for the elevation of its language and sentiments, which has caused one of our poets to characterize him as being "himself the great sublime he draws." He is one of the very few ancients who appear to have been acquainted with the Jewish scriptures. Of the editions of Longinus, the most esteemed are that of Tallius, Traj. ad Rhen. 1694, 4to. of Hudson, Oxon. 1710, 8vo. of Pearce, Lond. 1724, 4to. and of Toup, with Ruhnken's emendations, Oxon. 1778, 8vo. An excellent English translation of Longinus was published in 1739, by Dr. Smith, whose version of Thucydides also gained him great reputation: but such changes have insensibly crept into our language during the last 70 years, that, though faithful, the English Longinus seems now to want elegance.

LONGITUDE, *f.* [*longitude*, Fr. *longitudo*, Lat.] Length; the greatest dimension.—The ancients did determine the *longitude* of all rooms, which were longer than broad, by the double of their latitude. *Wotton*.—The circumference of the earth measured from any meridian.—Some of Magellanus's company were the first that did compass the world through all the degrees of *longitude*. *Abbot*.—The distance of any part of the earth to the east or west of any place.—His was the method of discovering the *longitude* by bomb-veffels. *Arbutnot*.

To conclude;  
Of *longitudes*, what other way have we,  
But to mark when and where the dark eclipses be? *Donne*.

The position of any thing to east or west.—The *longitude* of a star is its distance from the first point of numeration towards the east, which first point, unto the ancients, was the vernal equinox. *Brown's Vulgar Errors*.—See the articles ASTRONOMY, GEOGRAPHY, and HOROLOGY.

LONGITU'DINAL, *adj.* [from *longitude*.] Measured by the length; running in the longest direction.—*Longitudinal* is opposed to transverse: these vesiculæ are distended, and their *longitudinal* diameters straitened, and so the length of the whole muscle shortened. *Cheyne*.

LONGITU'DINALLY, *adv.* Lengthwise, in the direction of the longitude.

LONGJUMEAU, a town of France, in the department of the Seine and Oise, and chief place of a canton, in the district of Corbeil: ten miles south of Paris. The place contains 1434, and the canton 13,650, inhabitants.

LONG'LY, *adv.* [from *To long*.] Longingly; with great liking:

Master, you look'd so *longly* on the maid,  
Perhaps you mark not what's the pith of all. *Shakespeare*.

LONG'MAY, a town of Scotland, in the county of Aberdeen: five miles south of Fraserburgh.

LONG'NEY, a village in Gloucestershire, seven miles north-west of Stroud, three east of Newnham, and seven south-west of Gloucester.

LONG'NON, a village in Salop, near the river Warren, west of Wenlock.

LONG'NOR, a town of England, in the county of Stafford, on the borders of Derbyshire, with a weekly market on Wednesday: 32 miles north of Stafford, and 167 north-west of London.

LONG'NY, a town of France, in the department of the Orne: nine miles east of Mortagne, and twelve north-east of Bellefme.

LONGOBAR'DI. See LOMBARDS.

LONGOBAR'DO, a town of Naples, in Calabria Citra: ten miles south-west of Cosenza.

LONGOBU'CO, a town of Naples, in Calabria Citra: fourteen miles south of Rosano.

LONGOMONTANUS (Christian), an eminent Danish astronomer, was the son of a poor labouring peasant, and born at Longomontium, an obscure village in Jutland, whence he took his surname, in the year 1562. Having afforded early indications of a love for learning, his father did all that lay in his power to procure him instruction; and, upon the death of that parent when he was only eight years of age, one of his uncles took him to reside for some time with him, and had him taught by the minister of the place. That relation, however, finding that the expence of paying for his education was greater than his circumstances would afford, at last advised him to return to his mother, and to earn his living, as his brothers did, by ploughing. Notwithstanding this sad disappointment, young Longomontanus was not disheartened; but, possessing an inextinguishable thirst for knowledge, improved every opportunity which his laborious life permitted, in endeavouring to acquire it. At length, by his earnest intreaties he prevailed so far, that his mother gave him leave to study all the winter, upon the condition that he worked all the summer in the fields. He went on thus for some time; but, being tired out with the ill-treatment and reproaches of his brothers and sisters, who could not bear to see him surpass them as he did, he determined to steal away from his family, and to try his fortune in the world. Accordingly, at the age of fifteen, he suddenly left his mother's house, and went to Wiburg, a town twelve miles distant from his native place, where there was a college. Here he spent eleven years; and, though he was forced to procure the means of support by his industry, he nevertheless applied to his studies with extreme ardour, and made a great progress in learning, particularly in the mathematical sciences. Afterwards he went from Wiburg to Copenhagen; where, by the great proficiency which he had already made, and his incessant application,



he in one year so far secured the good opinion of the professors of that university, that they recommended him, in the strongest terms, as an assistant to the illustrious Tycho Brahe. It was in 1589 that he waited on that celebrated astronomer, who then resided in the island of Huen, from whom he met with so favourable a reception, that he continued with him eight years. During that period, he afforded Tycho much assistance in observing the heavens, and in his calculations; and was so accurate, so laborious, and skilful, that he won the particular regard and esteem of that great man. This is evident from the letters which Tycho wrote to him in 1598 and 1599, after his departure from Denmark to Bohemia; in which he strongly urged Longomontanus to join him in that country. With this request the latter complied, and went to Tycho at the castle of Benach near Prague, where he continued to assist him for some time in his astronomical labours. At length, the desire which he had of filling a professor's chair in Denmark determined him to return to his native country; when Tycho, who parted with him very reluctantly, gave him a discharge filled with the highest testimonies of his esteem, and furnished him with sufficient money to defray the expense of his long journey.

Longomontanus returned to Denmark by a circuitous route through Poland, in order to view the scene of Copernicus's astronomical labours; and, when he arrived at Copenhagen, the chancellor Christian Friis proved a Meccenas to him, and gave him an honourable employment in his family. In 1603, he quitted the chancellor, upon his having received the appointment of rector of the college of Wiburg; which he retained till the year 1605, when he was nominated to a professorship of mathematics in the university of Copenhagen. He was now placed in a situation which had ever been the object of his highest ambition, and for which his genius and talents peculiarly qualified him; and he discharged the duties of it with the greatest ability, and highest reputation, till his death, which took place in 1647, when he was about the age of eighty-five. He was the author of various works, which discover great talents in mathematics and astronomy. The most distinguished of them, is his *Astronomia Danica*, first printed in 1622, in 4to. and afterwards in folio, with considerable augmentations, in 1633 and 1640. It contains all the great discoveries of Regiomontanus, Purbach, and Tycho Brahe; and it proposes some alterations in the system of the latter, which, without disconcerting any of its parts, would, he imagined, preclude some of the strongest objections which were made to it. Gassendi says, in the life of Tycho Brahe, that this work belongs to Tycho rather than to Longomontanus; because that the tables of the celestial motions, contained in them, were begun under the inspection of Tycho Brahe, and were completed from a collection of his select observations, which Longomontanus had copied for his use. Longomontanus amused himself with endeavouring to square the circle, and pretended that he had made the discovery of it; but our countryman Dr. Pell proved that he was mistaken. It is remarkable that, obscure as his native place and father were, he contrived to dignify and eternize them both; by taking his name from that village, and in the title-page to some of his works, calling himself, Christianus Longomontanus, Severini Filius, his father's name being Severin, or Severianus. *Hutton*.

LONGOTO'MA, a river of Chili, which runs into the Pacific Ocean in lat. 31. 30. S.

LONGOTO'MA, a town of Chili, on the north side of the river so called: eighty-four miles south of Coquimbo.

LONG'PARISH, a village in Hampshire, between Barton-Stacey and Andover.

LONG'PORT, a village in Staffordshire, near Newcastle-under-Line, on the line of the Staffordshire Canal, with a wharf belonging to the company.

LONG'SIDE, a town of Scotland, in the county of Aberdeen: four miles west of Peterhead.

LONG SOME, *adj.* [from *long*.] Tedious; wearisome

by its length.—They found the war so churlish and *longsome*, as they grew then to a resolution, that, as long as England stood in state to succour those countries, they should but consume themselves in an endless war. *Bacon's War with Spain*.

When chill'd by adverse snows, and beating rain,  
We tread with wearied steps the *longsome* plain. *Prior*.

LONG'SPIEL, *f.* A very ancient musical instrument, found by sir Joseph Banks and Dr. Solander in Iceland, when they visited that country in 1773. This instrument, of a long and narrow form, and strung with four strings of copper, is extremely rude and clumsy. One of the four strings is used as a drone; the rest are played with a bow. Pieces of wood are placed at different distances on the finger-board, to serve as frets. It seems, indeed, to have been the primitive idea of a fiddle; and is a proof that the use of the bow, that wonderful engine, which the ancients, with all their ingenuity and musical refinements, had never been able to discover, was known by the Scalds in Iceland at least as early as in any other part of Europe.

LONG'STOCK, a village in Hampshire, between Dunbury-hill and Stockbridge.

LONG'STON, a village in Derbyshire, in the high peak.

LONG'THORP, a village in the north riding of Yorkshire, near Bedale.—A village near Peterborough in Northamptonshire.

LONG'TON, a village of Staffordshire, in the parish of Stoke-upon-Trent, near Rudgley. Its church lies on the west side of the village, which consists of scattered houses, extending for a vast way on each side of the road. It was formerly full of gentlemen's seats.

LONG'TON, a township of Lancashire, with a population of 904: six miles south-west of Preston.

LONG'TON, or LONGTOWN, a town in Cumberland, on the Scottish borders, near the conflux of the Esk and Kirkclop: nine miles from Carlisle, and 307 from London. It has a market on Thursday, and a charity-school for sixty children; fairs on Whit-Monday, and Thursday after November 22.

Longtown stands in the midst of the estate of sir James Graham, of Netherby, whose predecessor, Dr. Robert Graham, may be considered as having been the principal cause of the prosperous state of this part of Cumberland. Under his patronage Longtown became populous; and, by constructing the little harbour at Sarkfoot, he furnished the people with an easy mode of exporting their produce, and supplying themselves with necessaries. Netherby, the seat of sir James Graham, is much celebrated in the topographical annals of this county, from the vast improvements that were made here during the latter part of the last century; nor is it less interesting to the antiquary from the assemblage of Roman remains that have been here preserved; and from its having been a Roman station. The mansion, which stands on an eminence near the river Esk, was erected by the late Dr. Graham, about the year 1760, but has been much improved by the present proprietor. It is elegantly fitted up; and contains a valuable collection of ancient and modern medals, and a library furnished with a selection of classic and other valuable authors. The gardens and pleasure grounds are disposed with much taste and judgment. *Beauties of England and Wales*.

LONG'TOWN, a township of Herefordshire, on the borders of Monmouthshire, with 768 inhabitants: eighteen miles west-south-west of Hereford.

LONGUE', a town of France, in the department of the Mayne and Loire: seven miles north of Saumur, and ten south of Baugé.

LONGUE', a small island in the Indian Sea, ten miles north of the Mauritius.

LONGU'EIL, a town of Canada, on the St. Laurence. Lat. 45. 36. N. lon. 73. W.

LONGU'EIL (Christopher de), a man of letters, born at Mechlin in 1488, was natural son of Antony de Longueuil, bishop of Leon. He was taken young to Paris, where



where he was carefully educated in classical learning and the sciences, in every branch of which he distinguished himself. He practised as a lawyer in that capital, and obtained the place of a counsellor in parliament. For the purpose of improvement he travelled into Italy, Spain, England, and Germany; and in Switzerland was near falling a victim to the hatred of the people against the French after the battle of Marignano. At Rome he made an harangue before pope Leo X. who was greatly struck with his eloquence. Such was his attachment to Italy, that his friends in vain attempted to keep him in France, when he revisited it; and, returning to the former country, he died at Padua in 1522, at the early age of thirty-four. Longueil, or Longolius, acquired a great name among those scholars in that age who were so peculiarly studious of the purity of their Latin style, that they were termed *Ciceronians*, that great writer being almost the sole object of their imitation. In Erasmus's dialogue entitled *Ciceronianus*, several pages are devoted to Longolius, as being the only Cisalpine writer to whom the Italians allowed classical purity of style. The works of Longolius consist of epistles and harangues, in which more attention is paid to the manner than the matter. They were published at Paris, in 1533, 8vo. with his life by cardinal Pole. In this collection was omitted his "Oratio de Laudibus D. Ludovici Francorum Regis," 1510, on account of its free strictures on the court of Rome.

LONGUEIL (Gilbert), a physician and philologist, was born at Utrecht in 1507. After an education in classical literature and philology in his own country, he went to Italy, where he took the degree of doctor of physic. On his return he taught the learned languages, first at Deventer, and afterwards at Andernach and Cologne. In this last city he also practised medicine, and was made physician to the archbishop Herman. He died there in 1543; and, being suspected of attachment to the principles of the reformation, was refused burial, so that his friends interred him at Bonn. He compiled a Lexicon Græco-Latinum, 8vo. Colon. 1533; published notes upon Ovid's *Metamorphoses*, Plautus, Cicero's *Epistles*, Cornelius Nepos, and Laurentius Valla, forming four vols. 8vo. edited Philostratus's *Life of Apollonius Tyaneus*, and the *History of the Second Council of Nice*; translated several pieces of Plutarch; and wrote a *Dialogue on Birds*, with their Names in Greek, Latin, and German.

LONGUEMARCH, a town of France, in the department of the Lys: seven miles north-north-east of Ypres.

LONGUERUE (Louis Dufour de), abbot of Sept-Fontaines and Jard, a person of extraordinary erudition, was born in 1652, at Charleville, of a noble family in Normandy. The singular quickness of parts which he displayed almost from infancy was so well improved by an excellent education, that he became at a very early age a prodigy of learning. He made himself master of the classical and several of the oriental languages, and the principal tongues of modern Europe. His memory retained a vast store of facts in history, chronology, and geography, together with philosophical systems and theological dogmas; so that scarcely any literary topic could be started on which he did not possess more than common information. He had a profound knowledge of the text of the Scriptures, which he studied philologically, paying little regard to scholastic divinity; hence he was supposed in many points to accede to the opinions of the Protestants; nor did he at all enter into the disputes concerning grace and predestination which so much agitated the Gallican church in his time. He published little, but was extremely communicative of his knowledge in conversation; in which, however, he assumed an air of superiority, with a decisive and dogmatic tone, that exercised the patience of those who consulted him. He was vehement in dispute, full of sarcastic sallies, and often rash and hasty in his judgments; but the learned men who enjoyed his intimacy were often greatly benefited by his assistance in their researches. He was intimately connected with Mont-

faucón, and with Pagi, author of the *Critique on the annals of Baronius*, to which work he was a large contributor. The abbé Longuerue died at Paris, in 1733, at the age of eighty-two. His printed works are, 1. A Latin Dissertation upon Tatian, prefixed to the Oxford edition of this author in 1700. 2. *Remarques sur la Vie de Cardinal Wolsey*, published in the eighth volume of the *Mémoires*, historical and literary, collected by Father Desmolets. 3. *Description Historique & Géographique de la France, Ancienne & Moderne*, fol. 1719: this gave so much offence, by its arguments against the immediate rights of the kings of France to Transjuran Gaul, and some other provinces, that its sale was prohibited. 4. *Annales Arfacidarum*; Strasbourg, 1732, 4to. 5. *Dissertation sur la Transubstantiation*: this piece, which passed under the name of his friend the protestant minister Allix, is not doubted to be the abbé's composition. 6. Two Latin Dissertations on the early History of France, printed in the third volume of the new *Recueil des Historiens des France*, 1741. After the abbé's death, in 1754, appeared, 7. *Longueruana, ou Recueil des Pensées, des Discours, & des Conversations, de M. de Longuerue*. This is formed from collections made by his friend the abbé de Guignon, and contains free opinions on various subjects. To it is prefixed a long catalogue of writings of the author left in manuscript.

LONGUEVAL, a town of France, in the department of the Somme: nine miles north-west of Peronne.

LONGUEVAL (James), a learned French Jesuit and ecclesiastical historian, was descended from a family in humble life, and born at Santerre, near Peronne, in Picardy, in the year 1680. He was educated in grammar-learning at Amiens, and pursued his philosophical studies at Paris, where he distinguished himself among his fellow-students by his abilities and proficiency. In the year 1699 he entered into the society of Jesus; in which, after completing his course of academic studies, he taught the belles lettres during five years at the college of La Fleche with great applause, and afterwards delivered lectures for four years on divinity and the sacred scriptures. He embarked in the religious controversies of the times, and wrote a variety of pieces, which were published without his name, excepting two treatises; one on Schism, 1718, 12mo. and the other on Miracles, 1730, 4to. But his reputation is chiefly founded on his elaborate *History of the Gallican Church*, in 4to. which displays profound erudition, deep research, judicious criticism, and, upon the whole, great moderation, and is written in a beautifully-simple style. Of this work he lived only to publish eight volumes, which bring his history down to the year 1137. He had nearly completed the ninth and tenth volumes, when his labours were terminated by a stroke of apoplexy in 1735, when he was in his fifty-fifth year. The volumes which he left in an imperfect state, were completed and published by father Fontenay; who, with fathers Brumoy and Berthier, continued the author's plan, till the whole work amounted to eighteen volumes 4to. *Moreri*.

LONGUEVILLE, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Seine: nine miles south of Dieppe.

LONGUEVILLE (Mary, Duchess of Nemours), daughter of the duke de Longueville, born in the year 1625. She was married to the duke de Nemours; and wrote "Memoirs of the Court of France during the Minority of Louis XIV." which are composed with spirit, and with the fidelity of an historian who had an opportunity of becoming well acquainted with the facts recorded. They are commonly united with those of Joly, but have been printed separately. The duchess died at the age of 82, in the year 1707.

LONGUILLE, or as the Indians call it *Kenapacomaqua*, an Indian village on the north bank of Eel-river, in the north-west territory. It was destroyed by general Scott in 1791, with two hundred acres of corn in its neighbourhood.

LONGUION, a town of France, and seat of a tribunal, in the department of the Moselle. Here is a considerable



iron-forge and cannon-foundry: seven miles south-west of Longwy, and twenty-two west of Thionville. Lat. 49. 27. N. lon. 5. 41. E.

LONGUS, the author of a romance in Greek prose, entitled *Ποσειδωνία*, Pastorals, relating the loves of Daphnis and Chloe, is supposed to have lived as late as the reign of Theodosius the Great; but nothing is known of him, nor is he mentioned by any of the ancients. His work is a curious specimen of that kind of composition in its simplest form, and contains many descriptive beauties; but some of its scenes are such as the lowest modern writer would scarcely venture to paint. Several editions of it have been given, among which is one at Paris, 4to. 1713, decorated with plates from the designs of the regent duke of Orleans, to whose taste it was suited. The best edition is that of Villoison, Gr. Lat. 8vo. 2 vols. Paris, 1773. It has also appeared in the splendid typography of Bodoni at Parma. There is an English translation of this author, which is ascribed to Mr. J. Craggs, once secretary of state.

LONGWARD, a village in Herefordshire, east of Hereford.

LONGWAYS, *adv.* In the longitudinal direction.—This island stands as a vast mole, which lies *longways*, almost in a parallel line to Naples. *Addison*.

LONGWISE, *adv.* In the longitudinal direction.—He was laid upon two beds, the one joined *longwise* unto the other, both which he filled with his length. *Hakewill*.

LONGWORTH, a village in Berkshire, on the Thames; to the west of Abingdon.

LONGWORTH, a village in Lancashire, to the east of Chorley.

LONGWORTH (Lower), a village in Herefordshire, near Hereford.

LONGWY, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Moselle, situated on the Chiers. This place was only a village, surrounded with three sharp mountains, on which a new town was built by Louis XIV. and fortified by Vauban. In the year 1792, this town was taken by the Austrians, under the command of general Clairfait, who presented himself before it at the head of 60,000 men, on the 21st of August, and bombarded the town for fifteen hours, when it surrendered; not without suspicion of treachery, as the garrison was furnished with 3500 men, and well supplied with provisions, artillery, and ammunition; this was the first place attacked, but it did not remain long in the hands of the enemy, for it was retaken in October following, the capitulation being signed the 14th of October, and possession given to general Valence on the 22d: seven posts north-north-west of Mentz, and 37½ east of Paris. Lat. 49. 32. N. lon. 5. 50. E.

LONGWY, a town of France, in the department of the Jura, on the Doubs: nine miles south of Dôle.

LONHAN/KO, a town of Birmah: sixty-five miles north of Munchaboo.

LO'NIA, a river of Croatia, which rises near Graben, and runs into the Velika six miles south of Ivantz.

LO'NICER (John), a learned German, born in 1499: after having received a good education, he became a professor at Marburg, where he died about the year 1560. He was author of a Greek and Latin Lexicon, and published an edition of Dioscorides.

LO'NICER (Adam), a physician and writer in natural history, son of the preceding, was born at Marburg in 1528. He studied at his native place and at Mentz; and, after taking the degree of doctor of physic in 1554, settled at Frankfort on the Maine as public physician of that city. He exercised this office with great reputation for thirty-two years, and died in 1586. He wrote some professional works; but is only known by his publication on natural history, entitled, "Naturalis Historiæ Opus novum, quo tractantur de Natura Arborum, Fructuum, Herbarum, Animantiumque Terrestrium, Volatillum & Aquatilium, item Gemmarum, Metallorum, &c. Delectu & Usu," in two parts, fol. Frankf. 1551 and 1555, both reprinted in 1660. The second part chiefly treats on

plants, especially those growing about Frankfort; and contains an onomasticon, or catalogue of names in various languages. The work is founded on that of Cuba, with great improvements and additions, in which Lonicer was assisted by his father-in-law Egenolf. It has been translated into German, and frequently reprinted.

LO'NICERA, *f.* [so named by Linnæus, from the subject of the preceding article.] The HONEY-SUCKLE, or WOODBINE; in botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of aggregatæ, (caprifolia, *Juss.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium five parted, superior, small. Corolla: one-petalled, tubular; tube oblong, gibbous; border five-parted; divisions revolute, one of which is more deeply separated. Stamina: filaments five, awl-shaped, nearly the length of the corolla; antheræ oblong. Pistillum: germ roundish, inferior; style filiform, the length of the corolla; stigma obtuse-headed. Pericarpium: berry umbilicated, two-celled. Seeds: roundish, compressed.—*Essential Character.* Corolla one-petalled, irregular; berry many-seeded, two-celled, inferior; (in xylosteum one-celled, in alpigena three-celled. *Gartner.*)

Some authors separate this natural genus of shrubs; keeping the first section, or Periclymena of Linnæus together under the name of *Caprifolium*; the second, section or Chamæcerasa, under the name of *Xylosteum*; and the third with the name of *Diervilla*. The first have twining stems, the leaves of some connate, the flowers sessile in terminating heads or whorls several together. The second have upright stems, and the peduncles two-flowered, axillary and solitary. The third have many-flowered axillary and terminating peduncles.

*Species.* I. Periclymena, with a twining stem. 1. Loniceræ caprifolium, or Italian honeysuckle: flowers ringent in terminating whorls; leaves deciduous; the upper ones connate-perfoliate. The first sort is commonly called the Italian honeysuckle; of this there are two or three varieties. The early white honeysuckle is one; this is the first which flowers, always appearing in May. The branches of this are slender, covered with a light green bark, and garnished with oval leaves of a thin texture, placed by pairs, sitting close to the branches, but those which are situated towards the end of the branches, join at their base, so that the stalk seems as if it came through the leaves. The flowers are produced in whorled bunches at the end of the branches; they are white, and have a very fragrant odour, but are of short duration, so that in about a fortnight they are entirely over; and soon after the leaves appear as if blighted and sickly, making an indifferant appearance the whole summer, which has rendered them less valued than the others. The other variety is the yellow Italian honeysuckle, which is the next in succession to the white. The shoots of this are much like those of the former, but have a darker bark; the leaves are also of a deeper green; the flowers are of a yellowish red, and appear soon after the white; they are not of much longer duration, and are succeeded by red berries, containing one hard seed inclosed in a soft pulp, which ripens in the autumn. Native of the south of Europe. Cultivated by Gerard in 1596. It seems then not to have been long known; for Gerard says, "the double honeysuckle groweth now in my garden, and many others likewise in great plenty, although not long since very rare and hard to be found, except in the garden of some diligent herbarist." Italian honeysuckle is named in German *geißblatt, durchwachs, je langer je lieber, waldlilie, waldwinde, gülgensfort*; in Dutch, *italiansche kamperfolie, caprifolie, geitenblad*; in Danish, *italienske gedeblad, Skovlilie*; in Swedish, *italienske getblad*; in French, *chevre-feuille des jardins, or d'Italie*; in Italian, *madreselva, caprifoglio*; in Spanish, *madreselva*; in Portuguese, *matrisylva*.

2. Loniceræ dioica, or glaucous honeysuckle: whorls subcapitate bracted; leaves deciduous, glaucous beneath, the upper ones connate-perfoliate; corollas ringent, gibbous at the base. Murray called this species *media*, because it has the stem and manner of flowering as in the Periclymena,







LONICERA.



*The Common Honeysuckle, or Wood-bind.*

*Flora Danica*

*Tissot del.*

London: Published as the Act directs, Nov. 16. 1811. by G. Jones.



*Periclymena*, but a short corolla with a gibbous tube, as in the *Chamaecerafa*. It is a native of North America; and was introduced in 1766, by Peter Collinson, Esq. It flowers in June and July.

3. *Lonicera sempervirens*, or trumpet-honeysuckle: spikes naked, terminating; the upper leaves connate-perfoliate; corollas almost regular; tube bellying at top. This sort grows naturally in Virginia, and many other parts of North America, but has been long cultivated in the English gardens by the title of Virginia trumpet-honeysuckle. Of these there are two varieties, if not distinct species, one being much hardier than the other. The old sort, which came from Virginia, has stronger shoots; the leaves are of a brighter green; the bunches of flowers are larger, and deeper-coloured, the other which came from Carolina. These plants have the appearance of the common honeysuckle, but the shoots are weaker than any of those, except the wild sort called woodbine; they are of a purplish red colour, and smooth. The leaves are of an oblong oval shape inverted, and closely surround the stalk; of a lucid green on their upper side, but pale on their under. The flowers are produced in bunches at the end of the branches; these have long slender tubes, which are enlarged at the top, where they are cut into five almost equal segments. The outside of the flower is a bright scarlet, and the inside yellow; they have great appearance of the honeysuckle, but are not so deeply divided, nor are the segments reflexed. They have no odour; but for the beauty of their flowers, and their long continuance, together with their leaves being evergreen, they are preserved in most curious gardens. Ray mentions its being cultivated at Fulham, in the garden of bishop Compton. It was however cultivated earlier than this; namely in 1636, by John Tradescant, junior. It flowers from May to August.

4. *Lonicera grata*, or evergreen honeysuckle: flowers in terminating whorls; leaves perennial, obovate, glaucous beneath; the upper ones connate-subperfoliate; corollas ringent. This sort grows naturally in North America; it has strong branches, covered with a purple bark, which are garnished with lucid green leaves embracing the stalks, and continuing their verdure all the year. The flowers are produced in whorled bunches at the end of the branches; there are frequently two, and sometimes three, of these bunches rising one out of another; they are of a bright red on their outside, and yellow within, of a strong aromatic flavour. This sort begins to flower in June, and there is a succession of flowers till the frost puts a stop to them, so that it is the most valuable of all the sorts. Cultivated in 1739, by Mr. Miller.

5. *Lonicera implexa*, or Minorca honeysuckle: flowers ringent in whorls; bractes even: leaves perennial, smooth, oblong; the upper ones, connate-perfoliate; the uppermost dilated. Leaves smaller and narrower than in the other sorts: Native of Minorca. Introduced about 1772, by Mons. Richard. It flowers from June to September.

6. *Lonicera periclymenum*, common honeysuckle, or woodbine: flowers ringent, in terminating heads; leaves deciduous, all distinct. The common wild English honeysuckle, or woodbine, trails over bushes, and twines round the boughs of trees, with its very slender branches, which are opposite, and commonly stained with purple, in part at least or on one side. Leaves opposite ovate, underneath glaucous, all distinct, and more separated from the stem; though even in these there is a slight membranaceous ring running round the branch, and connecting the two opposite leaves. Flowers in a thick roundish whorled spike, many together, from ten or twelve to nineteen or twenty; tube an inch long, curved a little; border two-parted, both parts reflex, the upper one divided into four blunt and nearly-equal segments, the lower one linear and entire. The tube is wider and shorter, the border much longer, than in the Italian honeysuckle. On account of the border being turned back, the stamens stand much above the corolla, and the pistil much above

them. The corollas are usually red on the outside, and yellowish within; but they vary much in colour, between red, purple, and yellow, and in the shade are very pale. They are very sweet, especially in the evening. There are very small whitish blunt bodies at the base of the style, which are supposed to be the nectaries. Berries roundish, red, distinct, having the remains of the calyx adhering to them, and containing several seeds, of a yellowish-brown colour, round on one side, and flattish on the other. Native of most parts of Europe in woods and hedges, also in many parts of the Chinese empire. With us it flowers from the end of May to July. See the annexed Plate.

The early writers attribute virtues to this shrub which are now quite given up; but the beauty and exquisite fragrance of the flower still give it a place in our ornamental plantations. In climbing it turns from east to west, with most of our other English climbers; and in common with them it bears clipping and pruning well; for in a state of nature those plants that cannot ascend without the assistance of others, are often liable to lose large branches, they have therefore a proportional vigour of growth to restore accidental damages. This shrub is subject, when placed near buildings, to be disfigured and injured by aphides, vulgarly called blights; these insects were formerly supposed to be brought by the east wind, and consequently the mischief was looked upon as inevitable; but observation has corrected that error; their history is well known, but no effectual remedy against them is as yet discovered. These insects are not very numerous in spring, but as the summer advances they increase in a surprising degree; their first attacks therefore should be watched, and the branches they first appear on cut off and destroyed; for, when they have once gained ground, they are defended by their numbers. Small plants may be cleared of them by tobacco-dust or Spanish snuff, but this is not practicable for large trees. The leaves are likewise liable to be curled up by a small caterpillar, which produces a beautiful little moth, *Phalæna tortrix*. In the evening some species of Sphinges, or hawk-moths, are frequently observed to hover over the blossoms, and with their long tongues to extract the honey from the very bottom of the flowers. A considerable quantity of nectareous juice may sometimes be discerned in the tube. Insects that are too large to penetrate into the narrow part of the tube, and have not a long tongue, like the sphinges, to reach the juice, let it out by making a puncture towards the bottom, and thus tapping the liquor. The resources of animals in procuring their food are innumerable.

In English this shrub is called woodbine, honeysuckle; suckling, and caprifoly. Shakespeare seems to have distinguished the honeysuckle from the woodbind, or woodbine:

So doth the woodbine, the sweet honeysuckle  
Gently entwine. *Midf. Night Dream.*

Milton appears to have mistaken it, when he calls it the eglantine, which is the sweet briar:

Through the sweet briar or the vine,  
Or the twisted eglantine.

Shakespeare clearly distinguishes the woodbine from the eglantine:

I know a bank whereon the wild thyme blows,  
Where ox-lip and the nodding violet grows,  
O'er-canopied with luscious woodbine,  
With sweet musk-roses, and with eglantine. *Midf. N. D.*

The same poet alludes to the use of this ramping shrub for forming arbours:

And bid her steal into the pleached bower,  
Where honeysuckles ripened by the sun  
Forbid the sun to enter.—

————— Beatrice, who e'en now  
Is couched in the woodbine coverture. *Much Ado.*



In German, this shrub is called *specklilie*, *geißlilie*, *zaun-gilgen*, *waldgilgen*, *baumlilie*, *lilie unter den dornen*, *lilien-frucht*, *Deutsche gesblatt*, *Deutsche je langer je lieber*; in Dutch, *gewoone hamperfolie*, *mammetsjeskruid*; in Danish, *gedeblad*, *stoolilie*, *loberosse*, *lobelilie*; in Swedish, *malleskrad*; in French, *chevrefeuille des bois*; in Italian, *caprifoglio*, *madriveslva*, *vincibosco*, *legabosco*, *periclimeno*; in Spanish, *madriveslva*, *periclimeno*; in Portuguese, *matrisflora do norte*.

There are several varieties of this wild species; among which may be noted

β. *L. ferotina*, the late-red honeysuckle, produces a greater quantity of flowers together than either the Italian or Dutch honeysuckle, so that it makes a finer appearance than either of them during the time of flowering. It has not been so long an inhabitant of the English gardens as the Dutch honeysuckle; for about the year 1715 it was esteemed a great curiosity; when it was called the *Flemish honeysuckle*, and was probably brought over by the Flemish florists, who at that time came over annually with flowers and plants for sale.

γ. *L. Belgica*, the Dutch honeysuckle, may be trained with stems, and formed into heads, which the wild sort cannot, the branches being too weak and trailing for this purpose. The branches of this are smooth, of a purplish colour, garnished with oblong oval leaves, three inches long and an inch and three quarters broad, of a lucid green on their upper side, but pale on their under, having very short foot-stalks; they are placed by pairs, but are not joined at their base. The flowers are produced in bunches at the end of the branches, each flower arising out of a scaly cover, which cover, after the flowers fade, forms an oval head, whose scales lie over each other like those of fish. The flowers are of a reddish colour on their outside, and yellowish within, of a very agreeable odour. This sort flowers in June, July, and August. The stems are stronger, the leaves larger, the flowers and heads of berries larger, and the corollas redder, than in our wood-bird.

δ. *L. quercifolia*, has sinuate leaves, cut like the oak, and smooth. Found first near Oxford by Mr. Jenner; and afterwards by Mr. Knowlton, in the way from Hitchin to Wembly; also in Sir John Woodhouse's woods, Norfolk, by Mr. Woodward. There is also a variety with variegated leaves.

7. *Lonicera Japonica*, or Japanese honeysuckle: flowers terminating in pairs, sessile; all the leaves distinct; stem twining. Native of Japan.

8. *Chamaecerasa*, with two-flowered peduncles. 8. *Lonicera nigra*, or black-berried upright honeysuckle: peduncles two-flowered; berries distinct; leaves elliptic, quite entire. Height three or four feet. Leaves small, the younger ones hirsute, quite entire, but plaited a little, so as to appear serrate. Berries black, a little oblong, containing three, five, and sometimes ten, seeds. Native of France, Switzerland, Austria, Silesia, and Piedmont; and flowers in March, April, and May; cultivated in 1683.

9. *Lonicera Tatarica*, or Tartarian upright honeysuckle: peduncles two-flowered; berries distinct; leaves cordate, obtuse. This grows about the same height with the preceding and fourteenth sort, and bears a great resemblance to them in the branches. But the leaves are heart-shaped; and the berries red, growing sometimes single, at others double, and frequently there are three joined together; they are about the same size with the preceding. Professor Pallas describes it more particularly thus: It is a tree frequently a fathom in height, but commonly less, rising with several trunks, often thicker than the wrist, spreading, branched very much from the bottom; covered with a brownish-grey smoothish bark, cloven longitudinally. Branches knobbed, with a whitish-grey smooth bark, shooting off the epidermis. Shoots opposite, smooth, bearing both leaves and flowers. Leaves opposite, tender, bright glaucous green, petioled, cordate-lanceolate, very smooth, except the edge which is ciliated

with very tender hairs. Calyx above the germ, minute, five-toothed, the teeth blunt and erose, reddish; corollas before they open parallel, club-shaped, of a deep rose colour; when open flesh-coloured, diverging; when the flower is imperfectly expanded, the three upper segments frequently, the two lower sometimes, are glued together. Berries distinct, scarlet, succulent, one of them often abortive. Seeds oblong, flat, yellowish. In shady groves it varies with a white flower. In autumn the leaves put off their fringes, and become quite smooth. Native of Russia, but not beyond 55° of latitude. In the more southern parts it flowers in May, in the eastern and in gardens at Petersburg in June. With us it flowers in April, and the fruit is ripe in July. It is frequented by the *Meloe veficatoria*, or blister-insect, which is collected from this shrub for the apothecaries. The berries are eaten by the common people, though they are nauseously bitter, and are apt to purge. The flowers have hardly any smell; the leaves are bitterish. The wood is very hard and solid, of a yellowish-grey colour, beautifully veined, and used to make walking-sticks and the handles of tools.

10. *Lonicera xylosteum*, or fly-honeysuckle: peduncles two-flowered; berries distinct; leaves quite entire, pubescent. Fly-honeysuckle rises with a strong woody stalk six or eight feet high, covered with a whitish bark, dividing into many branches. Leaves ovate, opposite, entire, and covered with a short hairy down. The flowers come out on each side of the branches, opposite, on slender peduncles, each sustaining two white flowers standing erect. The three lower segments of the corolla are narrow and reflex, the other two are broader and upright, Scopoli and Adanson say, that the berries have three cells, with two seeds in each. Miller says, that they are red and clammy, joined at their base, and ripe in the beginning of September. Linnæus tells us, that this shrub makes excellent hedges in a dry soil; that the clear parts between the joints of the shoots are used in Sweden for tobacco-pipes, and that the wood, being extremely hard, makes teeth for rakes, &c. Gmelin informs us, that the Russians prepare an empyreumatic oil from the wood, which they recommend for cold tumours and chronic pains. Animals seldom touch the leaves. Birds eat the berries only in hard weather; they are reputed purgative and emetic. Native of the north of Europe, and even of the south of France, Italy, and Hungary; common in Russia, especially the more northern parts, and in Siberia as far as the river Jenisea; also in Kamtschatka, with black berries; and in Cochinchina, according to Loureiro. According to Withering, it is a native of England. It appears in all our plantations of shrubs; and was cultivated, according to Sutherland, in 1683. It flowers in May.

11. *Lonicera Pyrenaica*, or Pyrenean upright honeysuckle: peduncles two-flowered; berries distinct; leaves oblong, smooth. This seldom rises more than three or four feet high, dividing into several spreading irregular branches. The flowers come out from the side of these, on slender peduncles, each sustaining two white flowers, which are cut into five segments almost to the bottom. It differs from the preceding in having regular corollas, divaricated branches, and smooth leaves. Native of the Pyrenean mountains and Siberia. Cultivated in 1739, by Mr. Miller; who received a plant of it from the duke d'Ayen's garden at St. Germain's. He says that it grows also naturally in Canada; and that it flowers in April.

12. *Lonicera alpigena*, or red-berried upright honeysuckle: peduncles two-flowered; berries cordate-twin; leaves oval-lanceolate. This has a short thick woody stem, which divides into many strong woody branches growing erect. Flowers upon very long slender peduncles, which come out opposite on each side of the branches, at the base of the leaves; they are red on the outside, but pale within, shaped like those of the fly-honeysuckle, but a little larger, and standing erect: they appear at the end of April, and are commonly succeeded by two ovate red berries,



berries, joined at the base, and having two punctures. They ripen at the beginning of August. Sometimes there is but one berry, which is frequently as large as a Kentish cherry. Because the berry is three-celled, and the seeds loose and shining, Adanson has separated this from the other species, under the name of *Ispica*; and Gärtner seems inclined to follow him. At this rate, we might form a genus of almost every species. Linnæus remarks, that the leaves are smooth; the corollas without any spur, and irregular; the two upper segments of the calyx scarcely distinct. Scopoli, that the leaves are shining underneath; the peduncles striated, a finger's length, with two bractes on them; the filaments hairy at the base, and the anthers of the same colour with the corolla, which according to him is red, but according to Linnæus yellow; Krocker says it is blood-red. Native of the south of Europe; cultivated by Gerard in 1596.

13. *Lonicera caucasica*, or Caucasian honeysuckle: peduncles two flowered; berries coadunate-twin; ovate-lanceolate, quite entire. Height about five feet; trunk covered with a whitish bark; branches spreading, red or hoary-testaceous; branches long, slender, wand-like. The wood is hard, weighty, like ivory, beautifully veined with green; much esteemed for walking-sticks, which are sent to Petersburg. Native of Caucasus. Called by the Russians *tozyskun*, and by the Tartars *tokus-tuuu*, which signifies nine skins; this shrub every year casting its epidermis, which adheres copiously to the twigs.

14. *Lonicera cærulea*, or blue-berried upright honeysuckle: peduncles two-flowered; berries coadunate-globular; styles undivided. This seldom rises more than four or five feet high. The flowers appear in March, April, or May; and the berries ripen in August. The wood is very hard, beautifully veined with grey and pale yellow. Berries at first subglobular; when ripe oblong, large, dark blue, with a bitterish purple juice, and six or eight small, oblong, acute, yellow seeds; the purple juice stains paper of a strong colour, and might perhaps be useful in dyeing. Native of Switzerland, Austria, Siberia as far as Kamtschatka, and in the islands adjacent to America. Cultivated here in 1724.

III. Stem upright, peduncles many-flowered. 15. *Lonicera mongolica*, or Russian honeysuckle: peduncles many-flowered; berries simple, one-flowered; leaves ovate, serrate, pubescent. This is smaller than *L. xylosteum*; upright, with slender branches, and with a whitish-grey outer bark; leaves fewer, opposite, petioled, hoary underneath. Grows not only in the desert of the Mongols in the Russian empire, but in Dauria.

16. *Lonicera symphoricarpos*, or shrubby St. Peter's-wort: heads lateral, peduncled; leaves petioled. Height about four feet, sending out many slender branches. The flowers are produced in whorls round the stalk; they are of an herbaceous colour, and appear in August. The fruit, which is hollow, and shaped like a pottage-pot, ripens in the winter: it is fleshy, globular, of the form and size of the flowers of *Arbutus*, four-celled, containing cartilaginous roundish seeds. The flowers and fruits are axillary; and, being in close clusters, Dillenius gave this shrub the name of *Symphoricarpos*. Native of Virginia and Carolina; flowers in August and September.

17. *Lonicera bubalina*, or Cape honeysuckle: heads terminating, peduncled; leaves oblong, quite entire, smooth. Found by Sparrman at the Cape of Good Hope, where the Dutch call it *buffelhorn*.

18. *Lonicera diervilla*, or yellow-flowered upright honeysuckle: racemes terminating; leaves serrate. This is a low shrub, seldom rising more than three feet high. The berries are oval, black, four-celled, with one hard seed in each cell; in England they are rarely formed, and never come to maturity. The roots creep far under ground, and send out many stems; many of these which come up in the spring produce flowers the same year, so that there is generally a succession of them from May to September; the shoots of the former year flowering early,

the side branches soon following, and then the young shoots. It is a native of North America, and was first brought to Europe from Acadie by Monf. Dierville, a French surgeon, whence Tournefort gave it the name of *Diervilla*.

19. *Lonicera corymbosa*, or corymbed honeysuckle: corymbs terminating; leaves ovate, acute. Native of Peru.

*Propagation and Culture.* All the sorts of honeysuckle are propagated either by layers or cuttings. When by layers, the young shoots only should be chosen. They should be layed in the autumn, and by the following autumn they will have taken root, when they should be cut off from the plants, and either planted where they are to remain, or into a nursery to be trained up, either for standards, which must be done by fixing down stakes to the stem of each plant, to which their principal stalk should be fastened, and all the others cut off; the principal stalk must be trained to the intended height of the stem, then it should be shortened to force out lateral branches, and these should be again stopped to prevent their growing too long. By the constant repeating this as the shoots are produced, they may be formed into a sort of standard; but, if any regard is had to their flowering, they cannot be formed into regular heads; for, by constantly shortening their branches, the flower-buds will be cut off, so that few flowers can be expected; and, as it is an unnatural form for these trees, so there should be but few of them reduced to it; for, when they are planted near other bushes, in whose branches the shoots of the honeysuckles may run and mix, they will flower much better, and have a finer appearance, than when they are more regularly trained; therefore, when the plants are in the nursery, if two or three of the principal shoots are trained up to the stakes, and the others are entirely cut off, they will be fit to transplant the following autumn to the places where they are to remain; for, though the roots may be transplanted of a greater age, yet they do not thrive so well as when they are removed while they are young. When these plants are propagated by cuttings, they should be planted in September, as soon as the ground is moistened by rain. The cuttings should have four joints, three of which should be buried in the ground, and the fourth above the surface, from which the shoot should be produced. These may be planted in rows, at about a foot distance row from row, and four inches asunder in the rows, treading the earth close to them; and, as the evergreen and late-red honeysuckles are a little more tender than the other sorts, if the ground between the rows where these are planted be covered with tanners' bark, or other mulch, to keep out the frost in winter, and the drying winds of the spring, it will be of great advantage to the cuttings; and, if the cuttings of these sorts have a small piece of the two-year wood at their bottom, there will be no hazard of their taking root. The plants which are raised from cuttings are preferable to those which are propagated by layers, as they have generally better roots. These plants will grow in almost any soil or situation, except the fourth, which will not thrive where it is too much exposed to the cold in winter; it thrives best in a soft sandy loam, and will retain its leaves in greater verdure in such ground than if planted in a dry gravelly soil, where in warm dry seasons the leaves often shrink, and hang in a very disagreeable manner; nor will those sorts which naturally flower late in the autumn, continue so long in beauty on a dry ground, unless the season should prove moist and cold, as those in a gentle loam, not too stiff or wet. There are few sorts of shrubs which deserve cultivation better than most of these; for their flowers are very beautiful, and perfume the air to a great distance with their odour, especially in the mornings and evenings, and in cloudy weather, when the sun does not exhale their odour, and raise it too high to be perceptible; so that, in all retired walks, there cannot be too many of these intermixed with the other shrubs. We have seen these plants intermixed in



hedges planted either with alder or laurel, where the branches have been artfully trained between those of the hedge; from which the flowers have appeared dispersed from the bottom of the hedge to the top; and, being intermixed with the strong green leaves of the plants which principally compose the hedge, they have made a charming appearance: but the best sorts for this purpose are the evergreen and long-blowing honeysuckles, because their flowers continue in succession much longer than the others. These shrubs may also be propagated by seeds; but, unless they are sown in the autumn soon after they are ripe, the plants will not come up the first year.

The trumpet-honeysuckle is usually planted against walls or pales, to which their branches are trained; for they are too weak and rambling to be reduced to heads, and are liable to be killed in severe winters. This sort therefore should have a warm aspect, where it will begin to flower at the end of June, and there will be a succession of flowers till the autumn. It may, however, be trained like the other honeysuckles, and will flower among other shrubs, in the south border of a plantation in a warm soil, till a winter more than ordinarily severe injures or kills it. It is propagated by laying down the young branches, which will easily take root, and may be afterwards treated like the common honeysuckles. See CHIOCOCCA, HALLERIA, LORANTHUS, MITCHELLA, SPIGELIA, and TRIOSTEUM.

LONIGGO, or LEONICO, a town of Italy, in the Vicentin, on a river called Fiume Novo: it contains several churches and monasteries: fourteen miles south-south-west of Vicenza.

LONINGEN, a town of the bishopric of Munster: eight miles south-south-west of Cloppenburg.

LONJUMEAU, a town of France, in the department of the Seine and Oise: nine miles south-east of Versailles, and ten south of Paris.

LONKA, a river of Bohemia, which runs into the Elbe three miles south-east of Leitmeritz.

LONKA, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Podolia: forty-four miles north of Kaminiac.

LONLAY, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Charente: six miles north of St. Jean d'Angely.

LONLAY L'ABBAYE, a town of France, in the department of the Orne: four miles north-west of Domfront, and nine south of Mortain.

LONS LE SAUNIER, a city of France, and capital of the department of the Jura, formerly celebrated for its salt-works, not now carried on: eleven and a half posts south-south-west of Besançon, and forty-eight and a half east of Paris. Lat. 46. 40. N. lon. 5. 38. E.

LONSCHAKOVA, a town of Russia, in the government of Irkutsk: forty miles north-north-east of Stretenski.

LON'SCHIN, a town of Prussia, in the palatinate of Culm: ten miles south of Culm.

LONSDALE. See KIRKBY LONSDALE, vol. xii. p. 759.

LON'TARUS, *f.* in botany. See BORASSUS.

LONT CHOUDSONG, a town of Thibet: thirty-five miles north-north-east of Lassa. Lat. 29. 58. N. lon. 29. 14. N.

LON'THAL, a river of Wurtemberg, which runs into the Brentz between Giengen and Brentz.

LONTHOIR, a town of the island of Banda, in the Eastern Indian Sea.

LONTOU, a town of Africa, in Galam, on the Senegal: sixty miles south-east of Galam.

LOO, a town of France, in the department of the Lys: six miles south-south-east of Dixmude.

LOO, a river of France, which runs into the Dyle near Louvain.

LOO, a river of England, which runs into the sea a little below East and West Looe.

LOO, *f.* A game at cards.—A secret indignation, that all those affections of the mind should be thus vilely thrown away upon a hand at *loo*. *Addison*.

To LOO, *v. a.* [from the sub.] To beat so as to win every trick.

To LOO, *v. a.* [from *halloo*.] To set on a dog by crying halloo. *Boyer*.

LOO'BILLY, *adj.* Awkward; clumsy.—The plot of the farce was a grammar-school; the master setting his boys their lessons, and a *loobily* country fellow putting in for a part among the scholars. *L'Esfrange*.

LOOBO'E, a town on the south coast of the island of Celebes, in Bony Bay. Lat. 2. 42. S. lon. 121. 25. E.

LOO'BY, *f.* [from *lapp*, Ger. foolish; or *llabe*, Welsh, a clown.] A lubber; a clumsy clown:

The vices trace

From the father's scoundrel race.

Who could give the *looby* such airs?

Were they mafons, were they butchers?

*Swift*.

LOOCALLA, a town of Congo, on the Zaire: nine-tens miles west of St. Salvador.

LOOCHRIS'TI, a town of France, in the department of the Scheldt, and chief place of a canton, in the district of Ghent. The place contains 3056, and the canton 14,432, inhabitants, in seven communes.

LOODUE'RA, a town of Bengal: eleven miles south of Rogonatpour.

LOOE, a small island near the coast of Cornwall: two miles south-east of Looe.

LOOE (East), a borough and market-town in Cornwall, situated at the mouth of the river Looe, twelve miles from Plymouth, and 233 west from London. It is mostly built on a flat piece of ground, having the river on the west, and the sea on the south. The streets are narrow, and the houses built with slate. The port is protected by a small battery and breast-work. The town was incorporated by queen Elizabeth in 1587; the government is vested in a mayor and nine burgesses, who jointly elect a recorder. Two members have been returned to parliament ever since 13 Elizabeth; the right of election is in the mayor, burgesses, and freemen; in number about fifty. Four annual fairs are held, and a weekly market on Saturdays.

LOOE (West), originally named *Portpigham*, a borough and market-town also situated at the mouth of the river Looe, and connected with East Looe by a stone-bridge of fifteen arches. West Looe formerly was much more considerable in point of trade, &c. than East Looe; it now presents a long street of mean irregular houses, with a small town-hall, anciently a chapel, and a few other buildings on the brink of the river. This borough, as well as the adjoining one, received its first charter of incorporation from queen Elizabeth, vesting the government in a mayor, and twelve burgesses, who with the freemen, in the whole about fifty, elect two members of parliament. A fair is held annually, and a market every Saturday.

LOOF, *f.* That part aloft of the ship which lies just before the chefs-trees, as far as the bulkhead of the caitle.

To LOOF, or LOFF, *v. a.* To bring the ship close to a wind.

LOO'FED, *adj.* [from *aloof*.] Gone to a distance:

She once being *loof*, Antony

Claps on his sea-wing, like a doating mallard.

Leaving the fight. *Shakespeare's Ant. and Cleopatra*.

LOOHOG'GO, one of the smaller Friendly Islands, surrounded by a reef of rocks. Lat. 19. 41. S. lon. 185. 36. E.

LOOJA'MA, a town on the east coast of the island of Timor. Lat. 8. 27. S. lon. 126. 18. E.

LOO'ING, *f.* The act of setting on a dog; is the act of beating the adversary so as not to let him get one trick.

To LOOK, *v. n.* [locan, Sax.] To direct the eye to or from any object. When the present object is mentioned, the preposition after *look* is either *on* or *at*; if it is sent, we use *for*; if distant, *after*; *to* was sometimes used anciently for *at*.—Abimelech *looked out at* a window, and saw Isaac. *Genesis*.—The optick nerves of such animals as *look*  
the



the same way with both eyes, as of men, meet before they come into the brain; but the optick nerves of such animals as do not look the same way with both eyes, as of fishes, do not meet. *Newton's Opticks.*

Your queen died: she was more worth such gazes Than what you look on now. *Shakespeare's Winter's Tale.*

To have power of seeing:

Fate sees thy life lodg'd in a brittle glass,  
And looks it through, but to it cannot pass. *Dryden.*

To direct the intellectual eye.—In regard of our deliverance past, and our danger present and to come, let us look up to God, and every man reform his own ways. *Bacon's New Atlas.*—We are not only to look at the bare action, but at the reason of it. *Stillingfleet.*—The man only saved the pigeon from the hawk, that he might eat it himself; and, if we look well about us, we shall find this to be the case of most mediations. *L'Estrange.*—Every one, if he would look into himself, would find some defect of his particular genius. *Locke.*—Change a man's view of things; let him look into the future state of bliss and misery, and see God, the righteous Judge, ready to render every man according to his deed. *Locke.*—To expect.—If he long deferred the march, he must look to fight another battle before he could reach Oxford. *Clarendon.*—To take care; to watch.—He that gathered a hundred bushels of apples, had thereby a property in them: he was only to look that he used them before they spoiled, else he robbed others. *Locke.*—To be directed with regard to any object.—Let thine eyes look right on, and let thine eyelids look straight before thee. *Prov. iv. 25.*—To have any particular appearance; to seem.—That spotless modesty of private and public life, that generous spirit which all other Christians ought to labour after, should look in us as if they were natural. *Spratt.*

I took the way  
Which through a path, but scarcely printed, lay;  
And look'd as lightly press'd by fairy feet. *Dryden.*

To have any air, mien, or manner.—Though I cannot tell what a man says; if he will be sincere, I may easily know what he looks. *Collier.*

What haste looks through his eyes?  
So should he look that seems to speak things strange. *Shakespeare.*

To form the air in any particular manner, in regarding or beholding.—These look up to you with reverence, and would be animated by the sight of him at whose soul they have taken fire in his writings. *Swift to Pope.*

I welcome the condition of the time,  
Which cannot look more hideously on me,  
Than I have drawn it in my fantasy. *Shakespeare.*

To Look about one. To be alarmed; to be vigilant.—If you find a waiting of your flesh, then look about you, especially if troubled with a cough. *Harvey on Consumptions.*

To Look after. To attend; to take care of; to observe with care, anxiety, or tenderness.—Politeness of manners, and knowledge of the world, should principally be looked after in a tutor. *Locke on Education.*—A mother was wont to indulge her daughters, when any of them desired dogs, squirrels, or birds; but then they must be sure to look diligently after them, that they were not ill-used. *Locke.*

To Look for. To expect.—If we sin wilfully after that we have received the knowledge of the truth, there remaineth no more sacrifice for sins, but a certain fearful looking for of judgment. *Heb. x.*

Drown'd in deep despair,  
He dares not offer one repenting prayer;  
Amaz'd he lies, and sadly looks for death. *Dryden.*

To Look into. To examine; to sift; to inspect closely; to observe narrowly.—The more frequently and narrowly we look into the works of nature, the more occasion we shall have to admire their beauty. *Atterbury.*

His nephew's levies to him appear'd  
To be a preparation 'gainst the Polack;  
But, better look'd into, he truly found  
It was against her highness. *Shakespeare's Hamlet.*

To Look on. To respect; to esteem; to regard as good or bad.—Ambitious men, if they be checked in their desires, become secretly discontent, and look upon men and matters with an evil eye. *Bacon's Essays.*

If a harmless maid  
Should ere a wife become a nurse,  
Her friends would look on her the worse. *Prior.*

To consider; to conceive of; to think.—Do we not all profess to be of this excellent religion? but who will believe that we do so, that shall look upon the actions, and consider the lives, of the greatest part of Christians? *Tillotson.*—To be a mere idle spectator.—I'll be a candle-holder, and look on. *Shakespeare.*

To Look over. To examine; to try one by one.—A young child, distracted with the variety of his play-games, tired his maid every day to look them over. *Locke.*  
Look o'er the present and the former time,  
If no example of so vile a crime  
Appears, then mourn. *Dryden's Juvenal.*

To Look out. To search; to seek.—When the thriving tradesman has got more than he can well employ in trade, his next thoughts are to look out for a purchase. *Locke.*—To be on the watch.—Is a man bound to look out sharp to plague himself? *Collier.*

To Look to. To watch; to take care of.—The dog's running away with the flesh, bids the cook look better to it another time. *L'Estrange.*

Who knocks so loud at door?  
Look to the door there, Francis. *Shakespeare.*

To LOOK, *v. a.* To seek; to search for:  
Looking my love, I go from place to place,  
Like a young fawn that late hath lost the hind,  
And seek each where. *Spenser.*

To turn the eye upon.—Let us look one another in the face. *2 Kings xiv. 8.*—To influence by looks:

Such a spirit must be left behind!  
A spirit fit to start into an empire,  
And look the world to law. *Dryden's Cleomenes.*

To Look out To discover by searching.—Casting my eye upon so many of the general bills as next came to hand, I found encouragement from them to look out all the bills I could. *Graunt.*

LOOK, *interj.* [properly the imperative mood of the verb: it is sometimes look ye.] See! lo! behold! observe!  
—Look where he comes, and my good man too; he's as far from jealousy as I am from giving him cause. *Shakespeare.*  
—Look you! we that pretend to be subject to a constitution, must not carve out our own quality; for at this rate a cobbler may make himself a lord. *Collier on Pride.*

LOOK, *f.* Air of the face; mien; cast of the countenance.—And, though death be the king of terrors, yet pain, disgrace, and poverty, have frightful looks, able to discompose most men. *Locke.*

Them gracious Heav'n for nobler ends design'd,  
Their looks erected, and their clay refin'd. *J. Dryden, jun.*

The act of looking or seeing:  
Then on the croud he cast a furious look,  
And wither'd all their strength. *Dryden.*

LOOK'-OUT, *f.* in sea-language, denotes a watchful attention to some important object, or event, which is expected to arise from the present situation of a ship, &c. It is principally used when there is a probability of danger from the real or supposed proximity of land, rocks, enemies, &c. There is always a look-out kept on a ship's fore-castle



forecastle at sea, to watch for any dangerous objects lying near her track; the mate of the watch accordingly calls often from the quarter-deck, "Look out afore there!" to the persons appointed to this service. *Falconer*.

**LOOK'-OUT**, in geography, a cape on the coast of North Carolina, being the southern part of a long, insulated, and narrow, strip of land, east of Core Sound. Its north point forms the south side of Ocrecoch-inlet, which leads into Pamlico-sound; north-east of Cape Fear, and south of Cape Hatteras, in about lat. 34. 50. N. Its excellent harbour has been filled up with sand since the year 1777.—A cape on the southern coast of Hudson's Bay, in New South Wales, east-south-east of the mouth of Severn-river. Lat. 56. N. lon. 84. W.

**LOOKE**, Higher and Lower, two hamlets near Abotsbury, Dorset.

**LOOK'ER**, *f.* One that looks :

For through infusion of celestial powre  
The duller earth it quickneth with delight,  
And lifeless spirits privily doth poure  
Through all the parts, that to the *lookers'* sight  
They seem to please. *Spenser's Hymns.*

**LOOKER-ON**, *f.* Spectator, not agent.—The Spaniard's valour lieth in the eyes of the *looker-on*; but the English valour lieth about the soldier's heart: a valour of glory and a valour of natural courage are two things. *Bacon*.

The people love him ;  
The *lookers-on*, and the enquiring vulgar,  
Will talk themselves to action. *Denham's Sophy.*

**LOOK'ING-GLASS**, *f.* A plain polished glass speculum, or mirror, to one side of which a plate of tin-foil is made to adhere by means of quicksilver; which, being impervious to the light, reflects its rays, and so exhibits the images of objects placed before it.—The surface of the lake of Nemi is never ruffled with the least breath of wind, which perhaps, together with the clearness of its waters, gave it formerly the name of Diana's *looking-glass*. *Addison*.

Command a mirror hither straight,  
That it may show me what a face I have.  
Go some of you and fetch a *looking-glass*. *Shakespeare.*

For the phenomena of looking-glass mirrors, see the article **OPTICS**; and for the most approved method of polishing and silvering looking-glasses, see **GLASS**, vol. viii. p. 605.

**LOOK'ING-GLASS PLANT**; see **HERITIERA**. *Venus's*; see **CAMPANULA**.

**LOOKNAPOUR**, a town of Hindoostan, in Oude: fifteen miles south-west of Kairabad.

**LOOKSENGA'H**, a town of Bengal: thirty-five miles north-west of Ramgur.

**LOOL**, *f.* in metallurgy, a vessel made to receive the washings of ores or metals. The heavier or more metal-line parts of the ores remain in the trough in which they are washed; the lighter and more earthy run off with the water, but settle in the lool.

**LOOM**, *f.* [from *glomus*, a bottom of thread. *Minshew*.] *Lome* is a general name for a tool or instrument. *Junius*.—The frame in which the weavers work their cloth.—He must leave no uneven thread in his loom, or, by indulging to any one sort of reprovable discourse himself, defeat all his endeavours against the rest. *Government of the Tongue*.

A thousand maidens ply the purple loom,  
To weave the bed and deck the regal room. *Prior*.

Looms are of various structures, accommodated to the various kinds of materials to be woven, and the various manner of weaving them; viz. for woollens, silks, linens, cottons, cloths of gold, and other works, as tapestry, ribbands, stockings, &c. See the article **WEAVING**.

**LOOM**, *f.* A bird.—A loom is as big as a goose; of a dark colour, dappled with white spots on the neck, back,

and wings; each feather marked near the point with two spots; they breed in Farr Island. *Grew's Museum*.

**LOOM**, a town of Norway: sixty miles south-east of Romsdal.

To **LOOM**, *v. n.* [leoman, Sax.] To appear at sea. If a ship appears big, when at a distance, they say she looms, or appears a great sail. The term is also used to denote the indistinct appearance of any distant object through a thick or misty atmosphere.

**LOOM-GA'LE**, *f.* A gentle easy gale of wind, in which a ship can carry her top-sails a-trip.

**LOOMA'KA**, a town of Bootan: twenty-eight miles south of Tassafudon.

**LOON**, *f.* [used only in Scotland.] A forry fellow; a scoundrel; a rascal.—This young lord had an old cunning rogue, or as the Scots call it, a false loon, of a grandfather, that one might call a Jack of all trades. *Arbuthnot's History of John Bull*.

**LOO'NENBURGH**, a town of New York: fifteen miles north of Kingston.

**LOONGHE'E**, a town of the kingdom of Birmah, on the Irawaddy. The meaning of the word is Great Cable, and is said to be so called from a ligament of stone which passes from a rock to the opposite shore, and which the inhabitants believe was once a rope, which, floating down the stream, was stopped and petrified. Here is a celebrated temple: fifty-five miles north of Brome. Lat. 19. 42. N.

**LOONPOU'R**, a town of Hindoostan, in Guzerat: forty miles east of Junagur.

**LOON'ZAY**. See **MAYAHOUN**.

**LOOP**, *f.* [from *loopen*, Dutch, to run.] A double through which a string or lace is drawn; an ornamental double or fringe.—An old fellow shall wear this or that sort of cut in his cloaths with great integrity, while all the rest of the world are degenerated into buttons, pockets, and loops. *Addison*.

Make me to see it, or at least to prove it,  
That the probation bear no hinge, nor loop,  
To hang a doubt on. *Shakespeare's Othello*.

[Formerly also] A loop hole.—Some dy'd, some at the loops durst scant out peep. *Fairfax*.

**Loop**, in the iron-works, is a part of a sowl or block of cast iron broken or melted off from the rest, and prepared for the forge or hammer. The usual method is, to break off the loop of about three quarters of a hundred weight. This loop they take up with their flinging-tongs, and beat it with iron sledges upon an iron plate near the fire, that so it may not fall to pieces, but be in a condition to be carried under the hammer. It is then placed under the hammer; and, a little water being drawn to make the hammer move but softly, it is beat very gently, and by this means the dross and foulness are forced off; and after this they draw more and more water by degrees, and beat it more and more till they bring it to a four-square mass, of about two feet long, which they call a bloom.

**LOOP HE'AD**, or **CAPE LEAN**, a cape on the coast of Ireland at the mouth of the Shannon. Lat. 52. 32. N. lon. 9. 49. W.

**LOO'P-HOLE**, *f.* Aperture; hole to give a passage.—Walk not near yon corner house by night; for there are blunderbusses planted in every loop-hole, that go off at the squeaking of a fiddle. *Dryden's Spanish Fryar*.

The Indian herdsman, shunning heat,  
Shelters in cool, and tends his pasturing herds,  
At loop-holes cut through thicket shades. *Milton*.

*Loop-holes*, in sea-language, are holes made in the coamings of the hatches of a ship, to fire muskets through in a close fight.—A thift; an evasion:

Needless, or needful, I not now contend,  
For still you have a loop-hole for a friend. *Dryden*.

**LOO'P-HOLED**, *adj.* Full of holes; full of openings, or void spaces:

This



This uneasy loop-hol'd gaol,  
In which y' are hamper'd by the serlock,  
Cannot but put y' in mind of wedlock. *Hudibras.*

LOOPED, *adj.* Full of holes:

Poor naked wretches, wherefoe'er you are,  
That bide the pelting of this pitiless storm!  
How shall your houselefs heads and unform sides,  
Your loop'd and window'd raggedness, defend you  
From seasons such as these? *Shakesp. King Lear.*

LOO/PING, *f.* in metallurgy, a word used by the miners of some counties of England, to express the running-together of the matter of an ore into a mass, in the roasting or first burning, intended only to calcine it so far as to make it fit for powdering. This accident, which gives the miners some trouble, is generally owing to continuing the fire too long in this process.

LOO'POOL, a lake two miles long, near Helston, in Cornwall.

LOORD, *f.* [*loerd*, Dut. *loordaut*, Fr. *lurdan*, Erse; a heavy, stupid, or witless, fellow.] A drone:

Siker, thou'st but a lazy loord,  
And rekes much of thy swinke,  
That with fond terms and witless words  
To bleer mine eyes do'st think. *Spenser's Pastorals.*

LOOS, *f.* [*los*, old Fr.] Glory:

That much he feared, least reprochfull blame  
With foule dishonour him mote blot therefore;  
Besides the losse of so much loos and fame,  
As through the world therefore should glorifie his name. *Spenser.*

LOOS, or LOO'SEUS (Cornelius), who in some of his writings assumed the name of *Cornelius Callidius*, was a Dutch catholic divine in the sixteenth century, who pursued his studies at Mentz, where he was admitted to the degree of doctor, and afterwards obtained the canonry of Gouda, which was his native place. Being obliged to quit his country during the civil wars, he retired to Brussels, where he was appointed a vicar of a parish, and spent the remainder of his life. He is entitled to notice for the liberality with which he surmounted the prejudices of his age, and the boldness with which he ventured to expose the prevailing superstitious notions relating to persons pretendedly bewitched, or said to be possessed, whom he pronounced to be weak ignorant fools, or impudent impostors. This opinion he frankly avowed in conversation, and endeavoured to disabuse the public on the subject, by printing a treatise, *De variis et falsis Magia*. But the clergy took an alarm at the author's freedom, which threatened ruin to their gainful practice of exorcisms; and, having been denounced by the jesuit Delzio, he was condemned to imprisonment, from which he was not liberated till he had retracted his opinion. For asserting it again, he was a second time committed to temporary custody; and, after his release, not being able to conceal his contempt of fraud and priestly knavery, he would have been imprisoned for the third time, and most probably proved a martyr to his honest zeal against imposture, had he not been removed by death in 1595. He was the author of some other works, which were well received, such as, 2. *Illustrium Germaniæ utriusque Scriptorum Catalogus*, 1581, 8vo. 3. *De tumultuosa Belgarum Rebelliones sedanda*, 1579, 8vo. 4. *Defensio Urbis et Orbis*, 1581, 8vo. 5. *Duellum Fidei et Rationis*, 1581, 8vo. 6. *Scopiæ Latinæ, ad purgandam Linguam a Barbarie*, 1582, 8vo. and other works, enumerated in *Valeri Andree Bibl. Belgic.*

LO'OSA, *f.* in botany. See LOASA, vol. xii. p. 852, 3.

To LOOSE, *v. a.* [*leſan*, Sax.] To unbind; to untie any thing fastened.—The shoes of his feet I am not worthy to loose. *Acts.*—Can'st thou loose the bands of Orion? *Job.*—To relax.—The joints of his loins were loosed. *Daniel.*—To unbind any one bound.—Loose him, and bring

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him to me. *Luke.*—To free from imprisonment.—The captive hasteneth that he may be loosed. *Isaiah.*—He loosed and set at liberty four or five kings of the people of that country that Berok kept in chains. *Abbot.*—To free from any obligation.—Art thou loosed from a wife? seek not a wife. *1 Corinthians.*—To free from any thing that shackles the mind:

Ay; there's the man, who, loos'd from lust and self,  
Lest to the pretor owes than to himself. *Dryden.*

To free from any thing painful.—Woman, thou art loosed from thy infirmity. *Luke.*—To disengage:

When heav'n was nam'd, they loos'd their hold again,  
Then sprung she forth, they follow'd her again. *Dryden.*  
To solve:

Much like in foulness and deformity  
Unto that monster, whom the Theban knight  
(The father of the fatal progeny)  
Made kill herselfe for very heart's despight  
That he had red her riddle, which no wight  
Could ever loose. *Spenser.*

To LOOSE, *v. n.* To set sail; to depart by loosing the anchor.—The emperor, loosing from Barcelona, came to the port of Mago, in the island of Minorca. *Knolles.*

LOOSE, *adj.* Unbound; untied.—Lo! I see four men loose walking. *Dan. iii. 25.*—Not fast; not fixed.—Those few that clashed might rebound after the collision; or, if they cohered, yet by the next conflict might be separated again, and so on in an eternal vicissitude of fast and loose, though without ever confociating into the bodies of planets. *Bentley.*—Not tight: as, a loose robe.—Not crowded; not close:

With extended wings a host might pass,  
With horse and chariots rank'd in loose array. *Milton.*

Wanton; not chaste:

When loose epistles violate chaste eyes,  
She half consents who silently denies. *Dryden's Ovid.*

Not close; not concise; lax.—If an author be loose and diffuse in his style, the translator needs only regard the propriety of the language. *Felton.*—Vague; indeterminate; not accurate.—It is but a loose thing to speak of possibilities, without the particular designs; so is it to speak of lawfulness without the particular cases. *Bacon.*—Not strict; not rigid.—Because conscience, and the fear of swerving from that which is right, maketh them diligent observers of circumstances, the loose regard whereof is the nurse of vulgar folly. *Hooker.*—Unconnected; rambling.—Vario spends whole mornings in running over loose and unconnected pages, and with fresh curiosity is ever glancing over new words and ideas, and yet treasures up but little knowledge. *Watts on the Mind.*—Lax of body; not costive.—What hath a great influence upon the health, is going to stool regularly; people that are very loose have seldom strong thoughts or strong bodies. *Locke on Education.*—Disengaged; not enslaved.—Their principle is, to fit as loose from pleasures, and be as moderate in the use of them, as they can. *Atterbury.*—Disengaged from obligation: commonly with *from*; in the following line with *of*:

Now I stand

Loose of my vow; but who knows Cato's thoughts? *Add.*  
Free from confinement.—They did not let prisoners loose homeward. *Isaiah.*—Remiss; not attentive.

To break LOOSE. To gain liberty.—If to break loose from the conduct of reason, and to want that restraint of examination which keeps us from chusing the worse, be liberty, madmen and fools are only the freemen. *Locke.*

Like two black storms on either hand,  
Our Spanish army and the Indians stand;  
This only space betwixt the clouds is clear,  
Where you, like day, broke loose from both appear. *Dryden.*

To let LOOSE. To set at liberty; to set at large; to free



from any restraint.—And let the living bird *loose* into the open field. *Lev. xiv.*—We ourselves make our fortunes good or bad; and when God *lets loose* a tyrant upon us, or a sickness, if we fear to die, or know not to be patient, the calamity fits heavy upon us. *Taylor.*

LOOSE, *f.* Liberty; freedom from restraint.—Poets should not, under a pretence of imitating the ancients, give themselves such a *loose* in lyrics, as if there were no connection in the world. *Felton on the Classics.*

The fiery Pegasus disdain  
To mind the rider's voice, or hear the reins;  
When glorious fields and opening camps he views,  
He runs with an unbounded *loose*. *Prior.*

Dismission from any restraining force.—Air at large maketh no noise, except it be sharply percussed; as in the sound of a string, where air is percussed by a hard and stiff body, and with a sharp *loose*. *Bacon.*

LOOSE-STRIFE, *f.* in botany. See ANAGALLIS and LYSIMACHIA:

The royal *loose-strife*, royal gentian, grace  
Our gardens. *Tate's Cowley.*

LOOSE-STRIFE, CODDED. See EPILOBIUM.

LOOSE-STRIFE, PURPLE, AND SPIKED. See LYTHRUM.

LOOSE-STRIFE, VIRGINIAN. See GAURA.

LOOSEDUYNEN, or LAUSDUN, a village of Holland, four miles south-south-west from the Hague. Mr. Ray, in his Journey through the Low Countries, &c. says, "Whilst we were at the Hague, we took the opportunity of viewing the burial-place of a certain lady of Zealand, in the church of Lausdun, a village of about five or six English miles from the Hague; who, as the inscription tells you, was Margaret, the wife of Herman earl of Henneberg, and daughter of Florentius earl of Holland and Zealand, and sister to William king of the Romans, &c. This lady, being about forty years of age, and meeting with a poor woman that had twins in her arms, told her that she must have been dishonest to her husband, as not believing that two children could be got at once; at which the poor woman, being highly concerned, wished that she might bring forth as many children at a birth as there were days in the year; which was fulfilled in 1276, when at one birth she was brought to bed of 365 children, of both sexes, who were baptised by Guido, a suffragan of Utrecht, in two brass basins, the sons having the name of John, and the daughters that of Elizabeth, given them; and soon after died, all in one day, as did also the mother, and were buried in this church of the village of Lausdun. This inscription is to be seen in Latin, over the two basins in which they say these children were baptised, and beneath it also this following distich:

*En tibi monstrorum nimis & memorabile factum,  
Quale nec a mundi conditione datum.*

This history is found in Erasmus, Vives, Guichardin, Camerarius, Gui Dominique, Pierre d'Oudergest, author of the Annals of Flanders, and many other authors; and what is extraordinary, as a thing well attested."

LOOSELY, *adv.* Not fast; not finally; easily to be disengaged:

I thought your love eternal: was it ty'd  
So *loosely*, that a quarrel could divide? *Dryden.*

Without bandage:  
Her golden locks for haste were *loosely* shed  
About her ears. *Fairy Queen.*

Without union or connection.—He has within himself, all degrees of perfection that exist *loosely* and separately in all second beings. *Norris.*

Part *loosely* wing the region, part more wise  
In common, rang'd in figure, wedge their way. *Milton.*

Irregularly.—A bishop, living *loosely*, was charged that

his conversation was not according to the apostles' lives. *Camden.*—Negligently; carelessly.—The chiming of some particular words in the memory, and making a noise in the head, seldom happens but when the mind is lazy, or very *loosely* and negligently employed. *Locke.*—Unsolidly; meanly; without dignity.—A prince should not be so *loosely* studied, as to remember so weak a composition. *Shakespeare.*—Unchastely:

The stage how *loosely* does Astræa tread,  
Who fairly puts all characters to bed? *Pope.*

To LOO'SEN, *v. n.* To part; to tend to separation.—When the polypus appears in the throat, extract it that way, it being more ready to *loosen* when pulled in that direction than by the nose. *Sharp's Surgery.*

To LO'OLEN, *v. a.* To relax any thing tied.—To make less coherent.—After a year's rooting, then shaking doth the tree good, by *loosening* of the earth. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—To separate a compages:

She breaks her back, the *loosen'd* sides give way,  
And plunge the Tuscan soldiers in the sea. *Dryden.*

To free from restraint.—It resolves those difficulties which the rules beget; it *loosens* his hands, and assists his understanding. *Dryden's Dufresnoy.*—To make not costive.—Fear *loosens* the belly; because, the heat retiring towards the heart, the guts are relaxed, in the same manner as fear also causeth trembling. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*

LOOSENESS, *f.* State contrary to that of being fast or fixed.—The cause of the casting of skin and shell should seem to be the *looseness* of the skin or shell, that sticketh not close to the flesh. *Bacon*—Latitude; criminal levity.—A general *looseness* of principles and manners hath seized on us like a pestilence, that walketh not in darkness, but wasteth at noon-day. *Atterbury.*—Irregularity; neglect of laws.—He endeavoured to win the common people, both by strained courtesy and by *looseness* of life. *Hayward.*—Lewdness; unchastity:

Courtly court he made still to his dame,  
Pour'd out in *looseness* on the grassy ground,  
Both careless of his health and of his fame. *Spenser.*

Diarrhoea; flux of the belly.—Taking cold moveth *looseness* by contraction of the skin and outward parts. *Bacon's Nat. History.*

LOOSING, *f.* The act of unbinding; of relaxing; of delivering from any thing disagreeable.

LOO'SER, *adj.* Loose in a greater degree.

LOO'SEST, *adj.* Loose in the greatest degree.

LOOT, *f.* A weight in Holland, 32 of which are equal to 1lb. of commercial weight, and 24 = 1lb. of apothecaries' weight, or  $\frac{2}{3}$  lb. troy.

LOOTIES, *f.* [from *loot*, Arab. plunder, or pillage.] Irregular horsemen belonging to the native princes of Hindoostan, who plunder and lay waste the country, and harass the enemy in their march.

LOOTZMAN, *f.* A coasting pilot. *Phillips.*

LOO'VER, *f.* An open place on the roof of a house. *Phillips.*

LOOZ, or LOOTZ. See BORCHLOEN, vol. iii.

LOP. See TANTABEE.

To LOP, *v. a.* [derived by Skinner from *laube*, Ger. a leaf.] To cut the branches of trees.—The oak, growing from a plant to a great tree, and then *lopped*, is still the same oak. *Locke.*

The hook she bore, instead of Cynthia's spear,  
To *lop* the growth of the luxuriant year. *Pope.*

To cut any thing.—All that denominated it paradise was *lopped* off by the deluge, and that only left which it enjoyed in common with its neighbour countries. *Woodward's Nat. Hist.*

Rhyme sure in needless bonds the poet ties,  
Procrustus like, the ax or wheel applies,  
To *lop* the mangled sense, or stretch it into size. *Smith.*

LOP,



**LOP**, *f.* That which is cut from trees.—Nor should the boughs grow too big, because they give opportunity to the rain to soak into the tree, which will quickly cause it to decay, so that you must cut it down, or else both body and *lop* will be of little value. *Mortimer*.

Now thyself hath lost both *lop* and top,  
As my budding branch thou would'st crop. *Spenser*.

[From *loppa*, Swed.] A flea.

**LOP-KENT-CHIAN'**, a mountain of Thibet. Lat. 30. 14. N. lon. 85. 54. E.

**LO'PARY**, a town of Hindoostan, in Benares: ten miles north of Jionpour.

**To LOPE**, *v. n.* In the Scotch dialect, to elope, to run away.

**LOPE**, *pret. of leap*. Obsolete :

With that sprang forth a naked swain,  
With spotted wings like peacock's train,  
And laughing *lope* to a tree. *Spenser's Pastorals*.

**LO'PE DE VE'GA**. See **VEGA**.

**LO'PEN**, a village in Somersetshire; two miles from Petherton.

**LO'PES** (Fernam), the oldest of the Portuguese chroniclers, and one of the best chroniclers that any country can boast. The year of his birth is not known. He was private secretary to the infant Don Fernando, who died in captivity at Fez; afterwards chief chronicler and head keeper of the archives. He died in 1449.

It has been the subject of much discussion among the historians and bibliologists of his own country, to ascertain what are the chronicles which he wrote; but it is admitted by all, that those of Pedro I. of Fernando, and of Joam I. to the conclusion of peace with Castile, are his. The chronicles of the earlier kings (except that of Alfonso Henriques, the founder of the monarchy, which is known to be the work of Duarte Galvam), are variously attributed to him, or to Ruy de Pina, in whose name they are published. The Chronicle of Pedro was edited in 1734, by P. Joze Pereira Bayam, and reprinted in 1760. He has most absurdly and inexcusably disfigured it by substituting modern words for such as were obsolete, and torturing the orthography to the fashion of his own days. The Chronicle of Fernando, which is of considerably greater length and value, has never been published; the academy promised to edit it fifteen years ago, but it has not yet appeared. A manuscript of this work is in the possession of Mr. Southey. But the most valuable of all Fernam Lopes's writings, is his Chronicle of Joam, which is the history of the great struggle between Portugal and Castile towards the close of the fourteenth century. No pains were spared to render it as complete as possible, neither on the part of the historian himself, nor of king Duarte, by whose command this history of his father was written. The king sent into Castile to collect documents; and the chronicler, independent of the information which he received at court from persons who had borne a part in the councils and actions of those times, went over the whole kingdom to collect testimony from all the actors in the wars which he recorded. This was first published in 1644, shortly after the Braganzan revolution; never was publication better timed; never was any book better calculated to rouse a nation by the example of their fathers, and encourage them to resist those enemies whom their fathers, under like circumstances, had conquered. It is a truly excellent and admirable work. With the great advantages of singleness and wholeness of subject, it has all the manners, painting, and dramatic reality, of Froissart, conveyed in a nobler language, and vivified by a more patriotic and more poetical mind. *R. S. in Gen. Biog.*

**LOPES'CO**, a town of Naples, in Abruzzo Ultra: nineteen miles south-west of Aquila.

**LO'PEZ** (Gregorio), a celebrated Spanish lawyer, born at Guadaloupe at the latter end of the fifteenth or commencement of the sixteenth century. He collated and

edited the laws of Alonso the Wise, known by the title of *Las Siete Partidas*, and added a commentary, which has been retained in most of the subsequent editions; and, so far as this commentary, or gloss as it is called, refers to the sources of the Partidas in the canon and civil law, it is important; but in other respects it seems to be of little value. Lopez studied at Salamanca, and was one of the royal council of the Indies. The time of his death is not known. *R. S. in Gen. Biog.*

**LOPE'ZIA**, *f.* [dedicated by Cavanilles to the memory of the licentiate *Thomas Lopez*, a native of Burgos, who had an honourable appointment in America in the reign of the emperor Charles V. and is said to have written a compendium of natural history, after his return; which still remains in manuscript, under the title of a Treatise on the Three Elements of Air, Water, and Earth.] In botany, a genus of the class monandria order monogynia, natural order onagræ, *Juss.* (See Sims and König's Annals of Botany, 532.) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium superior, of four oblong concave coloured deciduous leaves; three of them ascending; the fourth, rather the largest, pointing downwards. Corolla: irregular. Petals four, spreading, longer than the calyx; the two uppermost oblong, erect, parallel, with a gland at the base, and supported by cylindrical claws; two lateral ones spatulate, widely spreading. Nectary obovate, folded, on a bent elastic stalk, parallel to the lower leaf of the calyx. Stamina: filament one, awl-shaped, ascending, opposite to the nectary, half as long as the upper petals; antheræ terminal, ovate, simple, of two cells, embraced in an early state by the folded limb of the nectary. Pistillum: germen inferior, nearly globose, smooth; style thread-shaped, somewhat declining, as long as the stamen; stigma capitate, downy. Pericarpium: capsule globular, of four cells, opening at the top by four valves. Seeds: minute, ovate, numerous. Receptacle: square.—*Essential Character.* Calyx superior, of four unequal leaves; corolla irregular, of four petals; nectary stalked, folded, opposite to the stamen; capsule of four cells and four valves; seeds numerous.

*Species*. 1. *Lopezia hirsuta*, or hairy *lopezia*: leaves ovate, downy. Stem round, hairy. Native of Mexico. Mr. John Hunnemann obtained seeds from Germany, for Kew garden, in 1796. The plant is annual, kept in the stove, and flowers from September to November: stem two or three feet high, branched, pale green, clothed with longish soft hairs. Leaves alternate, stalked, ovate, pointed, minutely toothed, an inch or an inch and half long, of a bright light green, clothed on both sides with short soft hairs; those near the flowers small and sessile. Flowers spreading, prettily variegated with pink, deep red, and white, in shape not unlike some sort of little flies: when touched, they exhibit a striking elasticity, if not irritability, in the manner in which the nectary on one hand, and the stamen on the other, fly from the pistil.

2. *Lopezia racemosa*, or smooth *lopezia*: stem square, smooth, as well as the leaves. Floral leaves minute. Native of Mexico. The first seeds that arrived in this country, were sent in a letter from Madrid in 1791, by the abbé Cavanilles to Dr. Smith, Pres. Linn. Soc. and produced plants at Kew and Chelsea the following year, which bloomed abundantly in the autumn, and were much admired. This species differs from the former chiefly in its smoothness, and the squareness of its stem. In other respects they are very much alike, especially in the flowers and inflorescence, so as to have been generally thought varieties.

3. *Lopezia coronata*, or coronet-flowered *lopezia*: leaves smooth and shining; stem angular, from the decurrent footstalks; floral leaves mostly longer than the flower-stalks. Native of Mexico. Messrs. Lee and Kennedy are said to have introduced this species in 1805, which is marked as a hardy annual in Hort. Kew. It differs from the last in being of more luxuriant growth, with larger floral leaves, the whole foliage being of a deeper



deeper and more shining green. We are much inclined to suspect these differences to have arisen from differences of treatment; and that the fading of the lateral petals, as they advance in age, may be attributed to the action of strong sunshine.

LOPHANTHUS, *f.* in botany. See HYSSOPUS.

LOPHIUS, *f.* in ichthyology, the ANGLER, or SEA DEVIL; a genus of fishes of the order of branchiostegi. Generic characters—Head compressed downwards; teeth sharp, numerous; tongue broad, armed with teeth; eyes vertical; nostrils small; gills three, the aperture lateral, simple; pectoral fins broad, thick, and more or less resembling feet; dorsal and anal opposite and near the tail; body naked, covered with a thin loose skin; vent in the middle of the body; lateral line not visible.

These fish live on prey, they increase from eggs, and haunt the sea. They were by the ancients called *sea-frogs*, from their resemblance to that animal; the English have given them a still more hideous name, that of *sea toads*, or *sea-devils*; appellations which these animals seem to merit by their extraordinary deformity. The head and mouth, in some species, are far larger than all the rest of the body; the latter being in some a yard wide, and furnished all round with an infinite number of small teeth.

1. *Lophius piscatorius*, the common angler, or sea-devil. Specific character, body depressed, head rounded. This species has a terrific aspect; the mouth, which is very large and armed with five rows of teeth, standing always open, which has probably occasioned the name. The roof of the mouth, and the tongue, which is broad, short, and thick, are armed with similar teeth; and in the throat also there are two long bones with several sharp teeth. Outwardly there appear no apertures for either nostrils or ears; but there are two in the upper jaw within the mouth, which are supposed to answer the purposes of smell, if not of hearing also; for, as the mouth is always open, they are as well situated to receive the impressions of these sensations as if they were outside. Two long tufts of a horny substance, which Aristotle compares to hairs, Pliny to horns, Oppian to warts, and Belon to a fin, serve this animal to *angle* for its prey; hence Pennant's name, the *angler*. These horns have been seen two feet long in a fish of four feet three inches. Besides these, there are four more of the same kind on the back, fastened at bottom by a membrane. The eyes are placed in the upper superficies of the head; they have a black pupil, the iris is formed of white and brown streaks. Some prickles rise on the upper surface both of the head and body; and at the edges of the under surface are several little fin-like appendages at equal distances. The under surface is white, the upper brownish, without scales, and nearly smooth. The skin is thin, and so loose from the body, that it may be drawn away from the flesh. The head is flattened above and below, and the tail is compressed on both sides. In fact the fish seems made up of head and tail only. The aperture of the gills lies underneath, near the pectoral fin; the membrane is thin, and extends beyond the width of the lower flat side of the head; this membrane is fastened in front to a very strong arched cartilage; and on the sides it forms two large pouches, which some have supposed to be a retreat for their young; here it is sustained by six large round rays which extend longitudinally. The ventral fins, which lie under the pectorals, are short, broad, thick, and fleshy, jointed like arms, and on the inner side divided into fingers, resembling what is seen on the foot of a mole. With these instruments Belon asserts, that the animal walks at the bottom of the water; but their use is probably to attach themselves to hard bodies; they are of a white colour. The pectoral fins are brown above, white below, with a black border. The anal and dorsal fins are brown; the tail black. This species is found in the North Sea, in the Southern Ocean, the Mediterranean, &c. Bloch had one in his possession which was two feet nine inches long; and by no means one of the largest, if we

may believe the wonder-dealing Pontoppidan, who had one, as he says, twelve feet long; Linnæus describes one which was as thick round as a man. Some are caught near Scarborough between four and five feet in length, and whose mouth is near three feet wide. The fishermen no sooner take them, than they give them their liberty, from the supposition that they destroy the dog-fish; and, in support of that idea, some of these voracious animals have been found in their stomachs. It has been very lately discovered that this fish is viviparous, but they are not numerous. The flesh is white when dressed, and is said to taste like a frog; but, as our countrymen seldom eat frogs, we must take this upon the word of a foreigner.

Though this hideous creature might be supposed to make great ravages among the fish, yet it appears by no means to be the case; for, being a slow swimmer, probably occasioned by the great size of his head, he can only catch his prey by stratagem. He hides himself in the seaweed, behind sand-hills, stones, or pieces of rock; then, with his mouth open, he watches the fish that swim about, and throws out the slender appendages of his head, to draw their attention, moving them about in the mud; the little fish approach without fear, taking them for worms; neither are they scared at the dirty colour of the angler, which they take for a lump of earth; nor at his open mouth, which looks like a hole; and, when they think to catch these supposed worms, the angler seizes them at his ease. This fish, who swims ill, might perish for want of food, had it not these filaments, and claspers or feet likewise to stop itself and resist the violence of the waves. Being a solitary fish, and living in almost inaccessible places, they are very rarely caught. See the annexed Plate, fig. 1.

2. *Lophius Cornubicus*, the Cornish angler: body depressed, fringed at the hind-part. It may perhaps be doubted whether this be truly distinct from the preceding, or whether it may not rather constitute a sexual difference or a variety. It is mentioned by Dr. Borlase in his Natural History of Cornwall; and is said to be of a longer form than the common angler, (whence Pennant calls it the *long angler*;) with the head more bony, rough, and aculeated, as well as destitute of the fringed appendages, which take place only towards the hind-part of the body; the pectoral fins are tipped with spines, of about an inch and three quarters in length; and on the tail are similar ones, but somewhat shorter, measuring only an inch. Observed about Mount's Bay in Cornwall.

3. *Lophius mucicatus*, the mucicated angler: body depressed, orbicular, mucicated above with radiated spines. Described by Cedepe from a specimen formerly in the museum of the prince of Orange, but brought from the Hague to Paris, during the late revolutionary war, by citizen Faujas; Cedepe therefore calls it *Lophie Faujas*. Its shape is extremely flat; if the pectoral fins and tail were removed, it would be a perfect circle. The aperture of the mouth is somewhat underneath the front part of the head; above which, just at the extremity, is a little cavity, out of which arises a rounded protuberance. The nostrils are very near this cavity; each has a double aperture, of which the front one is the narrowest, and communicates with a little tube. The eyes are not large; they are so placed as with the two nostrils almost to form a square. The apertures of the gills are more backwards towards the tail than in most of the species. The jugular fins are fastened to fleshy prolongations composed of five rays divided at the extremities, similar to hands, or at least to paws; they are farther back than in the preceding species, being midway between the mouth and the pectoral fins. The pectoral fins are near the anus, consequently not far from the apertures of the gills; their fleshy productions are seen underneath. The vent is in that place where the tail joins to the body. The tail is a cone flattened underneath, about half as long as the body; its fin is rounded at the end; a small dorsal fin appears on its upper surface, and an anal on the lower.



**Lower.** All the upper part of the body and tail is armed with little tubercles and prickles with branched roots. On the under part there are two or three rows of nipples or warts, with little filaments springing from them which are more visible in the outer row; the same elevations are found along the under lip. This species is about four inches long; it is shown on the annexed Plate at fig. 2. and, for the better understanding of its conformation, the under surface is exhibited at fig. 3 of the same Plate.

4. *Lophius barbatus*, the bearded angler: body depressed, barbules from the lower jaw. Inhabits the North Sea, and is very rapacious, though only three inches and a half long. Gmelin doubts whether it be sufficiently distinguished from the following to constitute a separate species.

5. *Lophius vespertilio*, the American toad-fish: body depressed, a sharp snout. The ventral fins in this species much more strongly resemble feet, and the pectorals hands. There are tubercles on the body, which make it rough; they are hollowed out, and radiated like those on the sturgeon. The ground-colour all over is reddish; the tubercles are yellow; as are the ventral and dorsal fins, those of the breast and tail being of a fainter yellow. The eyes are large, with a black pupil enclosed in a yellow-and-white striped iris. The aperture of the mouth is small, lying underneath, and both jaws are armed with a row of little teeth bent inwards. Above the mouth are the nostrils; and over them a single barble of a horny nature, ending in a small point, which barble has no doubt the same use as in the preceding, to attract its prey. The body is broad at top, narrow towards the tail; the under surface has no tubercles, except at the edges, yet it is covered with little prickles, which make it rough to the touch. The anus is near the tail-fin. The aperture of the gills is small, crescent-shaped, and lies on the surface behind the pectoral fins. This fish is found in America, especially the southern parts. Dr. Schæpf saw it at the Bahama isles, where it is called *sea-bat*. It grows about a foot and a half long; it is very thin, and has little flesh, consequently makes but indifferent food. See the Plate, fig. 4.

3. The blunt-headed angler in Brown's Jamaica, is supposed to be a variety of this.

6. *Lophius histrio*, the spotted toad-fish: body compressed, rugged; head blunt. The head is small; the lower jaw protrudes beyond the upper, both furnished with very small teeth like a file; in the middle there is a small cartilage, which serves instead of a tongue; the lips, and indeed many other parts of the body, send out barbules. The body is laterally compressed, and exasperated with crooked spines. The head and back are broad in front, but go tapering towards the tail; the belly is thick and swelling out. From the upper lip shoots out an elastic barble, at the end of which are two long fleshy substances which seem as if formed for holding prey; behind this barble is another fleshy ray and stronger, and between that and the dorsal fin another still thicker; both are fastened to the back by a skin; these instruments help this clumsy slow-swimming animal in catching its prey. The nostrils are near the mouth; the eyes are round, they have a black pupil, and the iris is yellow, striped with brown. This fish is yellow on the sides and back, brown on the belly. The body and fins are varied with stripes and spots of a brown colour, and of different shapes; the stripes are broad in some subjects, in others only strokes; some have white spots, others brown edged with white. The pectoral and ventral fins give this animal the look of a quadruped, but the other fins show it to be a fish. The skin on the belly is thin, and only fastened to the flesh here and there by little bandages. This species is found at Brazil and in China; it generally keeps at the bottom of the water among sea-weed, or behind stones; and grows to the length of nine or ten inches. The aperture of the gills is small, lying under the pectoral fins, and goes to the middle of the lower jaw. According to Maregrave,

this fish has the quality of inflating the belly. Renard (Hist. des Poissons, tom. ii.) relates, that he had a toad-fish, which lived three days out of the water, and followed him about like a dog; but this cannot be true from the nature of fish. It has its name *histrio*, the jack-pudding, from its nimble and varied motions: it is also called *harlequin*, from its variegated skin. See the Plate, fig. 5.

The *antennarius antenna tricorni* of Commerçon's manuscript, is a variety of this, described by Cæpede. The barble which rises from the upper lip divides into three instead of two. This variety was observed by Commerçon on the east coast of Africa; it was five inches long, and about two broad.

7. *Lophius chironectes*, the black-spotted angler: body laterally compressed; a long filament from the upper lip terminating in a small fleshy mass; the body reddish, with a few black spots. The name of this species, *chironectes*, is from the similarity of its fins to hands: Commerçon calls it, "the horned fish swimming with hands," or with fins in the form of hands. The filament which rises behind the mouth is very thin and long, not divided at the summit, but terminated with a knob like what appears on the antennæ of insects; and behind this, instead of two fleshy and filamentous prolongations, there are two lumps or prominences without any filaments, the posterior one the largest and highest.

8. *Lophius bigibbus*, the variegated angler: body compressed, variegated with black and grey. The variation in the colour is the only difference exhibited by Commerçon between this species and the preceding.

9. *Lophius Commerçonii*, the black angler: body compressed; a long filament from the upper lip terminating in a knob; black, with one small white spot on each side. This species is remarkable for being almost entirely of a black colour; besides the white spots mentioned above, there is a whitish one on the upper edge of the tail-fin, and the extremities of the jugular and pectoral fins are coloured in some resemblance to the nails of feet or hands. The body is much compressed at the sides, and covered with thick-grained rough skin. The mouth opens at the extremity, or rather on the upper part of the muzzle; the upper jaw, the lip of which can be expanded or contracted at the pleasure of the animal, makes a semicircular orifice, by Commerçon compared to a small oven, which the under jaw at its rising closes up. Both jaws are exasperated by little teeth very close together, which are equally spread over the surface of the tongue, palate, and upon two bones at the entrance to the gullet. Beyond the long filament, which Commerçon calls *antenna*, rise two lumps as in the preceding species, though somewhat differing in shape. The gills are small, three on each side, sustained by a membrane; and behind the pectoral fins are two round apertures, scarcely visible, which admit water for the refreshment of these organs. Commerçon says that the jugular (or ventral) fins much resemble the fore paws of a mole. The last rays of the dorsal fin are shorter than those adjoining to them; in the black-spotted angler they are longer. The stomach is very large, the peritoneum of a blackish colour; the air-bladder very white, egg-shaped, and adheres to the back.

10. *Lophius Fergusonii*, Ferguson's Angler: two filaments from the upper lip; angular protuberances on the upper surface of the body. For this species we are indebted to our countryman, that self-taught philosopher Mr. James Ferguson. The specimen he describes in the Phil. Trans. vol. liii. pl. 13. was caught in Bristol roads in 1763. It measured four feet nine inches in length. The body was not flatted above and below, nor compressed on the sides; but was rather cylindrical, and terminated conically. The mouth was just at the extremity of the muzzle, and was armed with three rows of sharp teeth. Some sharp protuberances of a blackish colour appear on the head; and behind the upper lip are two hard yet elastic filaments, one before the other, very long, but without any membrane at their extremity. The rays of the jugular



fins are represented on the plate in the Phil. Trans. as ending in a nail; but this is a mistake. The colour is dark brown, shaded with black.

11. *Lophius striatus*, the streaked angler: this and the three following are added by Turton from the Naturalist's Miscellany. The body of the present species is compressed, and of a brown colour, marked all over, chiefly in a transverse direction, with very numerous and closely-placed narrow black streaks of unequal lengths, with fine black lines interposed; the streaks round the eyes are placed in a radiated direction. Fins as in the hifrio, and marked with black spots: mouth wide; tongue broad, and paved above with flattened teeth. From the top of the mouth a long filament, slightly dilated into an oval shape at the tip; at some distance beyond this, two strong and thick processes, as in the former species, but without filaments at their tip. Rays of the dorsal fin each terminating in a fine cirrus. Native of the South Seas; observed about the coasts of Otaheite during the first voyage of Capt. Cook. Length of the specimen described about five inches.

12. *Lophius pictus*, the painted angler: body compressed, brown, with yellowish blotches margined with red. Allied in some degree to the *Lophius hifrio*: length of the specimen described about four inches; colour dull brown, with a few very large irregular patches of pale yellow, strongly clouded on the edges with deep crimson; between these blotches are interposed a few rather small roundish black spots; over the mouth a long filament, dividing, into three at the top; beyond this a pair of thick processes, as in the two preceding species; pectoral and ventral fins strongly radiated at the ends by the fibres: Native of the Pacific Ocean; observed about Otaheite, New-Holland, &c. See the Plate, fig. 6.

13. *Lophius marmoratus*, the marbled angler: body sub-compressed, livid, with whitish and ferruginous variations, and single dorsal fin. Length of the specimen described about five inches; shape oval, or nearly resembling that of the generality of fishes; body slightly compressed; back arched, and furnished with a single and rather shallow fin, commencing at some distance beyond the head, and extending to within a small distance from the tail, where it is somewhat broader than at its origin. Pectoral fins much resembling those of the generality of fishes, the bases or arms being scarce apparent; ventrals short, arm-shaped, and terminated by thick and slightly-marked lobes, so as to resemble the paws of a quadruped; anal fin longish, and situated near the tail, which is slightly rounded. Colour on the upper parts black-brown with a few bluish clouds and spots; on the lower parts whitish; both colours breaking into each other on the sides of the fish, and the white parts being edged with dull red; eyes white, radiated with black; mouth wide; above the upper lip a long filament, forking into two at the tip. Observed about the coast of Otaheite, &c. See the Plate, fig. 7.

14. *Lophius monopterygius*, the one-finned angler: body depressed, blackish, beneath whitish; fin above the tail sub erect, ramose. This very singular fish, Dr. Shaw is doubtful where to place; it has no fin except the lobate one just above the tail; the eyes are vertical, approximate, and far behind the snout; the body roundish, a little tapering to both ends, and the tail or lobe at the end of the body rounded. It inhabits the seas of Australasia.

LO'FO, a lake of Thibet, about eighteen miles long, and nine broad. Lat. 42. 20. N. lon. 89. 52. E.

LO'PEN, a small island in the North Sea, near the coast of Lapland. Lat. 69. 43. N.

LO'PER, *f.* One that cuts trees.

LO'PERED, *adj.* Coagulated: as, *loppered* milk. Thus it is still called in Scotland.

LO'PING, *f.* The operation of cutting off the lateral or other branches of trees. Most old trees are found hollow within, which frequently proceeds from the fault of those who have the management of them, by suffering the tops to grow too large before they are lopped; this is common in the ash, elm, hornbeam, &c. It is done in or-

der to have more great wood; but the cutting off great tops often endangers the life of the trees, or wounds them, so that they yearly decay more in their bodies than the annual value of the tops; hence it is to the loss of the owner to have them so managed; and, though the hornbeam and elm will bear great tops when the body is little more than a shell, the ash, when it comes to take wet at the head, and decays, rarely bears any more at top. When timber-trees of this kind begin to decay, they should be cut down as soon as possible. When trees are at full growth, the signs of their decay are the withering or dying of many of their top branches, and the wet entering at some knots, or their being otherwise hollow or discoloured; also by their making but poor shoots, and the woodpeckers making holes in them. But the lopping of trees at ten or twelve years old, in general, preserves them much longer, and occasions the shoots to grow more into wood in one year than they do in old tops in two or three. As great boughs, ill taken off, spoil trees, they should always be taken off close and smooth, and not in a slanting manner, as is a common practice. The wood should be covered with loam and horse-dung mixed, or some of Mr. Forsyth's composition, to prevent the wet from entering the bodies of the trees, and destroying them by bringing on the rot.

The above method of lopping of trees is only, however, proper for pollard-trees; nothing being more injurious to the growth of timber-trees than lopping or cutting off great branches from them. Miller observes, that whoever will be at the trouble of trying the experiment upon two trees of equal age and size, growing near each other, by lopping or cutting off the side branches from one of them, and suffering all the branches to grow upon the other, will in a few years find the latter to exceed the former in growth every way, and not decay nearly so soon. It is generally recommended not to prune timber-trees at all; and, where they naturally grow straight and regular, they are much better let alone. But all common faults in shape may be regulated by lopping them while young, without any ill consequences to the timber. The very large forest-trees should not be lopped at all, except in cases of great necessity; and then only the side-branches should be removed, which must be done as close to the trunk as possible. The most proper seasons for the performance of this sort of business are those of the very early autumn and spring months, in most instances. It may be observed, that most sorts of resinous trees, or such as abound with a milky juice, should be lopped very sparingly, as they are subject to decay when often lopped, or cut over in their branches. The best season for lopping those kind of trees is the latter end of summer or beginning of autumn; they then seldom bleed much, and the wounds are commonly healed over before the weather sets in to be bad and severe. But very few sorts of ornamental trees should be much lopped, as it greatly injures their beauty and appearance. The only thing necessary is to take off such straggling branches as may grow out in an awkward or improper direction, and render them less ornamental. See *Martin's edit. of Miller's Gardener's Dict.*

LOP'PIS, a town of Sweden, in the province of Nyland; thirty-six miles north-north-west of Helsingfors.

LOPSCHENSKOI, a town of Russia, in the government of Archangel, on the coast of the White Sea: sixty miles west of Archangel.

LOQUA'BYR. See LOCHABER, vol. xii. p. 866.

LOQUA'CIOUS, *adj.* [*loquax*, Lat.] Full of talk; full of tongue:

In council she gives licence to her tongue;  
*Loquacious*, brawling, ever in the wrong. *Dryden.*

Speaking:

Blind British bards, with volant touch  
Traverse *loquacious* strings, whose solemn notes  
Provoke to harmless revels,

*Phillips.*

Apt to blab; not secret,

LOQUA'CIOUSNESS,







LORANTHUS.



15F76  
MF ML  
Cyphers of Melchior Lorch.

*Loranthus bicolor*, from the Coast of Coromandel.



**LOQUACIOUSNESS**, *f.* The same as  
**LOQUACITY**, *f.* Too much talk.—Why *loquacity* is  
to be avoided, the wife man gives sufficient reason; for  
in the multitude of words there wanteth not sin. *Ray*.

**LOR'A**, a woman's name.

**LOR'A**, a town of Spain, in the province of Seville: eight miles north of Carmona.

**LOR'A**, a castle of Westphalia, in the county of Hohenstein, which gives name to a lordship late belonging to the king of Prussia: three miles south-east of Bleicherode, eighteen north of Muhlhausen.

**LOR'A**, a river of Chili, which runs into the Pacific Ocean in lat. 34. 46. S.

**LOR'A**, a town of Chili, on a river of the same name: 205 miles south of Valparayso.

**LORAH**, a town of Hindoostan, in Bahar: twenty-five miles west-south-west of Rotasgur.

**LORAMENT**, *f.* [*loramentum*, Lat.] A large thong; a band made of thongs. *Colz*.

**LORANCA**, a town of Spain, in New Castile: eight miles south of Huete.

**LORANGA**, a river of Africa, which runs into the Straits of Mozambique in lat. 17. 30. S.

**LORANTHUS**, *f.* [from the Gr. *λωρος*, a strap, and *ανθος*, a flower: the corolla being cut into straps.] In botany, a genus of the class hexandria, order monogynia, natural order of aggregatae, (caprifolia, *Juss.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium of the fruit inferior; margin entire, concave; of the flower superior, or the margin entire, concave. Corolla: petals six, oblong, revolute, equal. Stamina: filaments six, awl-shaped, fastened to the bases of the petals, the length of the corolla; antherae oblong. Pistillum: germ oblong, between the two calyces, or inferior; style simple, the length of the stamens; stigma blunt. Pericarpium: berry oblong, one-celled. Seed: oblong.—*Essential Character.* Germ inferior; calyx none; corolla six-cleft, revolute; stamina at the tips of the petals; berry one-seeded.

These are mostly parasitical shrubs; the leaves thickish, often opposite, but sometimes alternate. Flowers axillary, sometimes but seldom terminating, corymbed or spiked, or on one-flowered pedicels; some five-petalled, five-stamened; some one-petalled, the petals being united at the base. Jussieu suggests, that the genus might perhaps be divided, by restoring the name of *Lonicera* to such species as have six stamens, and giving that of *Loranthus* to those which have five. Some of these plants were named *Scurrula* by Browne, from *scerra*, a parasite; on account of their drawing nourishment from other trees.

*Species.* 1. *Loranthus bicolor*, or two-coloured loranthus, described and figured by Dr. Roxburgh. It is the yelling wadinika of the Telingas: *wadinika* means parasitical. Trunk scarcely any; branches numerous, ascending, woody; bark grey. Leaves nearly opposite, sessile, very short petioled; below oval, oblong, or lanced; above linear-lanced, waved, entire, reclined; veins scarcely any; from three to five inches long, and from half an inch to an inch and a half broad. Racemes axillary, single, simple, erect, many-flowered; flowers in size and appearance very like those of the honeysuckle; corolla one-petalled; tube long, a little curved, swelling from the bottom to within a third of the mouth, then contracts a little; border five-parted, upper fissure much the deepest; segments linear, reflected; filaments five, from the base of the segments of the corolla, short; antherae linear. Germ beneath naked; style the length of the corolla; stigma headed. Berry below crowned with the remaining calyx, oblong, smooth, pulpy, one-celled; seed single. This beautiful parasite, which is represented in the annexed Plate, is a native of the coast of Coromandel, growing upon the branches of various trees; it is very ramous, and flowers during the greatest part of the year; the flowers numerous and beautiful; its foliage is also beautiful. Dr. Roxburgh adds, that the upper part of the branch of the tree on which this parasite grows soon perishes.

2. *Loranthus tetrapetalus*, or four-petalled loranthus; peduncles one-flowered, subsolitary; leaves ovate, obtuse, subsessile. Leaves opposite, quite entire. There is a single flower on each side by the leaves, making four at each joint, and so along the whole stem. Native of New Zealand.

3. *Loranthus scurrula*, or Chinese loranthus: peduncles one-flowered, heaped; leaves obovate. Leaves opposite, petioled, quite entire, smooth, a little broader on one side than on the other. Flowers axillary, three to six, each on its proper pedicel. Native of China, the Philippine islands, and the coast of Coromandel, where it flowers during the wet season.

4. *Loranthus uniflorus*, or one-flowered loranthus: racemes quite simple. Leaves suboval, blunt, with a small point, entire, very smooth, coriaceous, petioled, opposite, frequently irregular. Flowers small, inodorous. Native of St. Domingo, in woods; flowering in November and December.

5. *Loranthus glaucus*, or sea-green loranthus: peduncles axillary, one-flowered; leaves ovate, glaucous. Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

6. *Loranthus Europæus*, or European loranthus: racemes simple, terminating; flowers dioecous. This has the stature of *Viscum album*, or mistletoe; flowers male and female on separate plants; berry yellow, containing one seed. Native of Austria, parasitical on oaks; also of Siberia.

7. *Loranthus Americanus*, or American loranthus: racemes somewhat branched, cymed; flowers nodding; leaves ovate, difform. Branches subdivided, leafy, smooth, pale green, brittle. It climbs over the highest trees in Jamaica, Martinico, &c. especially the *Coccoloba grandifolia*, with the root adhering firmly to the bark like mistletoe. If a large bough, on which it grows, be cut off, the next day it withers and perishes.

8. *Loranthus emarginatus*, or margined loranthus: racemes axillary, simple; leaves wedge-shaped, ovate, emarginate. Native of Hispaniola.

9. *Loranthus occidentalis*, or eastern loranthus: racemes simple; flowers irregular. Branches divaricating, subdivided, loose, round, rugged, brittle. Native of South America and the West-India Islands. Carthagena, Jamaica, &c. on trees; flowering in April and May.

10. *Loranthus loniceroides*, or lonicer-like loranthus: flowers aggregate-capitate. This has long flexuose branches; and is a native of the East Indies.

Gartner has a species of this genus, which he names *Lonicera Zeylanica*. He says, that it is not *Loranthus loniceroides*; which has the flowers sessile in a peduncled umbel; and that it does not agree with *Loranthus Americanus*, which has spherical berries disposed in a cyme; whereas in this the berries are oval in a much-lengthened raceme. The corolla is six-cleft, and it has six stamens: The embryo is inverted, and has only one cotyledon, which is almost as long as the albumen, subfusiform, solid, and without any vestige of a division. In the cavity of the albumen of old berries there is often a white pellucid crystallized resin like camphor.

11. *Loranthus stelis*: racemes trichotomous; peduncles three-cornered; flowers equal. Native of South America, and the Society Isles.

12. *Loranthus parvifolius*, or small-leaved loranthus: peduncles axillary, trifid; pedicels one-flowered; leaves ovate, entire. 13. *Loranthus pauciflorus*, or few-flowered loranthus: peduncles trichotomous, shorter than the leaves; leaves obovate. Natives of Jamaica.

14. *Loranthus pentandrus*, or five-stamened loranthus: racemes simple; flowers five-cleft; leaves alternate, petioled. Branches dilated at the leaves, which are of the same form with those of the bay, with scarcely any nerves. Native of the East Indies.

15. *Loranthus falcatus*, or sickled loranthus: racemes few-flowered, axillary; leaves linear, blunt; laterally-sickled, glaucous. Leaves sickle-shaped, with the edge

serging



verging downwards, quite entire, veinless, hoary. Flowers sickle-shaped, orange. Found by Koenig, growing on trees about Madras.

16. *Loranthus spicatus*, or spiked loranthus: spikes quadrangular. This branching shrubby plant grows on other shrubs. The root divides in two, surrounding the branch to which it fastens itself, and then uniting again; it there puts out fibres on every side, and runs along the branch frequently to a great length. Branches woody, diffused, brittle. Leaves quite entire, blunt, smooth, coriaceous, fat to the touch, petioled, opposite, with ascending veins or nerves almost all springing from the base; their figure varies, being ovate, oval, obovate, or roundish. Flowers small, inodorous, red, very many, deeply sessile in four longitudinal rows. Berry ovate-oblong, green with a red tip, and containing a milky glutinous juice. Native of Carthage in New Spain, in woods; flowering in April and May.

17. *Loranthus Cochinchensis*, or Cochin-china loranthus: peduncles many-flowered, heaped; leaves acute. Stem woody, twisted, short, very much branched. Native of Cochin-china, on the branches of trees in gardens.

18. *Loranthus pedunculatus*, or peduncled loranthus: racemes simple, solitary; flowers in threes, peduncled. Root as in *L. spicatus*; branches shining, long, reclined. Leaves cordate-ovate, quite entire, with a short point, shining, opposite, two inches long, with veins from the midrib. Flowers inodorous, small; calyx of the fruit ovate, concave, entire; petals white: it happens frequently that there are no antheræ, but cusped upright bodies in their place; and hence the flowers in this species are very frequently abortive. Native of Carthage, in woods, especially in salt marshes.

19. *Loranthus sessilis*, or sessile loranthus: racemes simple, solitary; flowers in threes, sessile. This has the habit of the preceding, but the branches as in *L. spicatus*. Leaves ovate, an inch and a half long. The flowers have no proper peduncles, but are placed on the thickened top of the partial peduncle. All the filaments are always antheriferous. Berries of a dusky greenish red colour. Native of Carthage, in woods.

LORARI, *f.* Among the Romans, officers whose business it was, with whips and scourges, to compel the gladiators to engage. The *lorarii* also punished slaves who disobeyed their masters.

LORBUS, or LERBA, a town of Africa, in the country of Tunis; anciently called *Laribus Colonia*: ten miles west-south-west of Tuberlake.

LORCA, anciently called *Cliocrata*, a town of Spain, of considerable size, in Murcia, situated very near the confines of the kingdom of Granada, at the foot of a steep mountain, consisting almost wholly of schist, and denominated the Sierra del Cano, on the right bank of the Guadalentin. It lies at the entrance of a fine rich country, abounding with trees, particularly olive and mulberry, fertilized by the above-mentioned river. The town had formerly a castle, advantageously situated on the top of the mountain, which was strong under the Moors and under the kings of Castile; but it is now in ruins. Lorca is now much larger than it was under the Moors, by whom it was taken in 714. It is divided into the upper and lower town; the former being the old part on the declivity of the hill formerly occupied by the Moors; and the latter, which is more modern and better built, stands altogether on level ground; it has four gates and several squares, and two suburbs; and its extent is sufficient to accommodate 1200 persons. The population of Lorca is computed at about 30,000 inhabitants, partly of noble ancient families, and devoted to agriculture, and partly very poor; intermixed with the other inhabitants are several wandering vagabonds, called Gitanos, or gypsies. Lorca has at present a collegiate chapter, eight parish-churches, seven monasteries, two nunneries, two hospitals, one for men and the other for women, and a college for

the instruction of youth. It is governed by a corregidor, and twenty-four regidores, who form the principality; it has a manufacture of salt-petre, but no kind of commerce. Some of the produce of the country is taken from it, particularly silk and kali; but this trade is carried on by foreigners, especially the French, who are settled here. The town suffered much in 1802 by an inundation from a large basin or reservoir, which had been constructed of an immense size in order to water the whole of its adjacent territory. This basin being undermined, the water rushed from it with such impetuosity, that it wholly destroyed one of its suburbs, consisting of about 600 houses, and several public buildings, and extended its destructive ravages to an extent of 16 leagues; so that the number of people who perished was estimated at 6000, and the animals at 24,000. The whole loss was estimated at 200 millions of reals, or about 2,083,333 $\frac{1}{3}$  sterling. Lorca is distant forty-two miles west of Carthage. Lat. 37. 38. N. lon. 2. W.

LORCH, a town of Germany, whose inhabitants subsist principally by cultivating vineyards and making wine. In 1707, 3000 Germans were defeated here by the marshal de Villars, and their commander general Janus made prisoner: twenty-four miles west-south-west of Mentz, and five south-south-east of Caub.

LORCH, or LORICH, (Melchior), an engraver of the German school, was born at Flensburg, in the duchy of Sleswic, in the year 1527; and died at Rome in 1586. He was distinguished as an artist and an antiquary: some time about the middle period of his life, he made a voyage to Constantinople, where he painted and engraved the portraits of the grand seignior and his favourite, which are now become very rare, and where he formed that collection of Turkish dresses, which were afterwards engraven on wood, and published in the year 1576, in a folio volume. His engravings are decidedly those of a man of talent: he drew with considerable spirit, and a tolerable degree of correctness. His works on wood are executed with much freedom and boldness; while in those on copper these qualities are in some degree lost in the neatness to which he laboured his finishing. Strutt speaks of a crucified figure, which is designed so much in the style of Michael Angelo, that he supposes it to be engraven after some work of that great master, as a very extraordinary production. The works of Lorich, which are held in most request among connoisseurs, are—The portrait of Martin Luther, dated 1548; that of Albert Durer, with four Latin verses, dated 1550, a very rare print; done in imitation of a cameo; Aristotle, dated 1561; St. Jerome in the Desert, dated 1546; these are on copper. His best engravings on wood, are a set mentioned above, of the costume of Turkey, in small folio, dated from 1570 to 1581; the Tiburtine Sybil, dated 1571; a woman pressing her breast, with numerous animals below, and inscribed *Ops Saturni conjux materque Deorum*, a very spirited engraving in folio, dated 1565; and the deluge, a large folio, engraven on two blocks, the impressions from which are afterwards pasted together. The works of Lorich may be known by one or other of the monograms annexed to the preceding Plate.

LORCHHAUSEN, a town of Germany, situated on the Rhine: twenty-seven miles west of Mentz

LORD, *f.* [hlæpɔd, Sax.] Monarch; ruler; governor.—We have our author's only arguments to prove, that heirs are lords over their brethren. *Locke.*

O'er love, o'er fear, extends his wide domain,  
Unconquer'd lord of pleasure and of pain.

*Johnson.*

Master; supreme person:

But now I was the lord

Of this fair mansion, master of my servants,  
Queen o'er myself; and even now, but now,

This house, these servants, and this same myself,

Arc yours, my lord.

*Shakesp. Merch. of Venice.*



A tyrant; an oppressive ruler.—Now being assembled into one company, rather without a *lord* than at liberty to accomplish their misery, they fall to division. *Hayward.*

'Tis death to fight, but kingly to controul  
Lord-like at ease, with arbitrary power,  
To peell the chiefs, the people to devour.

*Dryden.*

A husband:

I oft in bitterness of soul deplor'd  
My absent daughter, and my dearer *lord*.

*Pope.*

One who is at the head of any business; an overseer:

Grant harvest-*lord* more by a penny or two,  
To call on his fellows the better to do.

*Tusser.*

A nobleman.—Thou art a *lord*, and nothing but a *lord*. *Shakespeare.*—A general name for a peer of England.—Nor were the crimes objected against him so clear, as to give convincing satisfaction to the major part of both houses, especially that of the *lords*. *King Charles.*—A baron, as distinguished from those of higher title. The title is by courtesy also given to all the sons of dukes and marquises, and to the eldest sons of earls; and it is also a title of honour bestowed on those who are honourable by their employments; as *lord chamberlain*, *lord chancellor*, *lord chief-justice*, *lord-mayor*, &c.—The word is Saxon, but abbreviated from two syllables into one; for it was originally *hlaford*, which, by dropping the aspiration became *laford*, and afterwards, by contraction, *lord*. "The etymology of the word (says J. Coates) is well worth observing; for it was composed of *hla*, a loaf of bread, and *ford*, to give or afford; so that *hlaford*, now *lord*, implies "a giver of bread;" because, in those ages, such great men kept extraordinary houses, and fed all the poor; for which reason they were called *givers of bread*, a thing now much out of date, great men being fond of retaining the title, but few regarding the practice for which it was first given. See *LADY*.

The distinction of ranks and honours is necessary in every well-governed state; in order to reward such as are eminent for their services to the public, in a manner the most desirable to individuals, and yet without burden to the community; exciting thereby an ambitious yet laudable ardour and generous emulation in others. And emulation, or virtuous ambition, is a spring of action which, however dangerous or invidious in a mere republic or under a despotic sway, will certainly be attended with good effects under a free monarchy; where, without destroying its existence, its excesses may be continually restrained by that superior power from which all honour is derived. Such a spirit, when nationally diffused, gives life and vigour to the community; it sets all the wheels of government in motion, which, under a wise regulator, may be directed to any beneficial purpose; and thereby every individual may be made subservient to the public good, while he principally means to promote his own particular views. A body of nobility is also more particularly necessary in our mixed and compounded constitution, in order to support the rights of both the crown and the people, by forming a barrier to withstand the encroachments of both. It creates and preserves that gradual scale of dignity which proceeds from the peasant to the prince; rising like a pyramid from a broad foundation, and diminishing to a point as it rises. It is this ascending and contracting proportion that adds stability to any government; for, when the departure is sudden from one extreme to another, we may pronounce that state to be precarious. The nobility therefore are the pillars, which are reared from among the people, more immediately to support the throne; and, if that falls, they must also be buried under its ruins. Accordingly, when in the 17th century the commons had determined to extirpate monarchy, they also voted the house of lords to be useless and dangerous. And, since titles of nobility are thus expedient in the state, it is also expedient that their owners should form an independent and separate branch of the legislature. If they were con-

founded with the mass of the people, and like them had only a vote in electing representatives, their privileges would soon be borne down and overwhelmed by the popular torrent, which would effectually level all distinctions. It is therefore highly necessary that the body of nobles should have a distinct assembly, distinct deliberations, and distinct powers, from the commons. See *NOBILITY*, *PARLIAMENT*, and *PEER*.

*LORD* is also a title sometimes given to an inferior person who has a fee, and consequently the homage of tenants within his manor. For by his tenants he is called *lord*, and in some places, for distinction sake, *land-lord*. It is in this last signification that the word *lord* is principally used in our law-books, where it is divided into *lord paramount*, and *lord mesne*. *Lord mesne* is he that is owner of a manor, and by virtue thereof hath tenants holding of him in fee, and by copy of court-roll; and yet holds himself of a superior lord called *lord paramount*.

*LORD of a MANOR.* See *COPYHOLD*.

*LORD in GROSS*, he who is lord, not by reason of any manor, as the king in respect of his crown, &c. *Very Lord*, is he who is immediate lord to his tenant; and *very tenant*, he who holds immediately of that lord. So that, where there is lord paramount, lord mesne, and tenant; the lord paramount is not very lord to the tenant.

*LORD HIGH ADMIRAL.* See *ADMIRAL*, vol. i. p. 119.

*LORD CHAMBERLAIN.* See *CHAMBERLAIN*, vol. v.

*LORD CHANCELLOR.* See *CHANCELLOR*, vol. v.

*LORD LIEUTENANT*, the name of the chief governor, or viceroy, of Ireland.

*Lord Lieutenant of a County*, an officer of great distinction, appointed by the king for the managing of the standing militia of the county, and all military matters therein. They are supposed to have been introduced about the reign of Henry VIII. for they are mentioned as known officers in the statute 4 and 5 Ph. & M. c. 3. though they had not been then long in use; for Camden speaks of them, in the time of queen Elizabeth, as extraordinary magistrates constituted only in times of difficulty and danger. They are generally of the principal nobility, and of the best interest in the county; they are to form the militia in case of a rebellion, &c. and march at the head of them, as the king shall direct. They have the power of commissioning colonels, majors, captains, and subaltern officers; also to present the king with the names of deputy-lieutenants, who are to be selected from the best gentry in the county, and act in the absence of the lord-lieutenants. Subservient to the lord-lieutenants and deputy-lieutenants, are the justices of peace; who, according to the order they receive from them, are to issue out warrants to the high and petty constables, &c. for military service, &c.

*LORDS MARCHERS*, those noblemen that lived on the marches of Wales or Scotland; who in times past had their laws, and power of life and death, like petty kings; which are abolished by stat. 27 Hen. VIII. c. 26. and 1 Ed. VI. c. 10. See farther under the article *WALES*.

*LORD MAYOR of LONDON.* See p. 592 of this volume.

*LORD PRIVY SEAL*, before the 30th of Henry VIII. was generally an ecclesiastic; since which, the office has been usually conferred on temporal peers, above the degree of barons. His office is by patent. The lord privy-seal, receiving a warrant from the signet-office, issues the privy-seal, which is an authority to the lord-chancellor to pass the great seal, where the nature of the grant requires the seal. But the privy-seals for money begin in the treasury, from whence the first warrant issues, countersigned by the lord-treasurer. On the lord privy-seal are attendant clerks, who have two deputies to act for them.

*LORD STEWARD of the King's Household*, is the principal officer for the civil government of the king's servants below-stairs; over the officers of which he has jurisdiction. He is constituted by the delivery of the white staff, which is esteemed his commission. By virtue of his office, without any other commission, he judges of all offences com-



mitted within the court, or the verge thereof; and gives judgment according to their several deserts. At the death of the sovereign he breaks his staff over the grave in which the royal corpse is deposited, and thereby discharges all the officers under his power.

To LORD, *v. n.* To domineer; to rule despotically; with *over* before the subject of power.—I should choose rather to be tumbled into the dust in blood, bearing witness to any known truth of our Lord, than by a denial of truths, through blood and perjury, wade to a sceptre, and lord it in a throne. *South.*

But, if thy passions lord it in thy breast,  
Art thou not still a slave?

*Dryden's Persius.*

LORD'S DAY, or SUNDAY, the day set apart for the service of God, to be kept religiously, and not be profaned. Profanation of the Lord's Day, vulgarly called sabbath-breaking, is classed by Blackstone amongst offences against God and religion, punished by the laws of England; for, besides the notorious indecency and scandal of permitting any secular business to be publicly transacted on that day in a country professing Christianity, and the corruption of morals which usually follows its profanation, the keeping one day in seven holy, as a time of relaxation and refreshment, as well as for public worship, is of admirable service to a state, considered merely as a civil institution. The laws of king Athelstan forbade all merchandising on the Lord's Day, under very severe penalties. And by the stat. 27 Hen. VI. c. 5, no fair or market shall be held on the principal festivals, Good Friday, or any Sunday, (except the four Sundays in harvest,) on pain of forfeiting the goods exposed to sale. And by the stat. 1 Car. I. c. 1, no person shall assemble, out of their own parishes, for any sport whatsoever, upon this day; nor, in their parishes, shall use any bull or bear-bating, interludes, plays, or other unlawful exercises, or pastimes; on pain that every offender shall pay 3s. 4d. to the poor. This statute does not prohibit, but rather impliedly allows, any innocent recreation or amusement, *within their respective parishes*, even on the Lord's Day, after divine service is over; and with good reason, for at what other time can many servants and labouring men recreate themselves? By stat. 29 Car. II. c. 7, no person is allowed to do any worldly labour on the Lord's Day, (except works of necessity and charity,) or to use any boat or barge, or expose any goods to sale; except meat in public-houses, and milk before nine in the morning, and after four in the afternoon; on forfeiture of 5s. Nor shall any drover, carrier, or the like, travel upon that day, under pain of 20s. The goods exposed to sale on a Sunday to be forfeited to the poor, &c. on conviction before a justice of the peace, who may order the penalties and forfeitures to be levied by distress; and may allow one third to the informer. But this is not to extend to dressing meat in families, inns, cook-shops, or victualling-houses. Mackrel may be sold on Sundays, before and after divine service; stat. 10 and 11 Will. III. c. 24.—Forty watermen are permitted to ply on the Thames, between Vauxhall and Limehouse, on Sundays; stat. 11 and 12 Will. III. c. 21. and see the article LONDON, p. 615.—Fish-carriages are allowed to travel on Sundays, either laden or returning empty; 2 Geo. III. c. 15.—Bakers were permitted to dress dinners on a Sunday, as a work of necessity; (5 Term Rep. 449.) but, by stat. 34 Geo. III. c. 61, every baker shall be subject to a penalty of 10s. to the use of the poor, for exercising his business in any manner as a baker on the Lord's Day: except that he may sell bread between nine in the morning and one in the afternoon; and may also, within that time, bake meat, puddings, and pies, for any person who shall carry or send the same to be baked; and see the local act 48 Geo. III. c. lxx.—By stat. 21 Geo. III. c. 49, passed to restrain an indecent practice which had become very prevalent, it is enacted, that any house or place opened for public entertainment, or for publicly *debating* on any subject, upon the Lord's

Day, and to which persons shall be admitted by money or tickets sold, shall be deemed a disorderly house; the keeper (or person acting as such) shall forfeit 200l. and be punished as in the case of keeping a disorderly house; the person managing such entertainment, or acting as president, &c. of any public debate, shall forfeit 100l. every servant receiving money or tickets from the persons coming, or delivering out tickets of admission, shall forfeit 50l. and every person advertising, or printing an advertisement of such meeting, shall also forfeit 50l. Actions to be brought within six months. § 3. Law processes are not to be served on a Sunday, unless it be in cases of treason or felony; or on an escape, by virtue of stat. 5 Ann. c. 9. Sunday is not a day in law for proceedings, contracts, &c. and a sale of goods on this day in a market overt is not good. If any part of the proceedings of a suit, in any court of justice, be entered and recorded to be done on a Sunday, it makes it all void. 2 *Inst.* 264.

LORD EDGECUMB'S ISLAND, or NEW SARK, one of Queen Charlotte's Islands, in the South Pacific Ocean; about ten miles long, and three broad. Lat. 11. 10. S. lon. 165. 54. E.

LORD HOOD'S CANAL, an inlet in the gulf of New Georgia, discovered and examined by Vancouver; about forty miles in length from north to south, and three in breadth. Towards the north it communicates with Admiralty Inlet; on the south it is closed by the land. Captain Vancouver says, "We beheld a number of the natives, who did not betray the smallest apprehension at our approach. The whole assembly remained quietly seated on the grass, except two or three, whose particular office seemed to be that of making us welcome to their country. These presented us with some fish; and received in return trinkets of various kinds, which delighted them exceedingly. They attended us to their companions, who amounted in number to about sixty, including the women and children. We were received by them with equal cordiality, and treated with marks of great friendship and hospitality. A short time was here employed in exchanges of mutual civilities. The females on this occasion took a very active part. They presented us with fish, arrows, and other trifles, in a way that convinced us they have much pleasure in so doing. They did not appear to differ in any respect from the inhabitants we had before seen; and some of our gentlemen were of opinion, that they recognised the persons of one or two who had visited us on the preceding Thursday morning; particularly one man, who had suffered very much from the small-pox. This deplorable disease is not only common, but it is greatly to be apprehended is very fatal amongst them, as indelible marks were seen on many; and several had lost the sight of one eye, which was remarked to be generally the left; owing, most likely, to the virulent effects of this baneful disorder. The residence of these people here was doubtless of a temporary nature: few had taken the trouble of erecting their usual miserable huts, being content to lodge on the ground, with loose mats only for their covering." The southern extremity is situated in lat. 47. 20. N. lon. 237. 9. E.

LORD HOWE'S GROUP, a cluster of islands in the Pacific Ocean, discovered by Capt. Hunter in the year 1791. Thirty-two of these islands were distinctly counted from the mast-head, bearing north-west half north, to north-east half east; many of them at such a distance, as made it probably the whole number was not seen. Some of the men, who appeared in a boat, were a stout, clean, well-made, people, of a dark copper colour; their hair was tied in a knot on the back of their head, and they seemed to have some method of taking off their beards; for they appeared as if quite clean shaved; but they had an ornament, consisting of a number of fringes, like an artificial beard, which was fastened on between the nose and mouth, and close under the nose; to that beard hung a row of teeth, which gave them the appearance of having a mouth lower than their natural one; they had holes run through the sides of the nose into the passage, into which,



as well as through the septum, were thrust pieces of reed or bone; their arms and thighs were marked in the manner described by Capt. Cook, of some of the natives of the islands he visited in these seas, called *tatwing*, and some were painted with red and white streaks; they wore a wrapper round their middle. Their canoe was about forty feet long: it was badly made, and had an outrigger. The islands appeared very thickly covered with wood, among which the cocoa-nut was very distinguishable. Lat. 5. 30. S. lon. 159. 24. E.

LORD HOWE'S ISLAND. See HOWE'S ISLAND, vol. x. p. 436.

LORDS AND LA'DIES, *f.* in botany. See ARUM.

LORD OF MISRULE, or KING OF CHRISTMAS. It is said of the English, that formerly they were remarkable for the manner in which they celebrated the festival of Christmas; at which season they admitted variety of sports and pastimes, not known, or little practised, in other countries. The mock Prince or Lord of Misrule, whose reign extended through the greater part of the holydays, is particularly remarked by foreign writers, who consider him as a personage rarely to be met with out of England; (see the article GAME, vol. viii. p. 261.) and two or three centuries back, perhaps, this observation might be consistent with truth; but we shall upon due examination be ready to conclude, that anciently this frolicsome monarch was well known upon the continent, where he probably received his first honours. In this kingdom his power and dignities were established by royal authority, and continued after they had ceased to exist elsewhere. But even with us his government has been extinct for many years; and his name and his offices are nearly forgotten. No doubt in many instances the privileges allowed to this merry despot were abused, and not unfrequently productive of immorality; the institution itself, even if we view it in its most favourable light, is puerile and ridiculous, adapted to the ages of ignorance, when more rational amusements were not known, or at least not fashionable. "At the feast of Christmas," says Stow, "in the king's court wherever he chanced to reside, there was appointed a Lord of Misrule, or master of merry disports; the same merry fellow made his appearance at the house of every nobleman and person of distinction; and among the rest, the lord-mayor of London and the sheriffs had severally of them their Lord of Misrule, ever contending, without quarrel or offence, who should make the rarest pastimes to delight the beholders. This pageant potentate began his rule at Allhallow-eve, and continued the same till the morrow after the Feast of the Purification; in which space there were fine and subtle disguisings, masks, and mummeries." In the fifth year of Edward VI. at Christmas-time, a gentleman named George Ferrers, who was a lawyer, a poet, and an historian, was appointed by the council to bear this office; "and he," says Holinshed, "being of better calling than commonly his predecessors had been before, received all his commissions and warrauntes by the name of Maister of the Kinges Pastimes; which gentleman so well supplied his office, both of shew of sundry sights, and devises of rare invention, and in act of divers interludes, and matters of pastime, as not only satisfied the common sorte, but also were verie well liked and allowed by the council, and others of skill in lyke pastimes; but best by the young king himselfe, as appeared by his princely liberalitie in rewarding that service." It was certainly an act of much policy in the council to appoint so judicious and respectable an officer for the department at this time, and was done in order to counteract by shews and pastimes the discontent that prevailed, and divert the mind of the king from reflecting too deeply upon the condemnation of his uncle the duke of Somerset.

This master of merry disports was not confined to the court, nor to the houses of the opulent; he was also elected in various parishes, where, indeed, his reign seems to have been of shorter date. Stubbs, who lived at the close of the sixteenth century, places this whimsical personage, with his

followers, in a very degrading point of view. "First of all, the wilde heades of the parish, flocking together, chuse them a graunde captaine of mischiefe, whom they ennoble with the title of Lord of Misrule; and him they crowne with great solemnity, and adopt for their king. This king annoynted chooseth forth twentie, fourty, three-score, or an hundred, lustie guttes, like to himselfe, to waite upon his lordly majesty, and to guarde his noble person. Then every one of these men he investeth with his liveries of greene, yellow, or some other light wanton colour; and, as though they were not gawdy ynough, they bedecke themselves with scarffes, ribbons, and laces, hanged all over with gold ringes, pretious stones, and other jewels. This done, they tie aboute either legge twentie or fortie belles, with riche handkerchiefs in their handes, and sometimes laide acrosse over their sholders and neckes, borrowed, for the most part, of their pretie Mopsies and loving Bessies. Thus all things set in order, then have they their hobby-horses, their dragons, and other antiques, together with their baudie pipers, and thundring drummers, to strike up the devil's daunce with all. Then march this heathen company towards the church, their pypers piping, their drummers thundring, their stumps dauncing, their belles jynghing, their handkerchiefs fluttering aboute their heades like madde men, their hobbie-horses and other monsters skirmishing amongst the throng; and in this sorte they go to the church, though the minister be at prayer or preaching, dauncing and singing like devils incarnate, with such a confused noise that no man can heare his own voyce. Then the foolish people, they looke, they stare, they laugh, they fleere, and mount upon the formes and pewes to see these goodly pageants solemnized. Then after this, aboute the church they goe againe and againe, and so fourthe into the church-yard, where they have commonly their former-halls, their bowers, arbours, and banquetting-houfes, set up, wherein they feast, banquet, and daunce, all that day, and peradventure all that night too; and thus these tresstriall furies spend the sabbath-day. Then, for the further innobling of this honourable *lardane*, lord I should say, they have certaine papers wherein is painted some babelerie or other of imagerie worke, and these they call my Lord of Misrule's badges or cognizances. These they give to every one that will give them money to maintain them in this their heathenish devilerie; and who will not shew himselfe buxome [obedient] to them, and give them money, they shall be mocked and flouted shamefully; yea, and many times carried upon a cowlstaffe, and dived over heade and eares in water, or otherwise most horribly abused. And so besfotted are some, that they not only give them money, but weare their badges or cognizances in their hats or cappes openly. Another sorte of fantasticall foolles bring to these helhounds, the Lord of Misrule and his complices, some bread, some good ale, some new cheefe, some old cheefe, some custardes, some cracknels, some cakes, some flauns, some tartes, some creame, some meat, some one thing, and some another." *Anatomic of Abuses*, 1595.

The societies of the Temple and of Lincoln's Inn had anciently their Lord of Misrule, called King of Christmas, because he presided in the hall upon that day. This temporary potentate had a *marshal* and a *steward* to attend upon him. The marshal, in the absence of the monarch, was permitted to assume his state; and upon New-year's day he sat as *king* in the hall, when the *master of the revels*, during the time of dining, supplied the marshal's place. Upon Childermas-day they had another officer, denominated the King of the Cockneys, who also presided on the day of his appointment, and his inferior officers to wait upon him. See INNS OF COURT, vol. xi. p. 75, 81.

In Bloomfield's History of Norfolk mention is made of a pageant exhibited at Norwich upon a Shrove Tuesday, which happened in the month of March, "when one rode through the street, having his horse trapped with tynfoyle and other nyse disgyfynges, crowned as King of Christmas,



mas, in token that the season should end with the twelve moneths of the year; and afore hym went yche [each] moneth dysgyfyd as the season requiryd." *Hist. Norfolk*, vol. ii.

The dignified persons above mentioned were probably upon an equal footing with the King of the Bean, whose reign commenced upon the vigil of the Epiphany, or upon the day itself. We read, that, some time back, "it was a common Christmas gambol in both our universities," and continued, at the commencement of the 17th century, "to be usual in other places, to give the name of king or queen to that person whose extraordinary good luck it was to hit upon that part of a divided cake which was honoured above the others by having a bean in it." *Bourne's Antiq. Vulg.* chap. xvii. The reader will readily trace the vestige of this custom, though somewhat differently managed, and without the bean, in the present method of drawing, as it is called, for king and queen upon Twelfth-day.

Selden asserts, and apparently with great justice, that all these whimsical transpositions of dignity are derived from the ancient *Saturnalia*, or Feasts of Saturn, when the masters waited upon their servants, who were honoured with mock titles, and permitted to assume the state and deportment of their lords. These foolries were exceedingly popular, and continued to be practised long after the establishment of Christianity, in defiance of the threatenings and remonstrances of the clergy, who, finding it impossible to divert the stream of vulgar prejudice, permitted them to be exercised, but changed the primitive object of devotion; so that the same unhallowed orgies, which had disgraced the worship of a heathen deity, were dedicated, as it was called, to the service of the true God, and sanctioned by the appellation of a Christian institution. From this polluted stock branched out variety of unseemly and immoral sports; but none of them more daringly impious, and outrageous to common sense, than the *Festival of Fools*, in which the most sacred rites and ceremonies of the church were turned into ridicule, and the ecclesiastics themselves participated in the abominable profanations. The following outlines of this absurd diversion will no doubt be thought sufficient. In each of the cathedral churches there was a *Bishop* or an *Archbishop of Fools*, elected; and, in the churches immediately dependent upon the papal see, a *Pope of Fools*. These mock pontiffs had usually a proper suite of ecclesiastics who attended upon them, and assisted at the divine service, most of them attired in ridiculous dresses resembling pantomimical players and buffoons; they were accompanied by large crowds of the laity, some being disguised with masks of a monstrous fashion, and others having their faces smudged; in one instance to frighten the beholders, and in the other to excite their laughter; and some, again, assuming the habits of females, practised all the wanton airs of the loosest and most abandoned of the sex. During the divine service this motley crowd were not contented with singing of indecent songs in the choir, but some of them ate and drank, and played at dice, upon the altar, by the side of the priest who celebrated the mass. After the service they put filth into the censers, and ran about the church, leaping, dancing, laughing, singing, breaking obscene jests, and exposing themselves in the most unseemly attitudes with shameless impudence." Another part of these ridiculous ceremonies was, to shave the Precentor of Fools upon a stage, erected before the church, in the presence of the populace; and, during the operation, he amused them with lewd and vulgar discourses, accompanied by actions equally reprehensible. The bishop or the pope of fools performed the divine service habited in the pontifical garments, and gave his benediction to the people before they quitted the church. He was afterwards seated in an open carriage, and drawn about to the different parts of the town, attended by a large train of ecclesiastics and laymen promiscuously mingled together; and many of the most profligate of the latter assumed clerical

habits, in order to give their impious fooleries the greater effect; they had also with them carts filled with ordure, which they threw occasionally upon the populace assembled to see the procession. These spectacles were always exhibited at Christmas-time, or near to it, but not confined to one particular day; being sometimes on the feast of St. Stephen, St. John, the Innocents, the Circumcision, the Epiphany, &c. See *Encyclopedie Françoise*, under the article *Fete des Fous*.—Grotelque ceremonies, something similar to those above mentioned, certainly took place in England; but probably they were not carried to that extent of impiety, nor so grossly offensive to decency. We had a King of the Fools; but his office was suppressed at an early period, (1391.) and, we believe, not revived in the succeeding times.

The election and the investment of the *Boy-Bishop* was certainly derived from the Festival of Fools. In all the collegiate churches, at the feast of St. Nicholas, or of the Holy Innocents, and frequently at both, it was customary for one of the children of the choir, completely apparelled in the episcopal vestments, with a mitre and crozier, to bear the title and state of a bishop. He exacted a ceremonial obedience from his fellows, who, being dressed like priests, took possession of the church, and performed all the ceremonies and offices which might have been celebrated by a bishop and his prebendaries. Colet, dean of St. Paul's, though a wife and good man, countenanced this idle farce; and, in the statutes for his school at St. Paul's, expressly orders that the scholars "shall, every Childermas, that is, Innocents-day, come to Paule's church, and hear the *childe-bishop's* sermon, and after be at high masse, and each of them offer a penny to the childe-bishop; and with them the maisters and surveyors of the schole." Knight's *Life of Colet*, p. 362. and see the article LONDON, p. 214 of this volume. After having performed divine service, the bishop and his associates went about to different parts of the town, and visited the religious houses, collecting money: upon which Warton observes, "I take this opportunity of intimating, that the custom at Eton of going *ad montem*, originated from the ancient and popular practice of these theatrical processions in collegiate bodies." *History of English Poetry*, vol. iii. p. 390. These ceremonies and processions were formally abrogated by proclamation from the king and council, in the thirty-third year of Henry VIII. anno. 1542. The concluding clause of the ordinance runs thus: "Whereas heretofore dyvers and many superstitious and chylidish observances have been used, and yet to this day are observed and kept, in many and sundry places of this realm, upon St. Nicholas', St. Catharine's, St. Clement's, and Holy Innocents, and such-like holydaies; children be strangelic decked and apparayled as counterfeit priests, bishops, and women, and so ledde with songs and dances from house to house, blessing the people, and gathering of money; and boyes do singe masse, and preache in the pulpits, with such other unfitting and inconvenient usages, which tend rather to deryfyon than enie true glorie to God, or honor of his sayntes." This idle pageantry was revived by his daughter Mary; and in the second year of her reign an edict was issued from the bishop of London to all the clergy of his diocese, to have a boy-bishop in procession. The year following, 1555, "the child-bishop of Paule's church, with his company," were admitted into the queen's privy chamber, where he sang before her on Saint Nicholas-day and upon Holy Innocents day." Again the next year, says Strype, "on Saint Nicholas even, *Saint Nicholas*, that is, a boy habited like a bishop *in pontificalibus*, went abroad in most parts of London, singing after the old fashion; and was received by many ignorant but well-disposed people into their houses, and had as much good cheer as ever was wont to be had before." We may observe here, that most of the churches in which these mock ceremonies were performed, had dresses and ornaments proper for the occasion, and suited to the size of the wearers, but in every other respect resembling those appropriated to the



the real dignitaries of the church; hence it is we frequently meet with entries of diminutive habits and ornaments in the church inventories: as, *una mitra parva, cum petris, pro episcopo puerorum*; that is, "a small mitre, with jewels, for the bishop of the boys." Invent. York Cathedral. See also Dugdale's Hist. of St. Paul's, p. 205.—After the death of Mary, this silly mummery was totally discontinued. *Strutt's Sports and Pastimes*, b. iv. ch. 3.

LORD NORTH'S ISLAND, a small low and uninhabited island in the Pacific Ocean, so called in 1781. It has also been called *Nevil's Island*, and *Johnston's Island*. Lat. 3. 8. N. lon. 131. 12. E.

LORD'S SUPPER, commonly called the COMMUNION, one of the sacraments in the Christian church; in the protestant churches but one other rite is called a sacrament, which is baptism. The fourth council of Lateran decrees, that every believer shall receive the Lord's Supper, at least, at Easter; which seems to import a tacit desire that they should do it oftener, as in effect they did much oftener in the primitive days. Gratian, and the Master of the Sentences, prescribe it as a rule for the laity, to communicate three times a-year; at Easter, Whitsuntide, and Christmas. But in the thirteenth century, the practice was got on foot, never to approach the Lord's table except at Easter; and the council thought fit to enjoin it then by a law, lest the coldness and remissness should go farther still. The council of Trent renewed the same injunction, and recommended frequent communion, without enforcing it by an express decree. In the ninth century, the communion was still received by the laity in both kinds; or rather the species of bread was dipped in the wine, as is owned by the Romanists themselves. M. de Marca observes, that they received it at first in their hands; and believes the communion under one kind alone to have had its rise in the West under pope Urban, 1096, at the time of the conquest of the Holy Land; and it was more solemnly enjoined by the council of Constance in 1414. The twenty-eighth canon of the council of Clermont enjoins the communion to be received under both kinds, distinctly; adding, however, two exceptions; the one of necessity, the other of caution: the first in favour of the sick, the second of the abtemperious, or those who had an aversion for wine. It was formerly a kind of canonical punishment, for clerks guilty of any crime, to be reduced to *lay-communion*, i. e. only to receive as the laity did, viz. under one kind.

It is an important doctrine of the Romish church, that the words of the priest transubstantiate the bread and the wine into the body and blood of Christ. Hence, in that church, proceeds the custom of taking the sacred wafer in the kneeling posture, the posture of adoration: hence too, in the church of England, that embraces the doctrine of the divinity of Christ, the consecrated bread is received in the same posture of adoration, kneeling: whereas the Socinians, who believe that Christ is only a man, and a few other Christians, receive it sitting.

Some instances occur in the early ages of the church, of the practice of administering the eucharist to infants; and some few have imitated this practice in more modern times. Mr. Pierce pleads the use of it even to this day among the Greeks, and in the Bohemian churches, till near the time of the reformation; and he refers to the usage of the ancient churches, recorded by Photius, Augustine, and Cyprian. He urges from Scripture the right which children have to all the privileges of which they are capable, as well as the Jewish children under the law, who were allowed to eat of the passover, and other sacrifices; and he replies to the objection founded on the incapacity of infants to *examine themselves*, and *discern the Lord's body*, (1 Cor. xi. 28, 29.) by observing, that the precept extends only to those who were capable of understanding and complying with it; on the same ground that faith is required previous to baptism. So children were circumcised, who could not understand the reason of it, and the same also did eat the passover; and so did children bap-

tized, in the primitive church, communicate in the Lord's Supper. But it has been alleged, that the foundation of this practice was a mistaken apprehension of the absolute necessity of this ordinance in order to salvation, resulting from an erroneous interpretation of John vi. 53.

From the early accounts of this ceremony, it is unquestionable, that it received its origin from the last passover-supper which Christ ate with his disciples; at which time, agreeable to the custom of the Jews at their ordinary meals, (and continued to this day, every sabbath-night,) Christ took bread, and blessed it, or gave thanks, and afterwards gave thanks for the wine. At the passover-supper, it was usual for the master of the house to break the bread into morsels and to deliver it to the guests, in commemoration of the deliverance of the Jews out of Egypt, saying, "This is the bread of affliction, which your fathers did eat in Egypt." In allusion to this custom, Christ said, "This do in remembrance of me," speaking to persons (Jews) in the habit of practising such ceremonies; and, in order to preserve the distinction from *the body of the passover*, (for so the lamb was called,) he said, "Take eat, this is *my body*." In the new edition of Calmet's Dictionary of the Bible, Fragment CIX. we have the following passage: "It will be observed of this loaf [engraved in that work], that it is divided into *twelve* parts; I would not affirm, that the loaf used by our Lord at the eucharist was also divided into twelve parts; but, if it was, it shows how conveniently it might be distributed among his disciples; to each a part: and, *possibly*, may be thought to tend toward settling the question whether Judas partook of it? I conceive too, that such a divided loaf gives no improper comment on the passage, *We, being many, are one bread*—many partakers, each having his portion from the same loaf." 1 Cor. x. 17. Upon referring to the article EATING, in the same work, we find this paragraph. After describing certain Jewish ceremonies at table, the author says, "They take care, that after meals there shall be a piece of bread, remaining on the table; the master of the house orders a glass to be washed, fills it with wine, and, elevating it, says, *Let us bless him of whose benefits we have been partaking*: the rest answer, *Blessed be he, who has heaped favours on us, and by his goodness has now fed us*. Then he recites a pretty long prayer; all present answer *Amen!* They recite Psalm xxiv. 9, 10. *Fear the Lord, O ye his saints, &c.* Then, giving the glass with the little wine in it to be drunk round, he takes off what is left, and the table is cleared."

By way of exposing a principle when carried too far in practice, we shall insert the following quotation from "*Observations on a Journey to Naples, 1704.*" Does the custom still exist? Is it not analogous to what Bruce relates of Abyinia? Which is furthest removed from the original institution, the denial of the cup to the communicants, or the too frequent potations of its contents? "I will give you a relation here of what I have seen practised at Mentz in Germany, where I happened to be for two years together on Holy Thursday. This day, after morning service, and washing of feet, the archbishop, the great canons, and all the other priests that serve the cathedral, go in procession to a great hall, that is near the church, which they call the chapter-house, there to celebrate the supper. The seculars, that are of rank, also enter. Great benches are placed round the hall, where the company seat themselves; in the midst is a great table, covered with a table-cloth, upon which are placed large cups, with other vessels full of wine, and a vast quantity of great wafers, divided into pounds and half-pounds. The archbishop, arrayed in his pontifical habits, reads aloud the gospel, and blesses the bread and wine; having taken his part of the wafers, which is two or three pounds, because of his dignity, he goes and distributes to the rest, one pound to every grand canon, and half a pound to the rest. This they begin to eat. The archbishop in the mean time takes the cup, or rather it is held to him while he drinks; for it is so large, and so full of wine, that two of the canons can hardly support it. After he hath drunk, he sends it



round. They do not amuse themselves with taking a little, but drinking in good earnest the greatest draughts they can; and there are some of these German gentlemen who can drink a quart at a draught; so that the cup, big as it is, must soon be filled anew. The wine must be of the best Rhenish; and the officers of the cathedral have power to go and choose it that day, with great ceremony, in the elector's cellars. While the cup goes round, the musicians strike up their notes, and sing, what the papists call the *Improperia*. The company, at first, were modest and cautious; but, after the good wine began to display its virtue, they became foolish and riotous; the cup circulates five times. My host owned he had drank so many quarts of wine."

LORDA'NE, or LORDANT, *f.* [from *lord* and *Dane*.] A lazy lordly fellow. *Scott.*

LOR'DING, *f.* The act of domineering.

LOR'DING, *f.* A little lord; a lord in contempt or ridicule.—I'll question you of my lord's tricks, and yours, when you were boys. You were pretty *lordings* then. *Shakespeare's Winter's Tale.*

To *lordings* proud I tune my lay,

Who feast in bower or hall;

Though dukes they be, to dukes I say,

That pride will have a fall.

*Swift.*

A general appellation of people above the vulgar:

Then listen, *lordings*, if ye list to weat

The cause, why Satyrane and Paridell

Mote not be entertayn'd, as seemed meet,

Into that castle, (as that squire does tell.)

*Spenser.*

He call'd the worthies then, and spake them so:

*Lordings*, you know, I yielded to your will,

And gave you license with this dame to go,

To win her kingdom, and that tyrant kill.

*Fairfax.*

LOR'DLING, *f.* A diminutive lord:

Tralus, of amphibious breed,

By the dam from *lordlings* sprung,

By the fire exhal'd from dung.

*Swift.*

LOR'DLINESS, *f.* Dignity; high station:

Thou vouchsafest here to visit me,

Doing the honour of thy *lordliness*

To one so weak. *Shakespeare's Antony and Cleopatra.*

Pride; haughtiness.

LOR'DLY, *adj.* Befitting a lord.—*Lordly* sins require *lordly* estates to support them. *South*.—Proud; haughty; imperious; insolent:

Bad as yourself, my lord;

An't like your *lordly* lord protectorship! *Shakespeare.*

LOR'DLY, *adv.* Imperiously; despotically; proudly:

So when a tiger sucks the bullock's blood,

A famish'd lion, issuing from the wood,

Roars *lordly* fierce, and challenges the food.

*Dryden.*

LORDO'SIS, *f.* [*λοεδος*, Gr. bent inwards.] A distempered state of the spine, in which it is bent inwards, or towards the anterior parts. It is used in opposition to *gibbous*, or *hump-backed*.

LOR'DSHIP, *f.* Dominion; power.—Let me never know that any base affection should get any *lordship* in your thoughts. *Sidney*.—They which are accounted to rule over the Gentiles exercise *lordship* over them, and their great ones exercise authority upon them. *Mark* x. 42.

—Seignior; domain.—How can those grants of the kings be avoided, without wronging of those lords which had those lands and *lordships* given them? *Spenser on Ireland.*

What lands and *lordships* for their owner know

My quondam barber, but his worship now.

*Dryden.*

Title of honour used to a nobleman not a duke.—I could not answer it to the world, if I gave not your *lordship* my testimony of being the best husband now living. *Dryden.*

I assure your *lordship*,

The extreme horror of it almost turned me

To air, when first I heard it.

*Ben Jonson.*

Titular compellation of judges, and some other persons in authority and office.

LORE, a town of the principality of Georgia, in the province of Carduel: sixty miles south-south-west of Teflis, and sixty-five north-east of Erivan.

LORE, *f.* [from *lapan*, Sax. to learn.] Lesson; doctrine; instruction.—The law of nations, or the *lore* of war. *Fairfax.*

And, for the modest *lore* of maidenhood

Bids me not sojourn with these armed men,

Oh, whither shall I fly?

*Fairfax.*

The subtle fiend his *lore*

Soon learn'd, now milder, and thus answer'd smooth. *Milton.*

Lo! Rome herself, proud mistress now no more

Of arts, but thund'ring against heathen *lore*.

*Pope.*

Workmanship:

In her right hand a rod of peace she bore,

About the which two serpents were wound,

Entrayled mutually in lovely *lore*.

*Spenser.*

In ornithology, a naked line between the base of the bill and the eye in birds.

To LORE, *v. a.* To leave.—Neither of them she found where she them *lore*. *Spenser.*

LORE'DO, or LOREO, a town of Italy, near a canal of the Adige; anciently called *Lauretum Venetum*. It is the principal place of a district, and contains about 2300 inhabitants: twenty miles south of Venice.

LOR'EL, *f.* [from *leolan*, Sax.] An abandoned scoundrel. *Obsolete*:

Siker thou speakest like a lewd *lorell*

Of heaven to deemen so:

How be I am but rude and borrell,

Yet nearer ways I know.

*Spenser's Pastorals.*

LO'REMBERG, a town of the county of Goritz: seven miles east of Goritz.

LOREN'TE (Andres), a Spanish writer on music, and author of a book, now become very scarce, intitled *El Porque del la Musica*, in which are contained the four arts of plain-song, figurative music, or proportion of time or measure, plain counterpoint, and composition. Printed at Alcalá in 4to. 1672. This treatise defines and explains the whole art of music, as far as it was known at the time it was written.

LORENZA'GO, a town of Italy, in the Cadurin: seven miles north-east of Cadora.

LORENZINI (Francis-Maria), an eminent Italian poet, was born at Rome of a respectable family in 1680. He was educated among the Jesuits; and, although his inclination led him to the studies of polite literature, yet, a profession being necessary to his maintenance, he engaged in that of the law, which he practised with success. At length, however, he devoted himself solely to letters; and, in 1705, he entered into the Academy of the Arcadi, the chief object of which was the reformation of the bad taste which had infected Italian poetry. See vol. i. p. 46. The founders of this society proposed the simple and natural style of Petrarch as a model, in opposition to the affected and constrained diction of Marino and others. Lorenzini, though sensible of the merit of Petrarch, yet feared that the imitation of him alone would bring back the languor of the poets of the sixteenth century; and therefore borrowed for his own practice some of the force and freedom of Dante, and thus formed a manner which gave him a high reputation. He also exercised himself in Latin poetry, particularly in what were termed *Melodrames*, or pieces on religious subjects, adapted for being sung. Of these he published several, which obtained the praise of elegance, the only praise which he sought from them.

Cardinal



Cardinal Alexander Falconeri, prefect of Rome, gave him a place in his household. He had now leisure and spirits sufficient to indulge his poetical genius, and no day passed in which he did not write verses. In these he displayed an enthusiasm of conception, and elevation of language, which distinguished him among his contemporaries. They are particularly conspicuous in his pieces entitled *Capitoli*, in which he gives a free course to his ardour. He has been called the Michael Angelo of Italian poets, on account of the boldness and energy of his expressions. To excite wonder and admiration he regarded as the peculiar office of poetry, whence he was an assiduous reader of the Hebrew prophets, which never failed to inspire him with rapture. Among his tastes was a great love for anatomical researches, in which he was the associate of Cajetano Petriolo, an eminent surgeon in Rome. They conjointly made several new observations, which they meant to publish, but were anticipated by one Chermesius de Fulget, who procured them by bribing the bookseller, and added them to his Commentary on the Anatomical Tables of Eustachius. With this theft, at least, he was charged by Lorenzini, in a dialogue entitled *Il Cardo*, which was the beginning of a virulent controversy between them.

After the death of Crescembini in 1728, our poet was chosen his successor, as president or custos of the Academy of Arcadi, but not without much opposition from a party. He distinguished his presidentship by several remarkable acts. He founded five academical colonies in the neighbouring towns; and instituted a private weekly meeting of the Arcadi, at which plays of Plautus or Terence, in the original language, were performed by youths trained for the purpose. Some dialogues of Cicero, and the contest between Ajax and Ulysses from Ovid, were also dramatically recited on these occasions. These exhibitions were frequented by several persons of rank, and were favoured by pope Clement XII. who often sent considerable sums to Lorenzini to defray his expenses. After the death of cardinal Falconeri, he had fallen into necessitous circumstances, from which he was relieved by cardinal Borghese, who entered him among his noble domestics, and paid him a salary without requiring any service. He continued his theatrical exhibitions till after the death of Clement, when, in 1741, he quitted all occupations of that kind, and retired to apartments in the Borghese palace, where he applied to letters with more assiduity than ever. He wrote both Italian and Latin verses; and in the latter composed some pieces in imitation of the concise and keen style of Persius, but without his obscurity. But his studies were especially directed to the sacred writings, and he paraphrased the book of Job, and the songs of the prophets, in Italian verse. In the midst of these employments he was seized with a lingering disorder, of which he died in June 1743.

Lorenzini had a commanding person, but was negligent in his appearance. He was fond of convivial society, and jocular; but suspicious, prone to anger, somewhat turbulent and intriguing. To his friends he was singularly faithful and liberal; and his house was always open to young men who were desirous of improvement. He was a weighty and persuasive speaker, and often expressed himself with great animation. His Italian poems are few in number, but of great excellence. His *Rime* have been printed at various places. His *Melodrames* were printed at Rome separately as they appeared. He also published the lives of two of the Falconeri family, and some other pieces. *Fabroni Vit. Italor.*

LOREN'ZO, a small island in the Pacific Ocean, near the coast of Peru. Lat. 12. 4. S.

LOREN'ZO, a town of Istria, and capital of a district: nine miles north-north-east of Rovigno. Lat. 45. 16. N. lon. 13. 52. E.

LOREN'ZO, a town of South America, in Brasil, and government of Pernambuco.—A town of Naples, in Basilicata: nine miles north-east of Venosa.—A town of Naples, in Capitanata: three miles south-east of Lefina.—

A town of Naples, in Calabria Ultra: eight miles west of Bova.—A town of Campagna di Roma, near the sea-coast: eight miles east-south-east of Ostia.—A town of Paraguay: 270 miles south-east of Assumption.—A river of Sicily, which runs into the sea, on the west coast, in lat. 38. N. lon. 12. 40. E.—A town of Mexico, in the province of New Biscay: eighty-five miles north-west of Parral.—A town of Italy, in the Polesine di Rovigo: two miles south-west of Rovigo.

LOREN'ZO (Cape), a cape on the coast of Peru, in the province of Quito, west of the city of that name. Lat. 6. 20. S. lon. 80. 20. W.

LOREN'ZO DE BORUCAS, a town of Mexico, in the province of Costa Rica: sixty-five miles south of Carthago. Lat. 9. 15. N. lon. 84. 6. W.

LOREN'ZO DE PECURIES, a town of New Mexico, on the Bravo: forty-five miles north of Santa Fé.

LOREN'ZO EL REAL, a town of Spain, in Old Castile: twenty-six miles south of Segovia.

LOREN'ZO, in biography. See MEDICI, vol. xiv.

LORE'O. See LOREDO.

LORET'TO, a town of the Popedom, in the marquise of Ancona; situated on a hill, about half a league from the Adriatic. It is small, but fortified, yet not of strength sufficient to stand a siege. It is the see of a bishop, under the pope. The consequence of the place arises from the *Santa Casa*, or Holy House, so much visited by pilgrims. This chapel, according to the legend, was originally a small house in Nazareth, inhabited by the Virgin Mary, in which she was saluted by the angel, and where she bred our Saviour. After their deaths, it was held in great veneration by all believers in Jesus; and at length consecrated into a chapel, and dedicated to the Virgin; upon which occasion St. Luke made that identical image, which is still preserved here, and dignified with the name of our Lady of Loretto. This sanctified edifice was allowed to sojourn in Galilee as long as that district was inhabited by Christians; but, when infidels got possession of the country, a band of angels, to save it from pollution, took it in their arms, and conveyed it from Nazareth to a castle in Dalmatia. This fact might have been called in question by incredulous people, had it been performed in a secret manner; but, that it might be manifest to the most short-sighted spectator, and evident to all who were not perfectly deaf as well as blind, a blaze of celestial light, and a concert of divine music, accompanied it during the whole journey; besides, when the angels, to rest themselves, set it down in a little wood near the road, all the trees of the forest bowed their heads to the ground, and continued in that respectful posture as long as the sacred chapel remained among them. But, not having been entertained with suitable respect at the castle above mentioned, the same indefatigable angels carried it over the sea, and placed it in a field belonging to a noble lady called *Lauretta*, from whom the chapel takes its name. This field happened unfortunately to be frequented at that time by highwaymen and murderers; a circumstance with which the angels undoubtedly were not acquainted when they placed it there. After they were better informed, they removed it to the top of a hill belonging to two brothers, where they imagined it would be perfectly secure from the dangers of robbery or assassination; but the two brothers, the proprietors of the ground, being equally enamoured of their new visitor, became jealous of each other, quarrelled, fought, and fell by mutual wounds. After this fatal catastrophe, the angels in waiting finally moved the holy chapel to the eminence where it now stands, and has stood these 400 years, having lost all relish for travelling.

Mr. Eustace treats the subject with great liberality and good sense. In truth, no protestant can make lighter of the legendary tale than he does. At a period when so much is said of the superstition and intolerance of the catholics, we are glad to have such an opposite testimony as the following passage on this subject affords. "Every reader



der is acquainted with the legendary history of the Santissima Casa, or most holy house; that it was the very house which the Virgin Mother, with the Infant Saviour and St. Joseph, inhabited at Nazareth; that it was transported by angels from Palestine, when that country was totally abandoned to the infidels; and placed, first in Dalmatia, and afterwards on the opposite shore in Italy, close to the sea-side, whence, in consequence of a quarrel between two brothers, the proprietors of the ground, it was removed, and finally fixed on its present site. This wonderful event is said to have taken place in the year 1294, and is attested by the *ocular* evidence of some Dalmatian peasants, the testimony of the two quarrelsome brothers, and, I believe, the declaration of a good old lady of the name of Lauretta. Some had seen it in Dalmatia, others beheld it hovering in the air, and many had found it in the morning on a spot which they knew to have been vacant the evening before. Such is, at least in general, the account given at Loretto, circulated all over Italy, piously admitted by many holy persons, and not a little encouraged by the popes. I need not say, however, that many men of reflection in Italy, and indeed within the precincts of Loretto itself, consider this wonderful story as an idle tale, or, at best, a pious dream, conceived by a heated imagination, and circulated among an ignorant race of peasants and fishermen. They suppose the holy house to have been a cottage or building long buried in a pathless forest, and unnoticed in a country turned almost into a desert by a succession of civil wars, invasions, and revolutions, during the space of ten or twelve centuries. A dream, an accidental coincidence of circumstances, might have led one or more persons to the discovery of this long-forgotten edifice; and such an incident, working on minds heated by solitude and enthusiasm, might easily have produced the conviction, and propagated the belief, of the wonderful tale. But, be the origin of the holy house what it may, the effect of artifice or of credulity, it gradually attracted the attention, first of the country round, then of Italy at large, and at length of the whole Christian world. The miracle was every-where heard with joy and admiration, and every-where welcomed with implicit unsuspecting faith. Princes and prelates, rich and poor, hastened with pious alacrity to venerate the terrestrial abode of the incarnate Word, and implore the present aid and influence of his Virgin Mother. Gifts and votive offerings accumulated; a magnificent church was erected; gold, silver, and diamonds, blazed round every altar, and heaps of treasures loaded the shelves of the sacrists; various edifices rose around the new temple, and Loretto became, as it still remains, a large and populous city." Tour in Italy, 1813.

The sacred chapel stands due east and west, at the farther end of a large church of the most durable stone of Istria, which has been built around it. This may be considered as the external covering, or as a kind of great-coat to the Casa Santa, which has a smaller coat of more precious materials and workmanship nearer its body. This internal covering or case is of the choicest marble, after a plan of San Savino's, and ornamented with basso relievos, the workmanship of the best sculptors which Italy could furnish in the reign of Leo X. The subject of these basso relievos are the history of the Blessed Virgin, and other parts of the Bible. The whole case is about 50 feet long, 30 in breadth, and the same in height; but the real house itself is no more than 32 feet in length, 14 in breadth, and at the sides about 18 feet in height; the centre of the roof is four or five feet higher. The walls of this little holy chapel are composed of pieces of a reddish substance, of an oblong square shape, laid one upon another, in the manner of brick. At first sight, on a superficial view, these red-coloured oblong substances appear to be nothing else than common Italian bricks; and, which is still more extraordinary, on a second and third view, with all possible attention, they still have the same appearance. Travellers, however, are assured with great earnestness, that

there is not a single particle of brick in their whole composition, being entirely of a stone, which, though it cannot now be found in Palestine, was formerly very common, particularly in the neighbourhood of Nazareth. The holy house is divided within into two unequal portions, by a kind of grate-work of silver. The division towards the west is about three-fourths of the whole; that to the east is called the *Sanctuary*. In the larger division, which may be considered as the main body of the house, the walls are left bare, to show the true original fabric of Nazareth stone; for, once more, they must not be supposed to be bricks. At the lower or western wall there is a window, the same through which the angel Gabriel entered at the Annunciation. The architraves of this window are covered with silver. There are a great number of golden and silver lamps in this chapel: one of the former, a present from the republic of Venice, is said to weigh 37 pounds, and some of the silver lamps weigh from 120 to 130 pounds. At the upper end of the largest room is an altar; but so low, that from it you may see the famous image, which stands over the chimney in the small room or sanctuary. Golden and silver angels, of considerable size, kneel around her, some offering hearts of gold enriched with diamonds, and one an infant of pure gold. The wall of the sanctuary is plated with silver, and adorned with crucifixes, precious stones, and votive gifts of various kinds. The figure of the Virgin herself by no means corresponds with the fine furniture of her house. She is a little woman, about four feet in height, with the features and complexion of a negro. Of all the sculptors that ever existed, assuredly St. Luke, by whom this figure is said to have been made, is the least of a flatterer; and nothing can be a stronger proof of the Blessed Virgin's contempt for external beauty than her being satisfied with this representation of her. The figure of the infant Jesus, by St. Luke, is of a piece with that of the Virgin; he holds a large golden globe in one hand, and the other is extended in the act of blessing. Both figures have crowns on their heads, enriched with diamonds, these were presents from Anne of Austria, queen of France. Both arms of the Virgin are enclosed within her robes, and no part but her face is to be seen; her dress is most magnificent, but in a wretched bad taste; this is not surprising, for she has no female attendant. She has particular clothes for the different feasts held in honour of her; and, which is not quite so decent, is always dressed and undressed by the priests belonging to the chapel; her robes are ornamented with all kinds of precious stones down to the hem of her garment. The niche in which the image stands is adorned with seventy-one large Bohemian topazes; and on the right side of the image is an angel of cast gold, profusely enriched with diamonds and other gems, which is said to have cost 50,000 ducats, and which was offered by Maria Beatrix Eleonora, of the house of Este, queen of king James II. of England, that, by the intercession of the Virgin Mary, she might conceive a son. Accordingly, soon after, as it is said, she had a son; who has since occasioned so much noise in Europe, under the name of the Pretender. On the left side of the Virgin's image is a silver angel; and on the right hand another costly one; which was the gift of Louis XIII. king of France, for the birth of the dauphin, afterwards Louis XIV. The robe which this famous image wore, when it was brought from Dalmatia into Italy, is of red camlet, and kept in a glass shrine. The dish out of which she and her divine infant are said to have eaten is a shallow bowl, of glazed earthen-ware, plated over with silver. This utensil is not only kissed, but rosaries, medals, agnus dei's, crucifixes, and paper caps painted with the image of the Madonna of Loretto, are rubbed against it, from a firm persuasion that they thus become an infallible remedy against the head-ache, and other diseases. *Keyser's Travels*, vol. iii.

In the year 1797, the French republicans plundered the chapel, and carried off the image of the Virgin, which however they restored to the pope in 1802, and we are told

that



that it still remains at Rome, whilst the throne at Loretto is usurped by another; and the contending partisans have not yet been able to settle which of them is genuine. Soon after the virgin was carried away from Loretto by the sacrilegious French ravishers, a holy monk of that town introduced another into the chapel, asserting that, having been forewarned of her danger in a vision, he had concealed the genuine miraculous statue, and delivered a substitute into the hands of the enemy. The question has been vehemently agitated, whether the story of the French or of the monk be deserving of credit.

In these enlightened days of returning darkness and superstition, when the Inquisition is suddenly revived and the Jesuits happily restored—when the discovery of two teeth and a piece of the chin of Henry IV. of France has given so much comfort to all true believers—we may expect that the Santa Casa will be raised to a pitch of glory equal to what it was in its most flourishing days; for it is to be observed, that the jewels and riches to be seen at any one time in the holy chapel were of small value in comparison of those in the treasury, which is a large room adjoining to the vestry of the great church. In the presses of this room were kept those presents which royal, noble, and rich, bigots of all ranks, had, by oppressing their subjects and injuring their families, sent to this place. To enumerate every particular would fill volumes. They consisted of various utensils and other things in silver and gold; as lamps, candlesticks, goblets, crowns, and crucifixes; lambs, eagles, saints, apottles, angels, virgins, and infants; then there were cameos, pearls, gems, and precious stones of all kinds, and in great numbers. What was valued above all the other jewels was the miraculous pearl, wherein they assert that nature has given a faithful delineation of the Virgin sitting on a cloud with the infant Jesus in her arms. There was not room in the presses of the treasury to hold all the silver pieces which had been presented to the Virgin. Several other presses in the vestry were completely full.

Pilgrimages to Loretto had become less frequent with foreigners, or with Italians of fortune and distinction; but we may expect they will now revive. Nineteen out of twenty of those who make this journey are poor people, who depend for their maintenance on the charity they receive on the road. To those who are in such a rank in life as precludes them from availing themselves of the charitable institutions for the maintenance of pilgrims, such journeys are attended with expense and inconvenience; and fathers and husbands, in moderate or confined circumstances, are frequently brought to disagreeable dilemmas, by the rash vows of going to Loretto which their wives or daughters are apt to make on any supposed deliverance from danger. To refuse, is considered by the whole neighbourhood as cruel, and even impious; and to grant, is often highly distressing, particularly to such husbands as, from affection or other motives, do not choose that their wives should be long out of their sight. But the poor, who are maintained during their whole journey, and have nothing more than a bare maintenance to expect from their labour at home, to them a journey to Loretto is a party of pleasure, as well as devotion, and by much the most agreeable road they can take to heaven. The greatest concourse of people is at Easter and Whitsuntide. The rich travel in their carriages; a greater number come on horseback or on mules; or, what is still more common, on asses. Great numbers of females come in this manner, with a male friend walking by them as their guide and protector; but the greatest number of both sexes are on foot. The pilgrims on foot, as soon as they enter the suburbs, begin a hymn in honour of the Virgin, which they continue till they reach the church. The poorer sort are received into an hospital, where they have bed and board for three days.

The only trade of Loretto consists of rosaries, crucifixes, little madonnas, agnus dei's, and medals, which are manufactured here, and sold to pilgrims. There are great

numbers of shops full of these commodities, some of them of a high price; but infinitely the greater part are adapted to the purses of the buyers, and sold for a mere trifle. In the great church, which contains the holy chapel, are confessionals, where the penitents from every country of Europe may be confessed in their own language, priests being always in waiting for that purpose: each of them has a long white rod in his hand, with which he touches the heads of those to whom he thinks it proper to give absolution. They place themselves on their knees in groups around the confessional chair; and, when the holy father has touched their heads with the expiatory rod, they retire, freed from the burden of their sins, and with renewed courage to begin a fresh account.

In the spacious area before this church there is an elegant marble fountain, supplied with water from an adjoining hill by an aqueduct. Few even of the most inconsiderable towns of Italy are without the useful ornament of a public fountain. The embellishments of sculpture and architecture are employed with great propriety on such works, which are continually in the people's view; the air is refreshed, and the eye delighted, by the streams of water they pour forth; a sight peculiarly agreeable in a warm climate. In this area there is also a statue of Sixtus V. in bronze. Over the portal of the church itself is a statue of the Virgin; and above the middle gate is a Latin inscription, importing that within "is the house of the mother of God, in which the Word was made flesh." The gates of the church are likewise of bronze, embellished with baso-relievs of admirable workmanship; the subjects taken partly from the Old and partly from the New Testament, and divided into different compartments. As the gates of this church are shut at noon, the pilgrims who arrive after that time can get no nearer the Santa Casa than these gates, which are by this means sometimes exposed to the first violence of that holy ardour which was designed for the chapel itself. All the sculpture upon the gates which is within reach of the mouths of those zealots, is in some degree effaced by their kisses. There are also several paintings to be seen here, some of which are highly esteemed, particularly two in the treasury. The subject of one of these is the Virgin's Nativity, by Annibal Caracci; and of the other, a Holy Family, by Raphael. There are some others of considerable merit which ornament the altars of the great church. These altars, or little chapels, of which this fabric contains a great number, are lined with marble and embellished by sculpture; but nothing with this church interests a traveller of sensibility so much as the iron grates before those chapels, which were made of the fetters and chains of the Christian slaves, who were freed from bondage by the glorious victory of Lepanto.

The palace where the governor resides stands near the church; and the ecclesiastics who are employed in it lodge in the same palace, where they receive the pilgrims of high distinction. The environs of this town are very agreeable, and in fine weather the high mountains of Croatia may be seen from hence. Loretto is seated on a mountain, in lat. 43. 24. N. lon. 13. 50. E.

LORETTO, a town of the island of Corsica: seven miles north-east of Porta.

LORETTO, a river of Naples, in Calabria Citra, which runs into the Trionto.

LORETTO, or NOTRE DAME DE LORETTO, a town of North America, in California. Lat. 25. 30. N. lon. 113. W.

LORETTO, a town of New Mexico, in the province of Mayo: 105 miles east-north-east of Santa Cruz.

LORETTO, a town of Canada, eight miles north-west of Quebec.

LORETTO, a town of South America, in the province of Buenos: 200 mile east of Corientes.

LORETTO, a town of South America, in the government of Mojos, on the Marmora: fifty miles south of Trinidad.



LORETTO (Order of). See the article KNIGHTHOOD, vol. xi. p. 816.

LORETZ, a river of Swisserland, which forms a communication between lake Zug and the river Reufs.

LOR'GUES, a town of France, in the department of the Var: six miles south-west of Draguinan, and fifteen west of Frejus.

LOR'ICA, *f.* A cuirass, brigantine, or coat of mail, in use among the Roman soldiers. It was generally made of leather; and is supposed to be derived from *lorum*, Lat. a thong. The loricae were set with plates of metal in various forms; sometimes in hooks or rings like a chain, sometimes like feathers, and sometimes like the scales of serpents or fishes, to which plates of gold were often added. There were other lighter cuirasses, consisting only of many folds of linen cloth, or of flax made strong enough to resist weapons. Such soldiers as were rated under 1000 drams, instead of the lorica now described, wore a *pectorale* only.

LORICARIA, *f.* the CUIRASSIER; in ichthyology, a genus of fishes of the order abdominales. Generic characters—Head depressed, mouth opening underneath, lips retractile. The upper surface of the head is covered with a large bone. The body is short; the tail long. The pectoral fins are on the edge of the under surface, and close to the aperture of the gills; the first ray is long and strong, and fastened to the clavicle by a joint, as in the silures. There is no corselet on the belly. The mouth opens crosswise; the jaws are cartilaginous, and have a broad outer membrane to cover them. These, in the offensive tribe, may be called the representatives of the sturgeons among the cartilaginous, being similarly armed: Linnæus gives six rays in the branchial membrane for the generic character, Gronovius three; but the fact is, that membrane contains four rays. Part of the Linnæan character also is "the mouth without teeth," which is not correct.—There are but two species, with their varieties, properly belonging to the genus. Bloch has made them three, by adopting a variety as a species, not perhaps without reason. Dr. Shaw, by doing the same, and by removing some of the Silures into this genus, has described seven. We have confined ourselves to the two original species, with the addition only of an individual from Ceppe, which seems to belong to this genus.

1. *Loricaria cataphracta*, the cataphracted cuirassier. Specific character, one dorsal fin, cirri two. There are four rays in the membrane of the gills,  $\frac{3}{4}$  in the pectoral fins,  $\frac{1}{2}$  in the ventrals and anal,  $\frac{1}{2}$  in the tail, and  $\frac{1}{2}$  in the dorsal. The head is rounded in front, hard, rough, and arched at top; underneath smooth, broad, flat, and shaped like a horse's hoof. A broad membrane surrounds the mouth, which terminates on each side in a short barble. In the palate is a loose bristly membrane; there are two bones above in the throat, and one below, like a file. The nostrils are single; the eyes, which are near them, have a black pupil in a yellowish-green iris. The gill-cover is very small; and the aperture, which is small, is at the edge of the bony covering; the membrane is at liberty, with flexible rays. The first ray of the pectoral fin is broad, long, and serrated on both sides; the first of the ventral is serrated also; but all the rays are rough. The belly is broad, and covered with rough plates joining to each other, but not knit one into the other like those on the body. The front of the body is broad and square; and the corselets are lozenge-shaped; behind the ventral fin the body grows narrower, and the sides carinated. The tail is covered with connected rings to the number of eighteen. The anus is much nearer to the head than to the tail-fin, there is no appearance of a lateral line; the fins have ramified rays, that of the tail is bifurcated, its upper ray like a bristle, but brittle, and longer than the rest. The colour of this fish is a brownish yellow, irregularly marked with dark-brown spots; there is a large dark-coloured spot on the tail-fin. This is shown on the annexed Engraving, at fig. 1.

The variety  $\beta$ , which has the outer and upper ray of the

tail-fin as long as the whole body, is considered by Bloch as a distinct species; but the characters of the species and the variety have been greatly confounded. Gronovius states the *variety*, which has the long ray in the tail-fin, to be toothless, while Bloch describes the mouth furnished with teeth. It will be sufficient to point out wherein it differs, which is chiefly in the head. 1. The head is narrower, and ends in a blunt snout, but not rounded; so that this forms a triangle, whereas the other was like a horse-shoe. 2. This has a quantity of barbules at the mouth, and the mouth is larger, and furnished with bristly teeth. 3. This not spotted, and the long ray of the tail-fin is sometimes as long as the whole-body. 4. The belly is smooth, and covered with scales, not rough armour. It would be necessary to be on the spot where the fish are caught to determine with certainty whether these differences arise from age or sex, or whether they be really two distinct species. From the representation given by Ceppe, (see fig. 2.) they certainly appear very distinct.

2. *Loricaria plecostomus*, the guacari, or yellow cuirassier. Specific character, two fins on the back. The membrane of the gills has four rays, the pectoral fins seven, ventrals six, the anal five, the tail sixteen, the first dorsal eight, the second one only. The head is flat, bony at top, rough, and sloping; underneath it is broad, soft, smooth, and straight. The aperture of the mouth is small, opening transversely; the teeth are like bristles; the lips are thin and broad; the lower one is warty, and has a barble on each side; the palate and tongue are smooth. The nostrils are single, and nearer the eyes than the muzzle; the pupil of the eye is black, the iris white and green. The corselets, or bony armour, are rough, with a sharp spine in the middle of each piece; each side is covered longitudinally with four rows of these pieces; the middle rows are larger than those near the back and belly. The anus is in the middle of the body; the lateral line is not perceptible. The fins are long, with rough four-branched rays; the first ray of the dorsal and pectorals is stiff, strong, serrated, and furnished with a joint or hinge; the first ray of the ventrals is a stiff ray also. The outer rays of the tail-fin are long, and the two ends of the fork are seldom equal. Orange is the prevailing colour in this fish, growing lighter towards the belly, which is whitish; the fins are of the same colour with the body, except the membranous part of the dorsal, which is blackish. There are brown spots all over the body and fins; those caught in St. François river have the brown spots intermingled with black ones; and these are more fleshy and better food than such as are found in other parts of South America, which is their natural abode. When the shell is taken off, they may be eaten either boiled or fried. The intestinal canal is very long; Margrave found it to be eight feet in length in a fish of fifteen inches. See fig. 3.

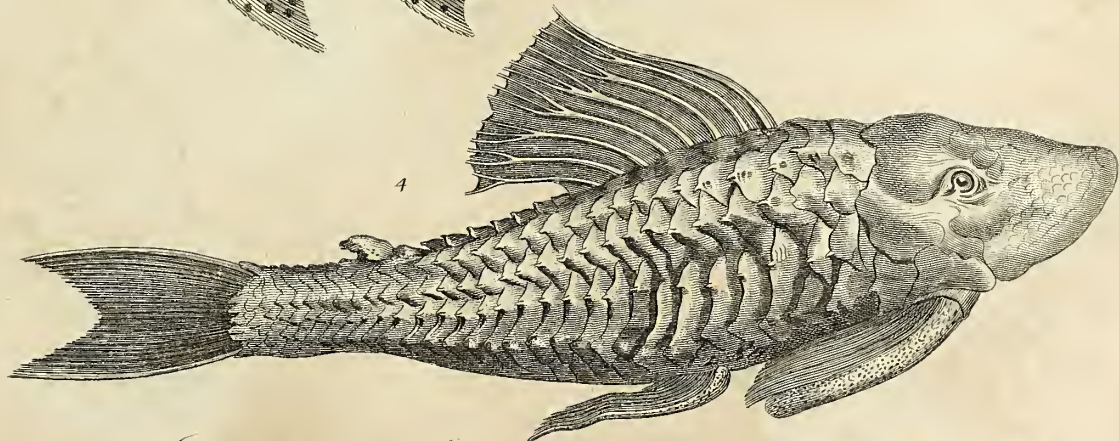
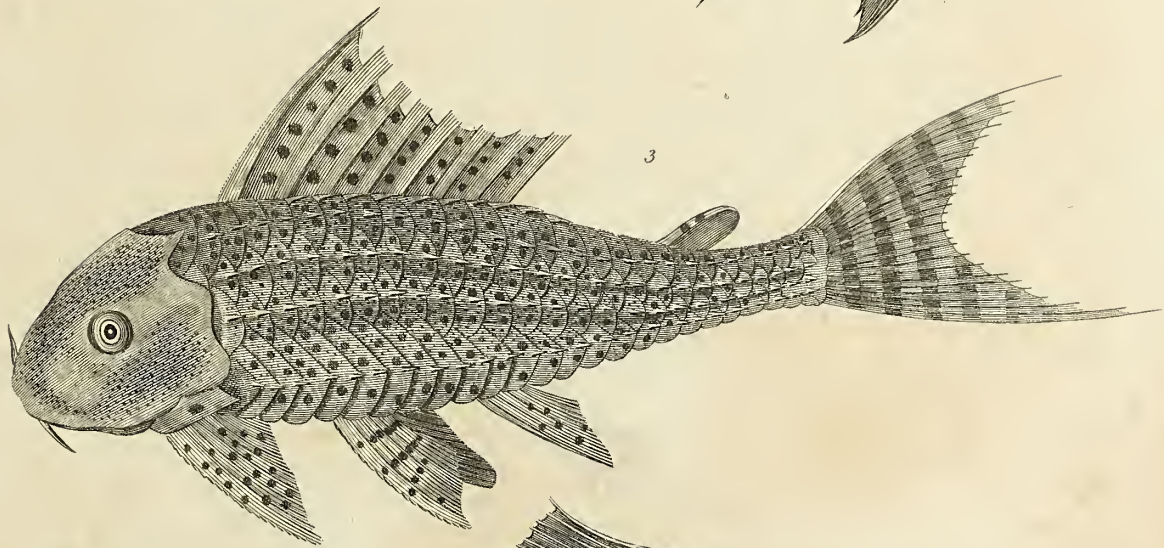
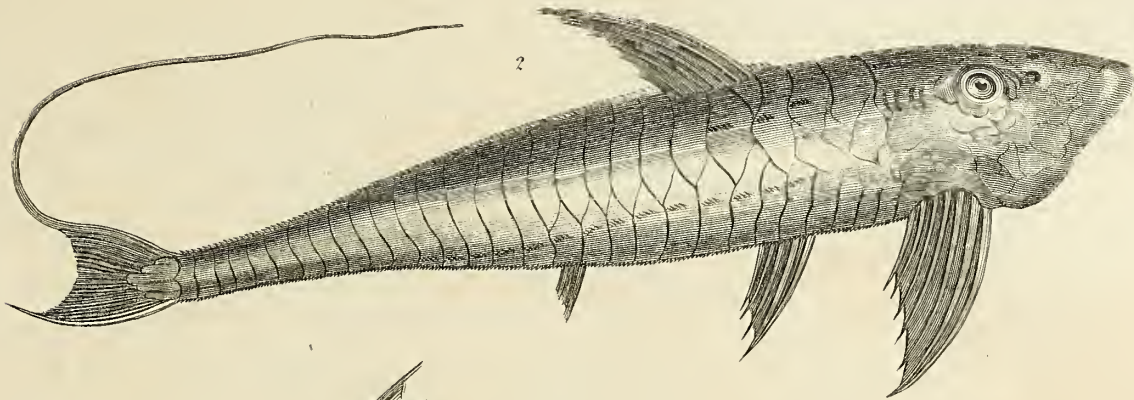
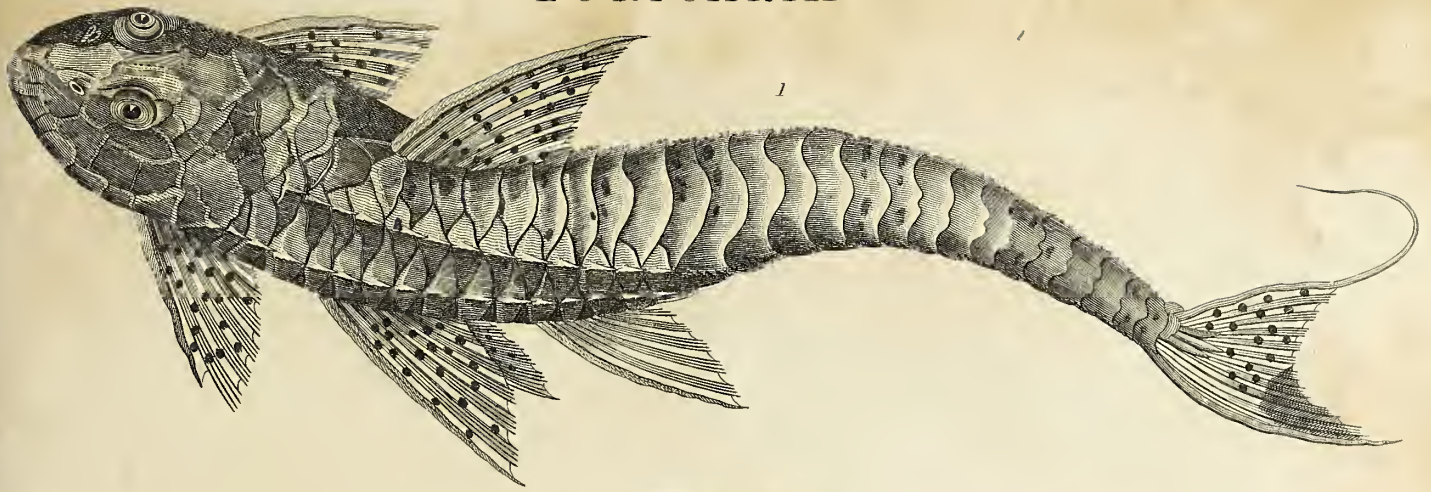
As Ceppe makes a single dorsal fin part of the generic character of the *Loricaria*, he places this in a separate genus, and calls it *Hypostomus guacari*; and he has given a variety of it, which we have copied at fig. 4.

3. *Loricaria corydoras*, the helmeted cuirassier. Specific character, head covered with broad hard plates, mouth at the extremity; two dorsal fins, cirri none. In the first dorsal fin  $\frac{2}{3}$  rays, two in the second, eleven in the pectorals, six in the ventrals, seven in the anal, and fourteen in the tail. This is from the Dutch collection at Paris. It departs from the generic character, in having the mouth at the end of the snout, not underneath, and therefore Ceppe makes it a distinct genus, *Corydoras*; from *corys*, which in Greek signifies a helmet, and *doras*, a cuirass. The pieces of armour are disposed in two rows; they are very broad, and of an hexagonal form. The two rays of the second dorsal fin are separated by a long membrane; the first ray of each pectoral is beset with very small prickles; the second ray of the first dorsal is serrated on one side; the first ray is not serrated, and is very short, but stiff. The nostrils are double. A large lamina lies over each pectoral fin.

To LOR'ICATE, *v. a.* To plate over.—Nature hath  
*loricated.*



LORICARIA



1 - The Cataphracted Cuirassier.      2 - Variety of the same.  
3 - The Yellow Cuirassier.              4 - Variety of the same.







*loricated*, or plastered over, the sides of the tympanum in animals with ear-wax, to stop and entangle any insects that should attempt to creep in there. *Ray*.

**LORICATING**, *f.* The act of plating over; of defending with a coat of mail.

**LORICATION**, or **LORIFICATION**, *f.* in chemistry, is the covering of a glass or earthen vessel with a coat or crust of a matter able to resist the fire, to prevent its breaking in the performing of an operation that requires great violence of heat. When vessels are exposed to a fire too strong for their structure, or to the corrosive quality contained in them, or on the throwing on of fresh cold fuel into the fire where they stand, it frequently happens that they crack and burst; for the preventing of which, the operator has recourse to this method of coating or lorication his vessels. It is performed in the following manner: Take a quantity of washed clay, with an admixture of pure sand, powder of calcined flints, or broken crucibles; and, instead of pure water, moisten it with fresh blood that has not yet been coagulated, diluted with twice or three times its quantity of water; make the clay with this into a thin paste, and work into it some cow's hair, or other hair not too long nor too stiff, and a little powdered and sifted glass, if you have it at hand; smear over the vessel intended to be used with this paste, by means of a pencil, and set it to dry; when dry, besmear it again, and repeat the operation till the vessel have a crust of a third, or a quarter of an inch, at least, thick of this matter, and let it be thoroughly dry before it is used. To keep blood in a proper state for this use, it must, when just let out from the animal, be well stirred about with a stick for some time, at least till it is quite cold; and, being thus prepared, it will keep for some days without coagulating, and fit for use. This composition, with an admixture of bole, worked into a paste with the whites of eggs, diluted with water, makes also the proper lute for closing the junctures of other chemical vessels, in the distilling strong spirits. Chaptal recommends a soft mixture of marly earth, first soaked in water, and then kneaded with fresh horse-dung, as a most excellent coating. The valuable method used by Mr. Willis of Wapping to secure or repair his retorts used in the distillation of phosphorus, deserves to be mentioned here. The retorts are smeared with a solution of borax to which some slaked lime has been added; and, when dry, they are again smeared with a thin paste of slaked lime and linseed oil. This paste, being made somewhat thicker, is applied with success, during the distillation, to mend such retorts as crack by the fire. *Nicholson's Chem. Dict.* vol. i.

**LORIMER**, or **LORINER**. See p. 612.

**LORIN** (John), a learned French Jesuit, was born at Avignon in the year 1559. He filled the divinity-chair with great reputation, at Paris, Rome, Milan, and other places; and died at Dole, in 1634, when about seventy-five years of age. He was the author of long Commentaries on Leviticus, Numbers, Deuteronomy, the Psalms, Ecclesiastes, the Book of Wisdom, the Acts of the Apostles, and the Catholic Epistles. They display much erudition, and a critical knowledge of the Greek and Hebrew languages; and they contain much valuable information on questions relating to history, doctrinal points, and ecclesiastical discipline; but they would have been much more useful and acceptable, had the author reduced them within a narrower compass.

**LORING**, *f.* [from *lore*.] Instructive discourse:

That all they, as a goddess her adoring,  
Her wisdom did admire, and hearkened to her *loring*. *Sp.*

**LORIO'L**, a town of France, in the department of the Drôme: twelve miles south of Valence, and nine west of Crest.

**LO'RIOT**, *f.* A name sometimes used for the golden oriole, or **ORIO'LUS** galbula, which see.

**LOR'IPES**, *adj.* [Latin.] Club-footed.

**LOR'IPES**, *f.* A name used by some authors for the

long-legged plover, a bird remarkable for the length and weakness of its legs. See **CHARADRIUS** himantopus, vol. iv. p. 105.

**LO'RIS**. See **LEMUR** tardigradus, vol. xii. p. 413.

**LO'R'ME**, a town of France, and seat of a tribunal, in the department of the Nievre: thirty-three miles north-east of Nevers, and six east-north-east of Corbigny.

**LO'R'ME** (Philibert de), an eminent French architect, was born at Lyons in the early part of the sixteenth century. He went to Italy at the age of fourteen, to study the beauties of ancient art, when his zeal and assiduity attracted the notice of cardinal Cervino, afterwards pope Marcellus II. who took him into his palace, and assisted him in his pursuits. He returned to France in 1536, and was employed in several buildings, in which he introduced contrivances not before known in that country; and to him is attributed the banishment of the Gothic taste from France, and the substitution of the Grecian. Cardinal du Bellay made him known to Henry II. for whom he planned the horse-shoe at Fontainebleau, and the chateaus of Anet and Meudon. After the death of that king, Catharine de Medicis made him intendant of her buildings. Under her direction he repaired and augmented several of the royal residences, and made a commencement of the palace of the Thuilleries. As a recompence for his services, he was presented in 1555 with two abbacies, and created counsellor and almoner in ordinary to the king. These favours are said to have made him insolent; and the poet Ronfard conceived so much displeasure or jealousy against him, that he satirised him in a piece entitled *La Truelle Croffée*, the Croziered Trowel: De Lorme in return shut the garden of the Thuilleries against him; but the queen took the part of the poet, and reprimanded the reverend architect. He died in 1577. De Lorme published, 1. *Dix Livres d'Architecture*, fol. 1567. in which there is much useful instruction concerning the manner of cutting stones, and constructing a building, in which he excelled more than in knowledge of the architectural orders. 2. *Nouvelles Inventions pour bien batir & à petits frais*, fol. 1576: the plan of saving expense consists chiefly in substituting fir to the usual building-timber, which he first proposed and practised in France. *D'Argenville Vies des Architectes*.

**LORN**, *pret. pass.* [loptian, Sax.] Forfaken; lost:

Who after that he had fair *Una lorn*,  
Through light misdeeming of her loyalty. *Fairy Queen*.

**LORN**, a division of Argyllshire in Scotland, which gives the title of marquis to the duke of Argyll. It extends above thirty miles in length from north to south, and about nine at its utmost breadth; bounded on the east by Braidalbin; on the west by the islands; on the north, by Lochaber; and is divided from Knappdale, on the south, by Loch Etive, on the banks of which stands the castle of Bergomarn, wherein the courts of justice were anciently held. This district, abounding with lakes, is the most pleasant and fertile part of Argyllshire, producing plenty of oats and barley. It once belonged to the ancient family of Macdougall, still residing on the spot; but devolved to the lords of Argyll in consequence of a marriage with the heiress, at that time a branch of the Stuart family.

The chief place of note in this district is the castle of Dunstaffnage, a seat of the Scottish kings previous to the conquest of the Picts in 843 by Kenneth II. In this place was long preserved the famous stone, the palladium of North Britain; brought, says legend, out of Spain, where it was first used as a seat of justice by Gathelus, coeval with Moses. It continued here as the coronation-chair till the reign of Kenneth II. who removed it to Scone, anno 849, in order to secure his reign; for, according to the inscription,

*Ni fallat fatum, Scoti quocunque locatum,  
Invenient lapidem, regnare teneantur ibidem.*



Edward I. of England carried it away, in 1297, after he had in a manner subdued the whole kingdom of Scotland; it is now in Westminster-abbey, and is used as the coronation-chair for our kings; but some of the ancient regalia were preserved here till the present century, when the keeper's servants, during his infirm years, embezzled them for the silver ornaments; and left only a battle-axe, nine feet long, of beautiful workmanship, and ornamented with silver.

The castle is square; partly ruinous, partly habitable. At three of the corners are round towers. The entrance is towards the sea at present by a staircase, in old times probably by a drawbridge, which fell from a little gateway. The masonry appears very ancient; the tops battlemented. This pile is seated on a rock at the mouth of Loch Etive, whose waters expand within to a beautiful bay, where ships may safely ride in all weathers. Of this building, the founder of which is unknown, nothing remains except the outer walls, which, though roofless, are still in good order; and within which some buildings have been erected, which serve as the residence of the laird. The duke of Argyll is hereditary keeper under the crown.—At a small distance from the castle is a ruined chapel, once an elegant building; and at one end an enclosure, a family cemetery. Opposite to these is a high precipice, ending abrupt, and turning suddenly toward the south-east. A person concealed in the recess of the rock, a little beyond the angle, surprises friends stationed at some distance beneath the precipice with a very remarkable echo of any word, or even sentence, he pronounces; which reaches the last distinct and unbroken. The repetition is single, but remarkably clear.

In 1307, this castle was possessed by Alexander Macdougall lord of Argyll, a friend to the English; but was that year reduced by Robert Bruce, when Macdougall sued for peace with that prince, and was received into favour. We find, about the year 1455, this to have been a residence of the Lords of the Isles; for here James last earl of Douglas, after his defeat in Annandale, fled to Donald, the Regulus of the time, and prevailed on him to take arms, and carry on a plundering war against his monarch James II.

The situation of this regal seat was calculated for pleasure as well as strength. The views of mountains, valleys, waters, and islands, are delightful. On the north side of Loch Etive stood the town of Beregonium, supposed to have been the capital of the West Highlands. It seems, from certain mounds, excavations, and other appearances, to have been a strong fortress, to prevent invasion, or to secure a retreat, as occasion might require. On the bank of the same loch is the site of Ardchattan, a priory of monks of Valliscaullium in Burgundy, founded in 1230 by Donald Maccoull, ancestor of the Macdougalls of Lorne. Here Robert Bruce, who remained master of this country before he got entire possession of Scotland, held a parliament or council. The country abounds in Druidical, Danish, and other, monuments.

LOR'OMIE'S STONE, a place of America, in the state of Ohio, westerly from Fort Lawrence, and near a branch of the Great Miami River, which falls into the Ohio. At this spot, bounded west by the Indian line, the Indians ceded a tract of land to the United States, six miles square, by a treaty signed August 3, 1795. Here the portage commences between the Miami of the Ohio and St. Mary's River, which runs into Lake Erie.

LO'ROUS, a town of Tunis, anciently called *Laribus*: sixty miles south-west of Tunis.

LOROU'X BECONNOIS, a town of France, in the department of the Maine and Loire: thirteen miles west-north-west of Angers, and twenty-seven north of Collet.

LOROU'X BOTTEREAU, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Loire: ten miles north of Clifton and nine east of Angers.

LOR'QUI, a town of Spain, in Murcia: twelve miles north-west of Murcia.

LOR'QUIN, a town of France, in the department of the Meurte: four miles south-south-east of Sarrebourg, and nineteen east of Luneville.

LOR'RACH, or LARACH, a town of the duchy of Baden: six miles north-west of Rheinfelden, and six north-east of Bâle.

LORRA'IN (Claude le), an eminent painter. See CLAUDE, vol. iv.

LORRA'IN (Robert le), an eminent sculptor, was born in 1666 at Paris, of a family from Champagne. He was a pupil of Girardon, who confided to him, at the age of eighteen, the instruction of his own children, and the correction of the designs of the other pupils. After having distinguished himself by several works, and gained the first prize at the academy, he went to Rome, where he pursued his improvement with so much assiduity as to injure his constitution. He returned to France in 1693, when the misfortunes of the times had suspended all the public works, so that he found very little employment, and had full leisure to meditate his art in retirement. In 1701 he was admitted into the Academy of Painting and Sculpture, having executed a fine figure of Galatea for his masterpiece. He made a fawn for the cascade at Marly, which obtained the royal applause; and continually advanced his reputation by other excellent performances. The academy showed its sense of his merits by nominating him to the post of adjunct professor in 1710, and of professor in 1717. He fulfilled the duties of these offices with great attention, and could boast of Le Moine and Pigalle among his pupils. When the cardinal de Rohan formed the design of decorating his palace of Saverne near Straßburg, he fixed upon Lorraine, with other artists; and much of the exterior sculpture was executed by him. In the midst of his labours, he was attacked with a stroke of apoplexy in 1738, which obliged him to return to Paris. After repeated seizures, he was carried off in 1743, at the age of seventy-seven. Le Lorraine was thoroughly acquainted with the principles of his art, and worked with great facility, frequently from a slight design, or even from the idea in his imagination: he particularly distinguished himself by his character-heads, of which those of women and young persons are often exquisitely beautiful, with airs of singular grace and elegance. Le Moine said of him, that his chisel was guided by Corregio and Parmegiano. *D'Argenville Vies des Sculpt.*

LORRA'IN (Duchy of), united to France; and, with the duchy of Bar, now divided into the departments of the Meuse, the Meurte, the Moselle, and the Vosges. This country forms only a small part of a kingdom, which bore that name, and which extended from Vienne, on the Rhone, to Cologne. It owes its name to Lothaire II, grandson of Louis le Debonnaire; and after many revolutions it was annexed to France, in the year 1766, at the death of Stanislaus, the last duke. Separated from Bar, it is about 90 miles in length, and 69 in breadth. The air is thick and cold, but healthy; the plains, watered by divers rivers, are fertile in corn and fruit; the mountains and valleys are covered with wood, which harbour great quantities of game. The country has salt springs, together with some mines of iron, copper, tin, and silver. Its lakes abound in fish, and in the mountains of the Vosges are found agates, granates, chalcedonies, and other gems; as also a particular substance for making cups and other vessels. The principal rivers are the Meuse, the Moselle, the Meurte, and the Saar.

LOR'RES, a town of France, in the department of the Seine and Marne, and chief place of a canton, in the district of Fontainebleau. The place contains 610, and the canton 9193, inhabitants, in 18 communes.

LOR'RIS, a town of France, in the department of the Loiret: 12 miles south-west of Montargis, and 24 east of Orleans.

LOR'RIS (William de), a French poet of the thirteenth century, was a student of jurisprudence, and died about 1260. He is known as the author of the Roman de la



Rose, a poem famous in the middle ages. Under the allegory of a rose planted in a delicious garden, and protected by walls and bulwarks, it describes a lover's pursuit and final acquisition of the object of his passion. Lorrin left the work unfinished; and it was completed in the next century by John Clopinel, or de Meun. Not one quarter of the whole was composed by Lorrin; but his part is by much the most poetical, abounding in rich and elegant description, and in the lively portraiture of allegorical personages. Much morality and satire is interspersed, especially in the part written by John de Meun. The best edition of the *Roman de la Rose* is that of the abbé de Lenglet, Amst. 3 volumes 12mo. 1735. Chaucer has given a translation of the greater part of it, comprising all belonging to William de Lorrin. *Warton's Hist. of English Poetry.*

LOR'RY (Anne-Charles), a learned French physician, was born in 1725, at Crosny, near Paris. He became doctor-regent of the faculty of Paris, and exercised his profession with equal reputation and modesty. After a successful case, he was used to say, "I will never permit myself to assert that *I have cured* such a patient; but that he was under my care, and the disease terminated happily." He was the author of the following works: 1. *Essai sur l'Usage des Alimens, pour servir de commentaire aux livres dietetiques d'Hippocrate*, 1753 and 1757. 2. *De Melancholia et Morbis Melancholicis*, 2 vols. 8vo. 1765. 3. *Tractatus de Morbis Cutaneis*, 4to. 1777. He also gave an edition of the Aphorisms of Hippocrates, Gr. and Lat. 8vo. 1759; of the Works of Dr. Mead, in Latin, 2 vols. 8vo. of the *Medicina Statica* of Sanctorius, with Commentaries, 1770, 12mo. and of Dr. Astruc's *Memoires pour servir à l'Histoire de la Faculté de Montpellier*, 4to. 1767. Dr. Lorry died at the baths of Bourbonne in 1783. *Eloy, Dict. de la Med.*

LORSCH, or LAU'RESHEIM, an abbey of Germany, situated on a narrow island in the electorate of Mentz, founded by Pepin king of France. The emperor Frederic ceded it to the archbishop of Mentz in 1232, as a fief of the empire. In the year 1768, a work was printed at Manheim, called *Codex Laurensheimensis Diplomaticus*, of considerable use in the geography of the middle age. It is 6 miles east of Worms.

LOR'SQUEN, a town of France, in the department of the Meurthe, and chief place of a canton, in the district of Sarrebourg; four miles south-south-east of Sarrebourg. The place contains 1164, and the canton 13,680, inhabitants, in 29 communes.

LORUHA'MA, [Heb. unpitied.] The name of a woman. *Hofea.*

LORUN'GAH, a pass in the mountains of Bengal: eighteen miles west of Ramgur.

LOS CHAR'CAS. See CHARCAS.

LOS REY'ES. See the article LIMA, vol. xii. See also REYES.

LOSA'RI, a town of the island of Corfica: fifteen miles north of Calvi.

LOS'CHAN, a town of Bohemia: four miles east of Prague.

LOS'CHETZ, or LOSTITZ, a town of Moravia, in Olmutz: two miles south of Muglitz.

LOS'DORF, a town of Bohemia, in Leitmeritz: six miles west-south-west of Kamnitz.

To LOSE, *v. a.* [leopan, Sax.] To forfeit by unsuccessful contest: the contrary to *win*:

The lighten'd courfers ran;  
They rush'd, and *won* by turns, and *lost* the day. *Dryden.*

To forfeit as a penalty. In this sense is *Paradise lost*:

Fame! few, alas! the casual blessing boast,  
So hard to gain, so easy to be *lost*!

*Pope.*

To be deprived of.—He *lost* his right hand with a shot, and, instead thereof, ever after used a hand of iron. *Knolles.*

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Who conquer'd him, and in what fatal strife  
The youth, without a wound, could *lose* his life. *Dryden.*

To suffer diminution of.—The fear of the Lord goeth before obtaining of authority; but roughness and pride is the *losing* thereof. *Ecclus. x. 21.*—If salt have *lost* his favour, wherewith shall it be salted? *Matthew.*—To possess no longer: contrary to *keep*.—They have *lost* their trade of woollen-drapery. *Graunt.*

No youth shall equal hopes of glory give,  
The Trojan honour and the Roman boast,  
Admir'd when living, and ador'd when *lost*. *Dryden.*

To miss, so as not to find:

Venus wept the sad disaster  
Of having *lost* her fav'rite dove. *Prior.*

To separate or alienate. It is perhaps in this sense always used passively, with *to* before that from which the separation is made.—When men are openly abandoned, and *lost* to all shame, they have no reason to think it hard if their memory be reproached. *Swift.*

But if to honour *lost* 'tis still decreed  
For you my bowl shall flow, my flocks shall bleed;  
Judge and assert my right, impartial Jove. *Pope.*

To ruin; to send in perdition:

In spite of all the virtue we can boast,  
The woman that deliberates is *lost*. *Addison.*

To bewilder; so as that the way is no longer known.—Nor are constant forms of prayer more likely to flat and hinder the spirit of prayer and devotion, than unpremeditated and confused variety to distract and *lose* it. *King Charles.*

I will go *lose* myself,  
And wander up and down to view the city. *Shakespeare.*

To deprive of.—How should you go about to *lose* him a wife he loves with so much passion? *Temple.*—Not to employ; not to enjoy:

The happy have whole days, and those they use;  
Th' unhappy have but hours, and these they *lose*. *Dryden.*

To squander; to throw away:

I no more complain,  
Time, health, and fortune, are not *lost* in vain. *Pope.*

To suffer to vanish from view:

Of in the passions wild rotation tost,  
Our spring of action to ourselves is *lost*. *Pope.*

To destroy by shipwreck:

The coast  
Where first my shipwreck'd heart was *lost*. *Prior.*

To throw away; to employ ineffectually.—He has merit, good-nature, and integrity, that are not often *lost* upon great men, or at least are not all three a match for flattery. *Pope's Letters.*—To miss; to part with, so as not to recover.—These sharp encounters, where always many more men are *lost* than are killed or taken prisoners, put such a stop to Middleton's march, that he was glad to retire. *Clarendon.*—To be freed from: as, to *lose* a fever;

His feely back the bunch has got  
Which Edwin *lost* before. *Parnel.*

To LOSE, *v. n.* Not to win:

We'll hear poor rogues  
Talk of court-news, and we'll talk with them too;  
Who *loses*, and who wins; who's in, who's out. *Shakespeare.*  
To decline; to fail:

Wisdom in discourse with her  
*Loses* discountenanc'd, and like folly shews. *Milton.*

LOSE CREEK, a river of Kentucky, which runs into the Ohio in lat. 37. 32. N. lon. 88. 24. W.

§ D

LOSENIT'ZA,



LOSENIT'ZA, a town of European Turkey, in Servia: thirty miles south-south-west of Sabacz.

LO'SEABLE, *adj.* Subject to privation.—Consider whether motion or a propensity to it, be an inherent quality belonging to atoms in general, and not *loseable* by them. *Boyle*.

LO'SEL, *f.* [from *loþan*, Sax. to perish.] A scoundrel; a forry worthless fellow. *Obsolete*.—Such *lofels* and scatterlings cannot easily, by any sheriff, be gotten, when they are challenged for any such fact. *Spenser*.

Be not with work of *lofels* wit defamed,  
Ne let such verses poetry be named. *Hubberd's Tale*.

LOSENGE, *f.* [*lofange*, Fr.] The old and correct way of spelling LOZENGE, which see. As lozenges were generally composed of substances sweet and grateful to the palate, hence the same word is used in Chaucer to signify flattering lies; and hence we have *Lofenger*, a liar, a deceiver, a flatterer; and *Lofengery*, for flattery and deceit.

LOSEN'KO (Anthony,) an history-painter, who flourished at Peterburgh during the last century. He was admitted in 1759 into the Academy of Arts, who sent him to Italy and France, where he exercised his talents. His sketches are in great request. His most admired pieces are, the portrait of the princess Potozka, and the Parting of Hector and Andromache. After being appointed director of the academy, he died in 1773.

LO'SER, *f.* One that is deprived of any thing; one that forfeits any thing; one that is impaired in his possession or hope: the contrary to *winner* or *gainer*.—No man can be provident of his time that is not prudent in the choice of his company; and, if one of the speakers be vain, tedious, and trifling, he that hears, and he that answers, are equal *losers* of their time. *Taylor's Holy Living*.

With the *losers* let it sympathize,  
For nothing can seem fowl to those that win. *Shakespeare*.

LO'SER, a town of the electorate of Salzburg, on the Stampach: twenty miles east of Kuffstein, and twenty-one south-west Salzburg.

LO'SING, *f.* The act by which loss is sustained, the state of being lost.

LOSI'TO, a town of Naples, in the province of Bari: six miles east of Bittetto.

LOSOR'GA, a town of the island of Sardinia, eleven miles south of Bosa.

LOS'QUET, a small island in the English Channel, near the coast of France. Lat. 43. 49. N. lon. 3. 31. W.

LOSS, *f.* Detriment; privation; diminution of good; the contrary to *gain*.—The only gain he purchased was to be capable of *loss* and detriment for the good of others. *Hooker*.—An evil-natured son is the dishonour of his father that begat him; and a foolish daughter is born to his *loss*. *Ecclus*.—Mitts; privation:

If he were dead, what would betide of me?—

No other harm but *loss* of such a lord.—

The *loss* of such a lord includes all harms. *Shakespeare*.

Deprivation; forfeiture:

*Loss* of Eden, till one greater man  
Restore it, and regain. *Milton*.

Destruction.—There succeeded an absolute victory for the English, with the slaughter of above two thousand of the enemy, with the *loss* but of one man, though not a few hurt. *Bacon*.

Her fellow-ships from far her *loss* descry'd,  
But only she was sunk, and all were safe beside. *Dryden*.

Fault; puzzle: used only in the following phrase:—Reason is always striving, and always at a *loss*, while it is exercised about that which is not its proper object. *Dryden*.—A man may sometimes be at a *loss* which side to close with. *Baker on Learning*.—Useless application.—It would be *loss* of time to explain any farther our superiority to the enemy in numbers of men and horse. *Adiscn*.

LOSS, a cluster of small islands in the Atlantic, near the coast of Africa. Lat. 9. 16. N. lon. 13. W.

LOS'SA, a town of Silesia, in the principality of Brieg: five miles south-east of Brieg.

LOS'SA, or Los'se, a river of Thuringia, which runs into the Unfrutt.

LOS'SABACH, a river of Saxony, which runs into the Mulda near Eulenburg.

LOSSAU', a town of Germany, in the principality of Bayreuth: nine miles south-east of Bayreuth.

LOSS'EN, a town of the duchy of Courland: thirty-two miles south-east of Seelburg.

LOSS'IE, a river of Scotland, which rises in the county of Murray, and runs into the sea at Lossiemouth. It is celebrated for its trout.

LOSS'LEMOUTH, a seaport town of Scotland, in the county of Murray, situated at the mouth of the Lossie. It has only a sloop and a few fishing-vessels which belong to the place; the harbour is convenient for vessels of 80 tons. In 1793, it had only 180 inhabitants: six miles north of Elgin.

LOSS'IN (Great), a town in the south part of the island of Cherso, containing about 1800 inhabitants.

LOSS'IN (Little), a town of the island Cherso, containing about 1600 inhabitants: one mile south of Great Lossin.

LOSS'IUS (Lucas), of Lunenburg, a Lutheran divine and school-master, well skilled in music, who published at Nuremberg, in 1553, *Erotomata Musicae practicae*, and Lutheran Psalmodia. At the time of the Reformation, the Lutherans preserved more music in their liturgy than the Calvinists, or the Church of England.

LOSS'NITZ, a town of Saxony, in the lordship of Schönberg, ten miles south-east of Zwicka, and fifty south-west of Dresden. Lat. 50. 32. N. lon. 12. 37. E.

LOST, *participle adj.* No longer perceptible:

In seventeen days appear'd your pleasing coast,  
And woody mountains, half in vapours *lost*. *Pope*.

LOS'TITZ. See LOSCHETZ.

LOS'TORFF, a town of Austria: nine miles west of St. Polten.

LOSTWITH'IEL. See LESTWITHIEL, vol. xii. p. 535.

LOS'VA, a river of Russia, which runs into the Solva in the government of Tobolsk, forty miles west of Pelim.

LOS'ZLAU, or WODISLAU, a town of Silesia, and principal place of a lordship in the principality of Ratibor: eighteen miles north-north-west of Teschen, and eleven south-east of Ratibor. Lat. 49. 57. N. lon. 18. 18. E.

LOT, *f.* [*hlaut*, Gothic; *hlot*, Sax. *lot*, Dut.] Fortune; state assigned.—Our own *lot* is best; and, by aiming at what we have not, we lose what we have already. *L'Esrange*.

Prepar'd I stand; he was but born to try  
The *lot* of man, to suffer and to die. *Pope's Odyssey*.

A die, or any thing used in determining chances.—Aaron shall cast *lots* upon the two goats; one *lot* for the Lord, and the other *lot* for the scape-goat. *Lev. xvi. 8*.

Their tasks in equal portions she divides;  
And, where unequal, there by *lots* decides. *Dryden*.

It seems in Shakespeare to signify a lucky or wished chance: If you have heard your general talk of Rome,  
And of his friends there, it is *lots* to blanks  
My name hath touch'd your ears; it is Menenius. *Shakefp.*

A portion; a parcel of goods as being drawn by lot: as, What *lot* of silks had you at the sale?—Proportion of taxes: as, To pay scot and *lot*.

LOT is in Persian *pur*; whence the Purim, or feast of lots. *Ezther* iii. Casting lots is authorized in many parts of Scripture. God commanded that lots should be cast upon the two goats, offered for the sins of the multitude, on the solemn day of expiation; to ascertain which of the two should be sacrificed, and which set at liberty. *Lev.*



*Lev. xvi.* He required also, that the land of promise should be divided by lot. *Numb. xxxvi. xxxiii. xxxvi.* The priests and levites in like manner had cities given them by lot. *Josh. xxi.* In the time of David, the twenty-four classes of the priests and levites were distributed by lot to determine their order of waiting in the temple. *1 Chr. xxiv. xxv. xxvi.* In the division of the spoil after victory, lots were cast likewise, to distribute to each his portion. In the New Testament, the soldiers cast lots for Jesus Christ's garments, (*Matth. xxvii. 35.*) as had been foretold by the prophet, (*Pf. xxii. 18.*) After the death of Judas, lots were cast to decide which of the persons should succeed that traitor. *Acts i. 26.*—The manner of casting lots, we do not find described clearly in Scripture; and interpreters disagree about it; several methods were used. Solomon in the Proverbs, points out one mode: *The lot is cast into the lap; but the whole disposing thereof is of the Lord.* *Prov. xvi. 3.* Lots therefore were cast into some person's lap, or into a helmet, or an urn; there they were shaken together, and afterwards drawn out. Whatever might have been the mode, the use of lots is not prohibited; for God even enjoins it on some occasions; and the most holy persons of the Old and New Testament practised it. The wise man acknowledges the usefulness of this custom in these words: *The lot causeth contentions to cease, and parteth between the mighty.* *Prov. xviii. 18.* But it cannot be denied that casting lots is sometimes forbidden: as when it is practised without necessity; or with superstition; or with a design of tempting the Lord; or in things wherein there are other natural means of discovering truth; lastly, when reason and religion furnish other ways to guide us. Haman (*Esther iii. 7.*) seems to have used lots not only out of superstition, but likewise in an unjust and criminal matter, when he undertook to destroy the Jews; that is, if we suppose the 7th verse of that chapter to have any connection with the eighth. Nebuchadnezzar did so in a superstitious manner, when, being on the way to Jerusalem, and Rabbath of the Ammonites, he cast lots to determine to which of the two cities he should go. *Ezek. xxi. 18-24.* The mariners who had Jonah in their vessel, tempted God, by drawing lots to know whence the tempest originated with which they were overtaken. Yet, upon that occasion, the Almighty was pleased to answer them by making the lot to fall upon Jonah. *Jonah i. 7.*

LOT, or LOTH, *f.* in mining, the thirteenth dish, measure, or part, of the miner's ore, which the bar-master takes up for the king, or the farmer.

LOT, or POR, *f.* A liquid measure in French Flanders, equal at Lille to 126 cubic inches, and 183'33 = 100 English gallons.

LOT, son of Haran, and nephew to Abraham. He followed his uncle from Ur, and afterwards from Haran, to settle in the land of Canaan. *Gen. xi. 38.* This was in the year of the world 2070, and before Christ 1920. Abraham had always a great tenderness for Lot. He took him with him into Egypt, and brought him back to Canaan. But they could not continue longer together: they were obliged to separate, because, as they both had large flocks, their shepherds sometimes quarrelled. *Gen. xiii. 6, 7.* Lot therefore chose Sodom for his abode, the country around it being very beautiful. About eight years after, King Cherdorloamer and his allies having attacked the kings of Sodom and the neighbouring cities, routed them, pillaged Sodom, took many captives, and, among the rest, Lot himself. Abraham, being informed of this, armed his servants, pursued the confederate kings, overtook them near the springs of Jordan, recovered the spoil, and brought back the captives, including his nephew Lot. *Gen. xii.* Some years after, the sins of the Sodomites and of the neighbouring cities being at their height, God sent three angels to punish and destroy them. Towards the evening, two of these angels being come to Sodom, Lot, who was sitting at the city-

gate, perceived them, and intreated them to lodge in his house. The angels at first refused; but, Lot pressing them, they went in, and he provided an entertainment for them. But, before they were retired to rest, the inhabitants of the city besieged Lot's house, exclaiming, *Where are the men which came in to thee this night? bring them out unto us, that we may know them.* As they were on the point of breaking open the door, the angels struck all those detestably-wicked men with blindness. They then directed Lot, to collect his family together, and to quit the city, as being condemned to destruction. Lot went and informed his sons in law of this dreadful denunciation; but his intelligence they regarded as an idle fancy. In the morning, as soon as it was day, the angels took Lot, his wife, and daughters, by the hand, and drew them forcibly, as it were, out of their house, saying, "Save yourselves in all haste; look not behind you, lest you be involved in the general destruction." Lot intreated the angels that he might retire to Zoar, which was one of the five cities doomed to be destroyed. The angels consented: but Lot's wife, looking behind her, was overtaken in the flame, which fell from heaven, and which consumed Sodom, with the country about it; whereby she was changed into a pillar of salt. Lot, having beheld the sad calamity of Sodom, had not courage to abide in Zoar; but left it, and retreated with his two daughters to a cave in some mountain near it. They, imagining that all mankind was destroyed, and that the world would have an end unless they provided new inhabitants for it, made their father drunk, and the eldest lay with him without his perceiving it; she conceived a son by him, whom she called Moab. The second daughter did the same, and had Ammon by him. Their whole history is related in the sixth chapter of Genesis.

LOT, a river of France, which rises in the department of the Lozere; passes by or near to Mende, St. Genies, St. Come, Bitang, Elagnac, Cahors, Alban, Villeneuve d'Agen, &c. and joins the Garonne near Aiguillon.

LOT, a department of France, bounded on the north by the department of the Correze, on the east by the Cantal, on the south-east by the Aveyron, on the south by the Tarn and Upper Garonne, on the west by the Lot and Garonne, and on the north-west by the Dordogne; seventy miles in length and thirty-five in breadth. Cahors is the capital.

LOT AND GARONNE, a department of France, bounded on the north by the department of the Dordogne, on the east by the Lot, on the south by the Gers, and on the west by the Landes and Gironde: about forty-five miles from east to west, and thirty-six from north to south. Agen is the capital.

LOT'S WIFE, a stupendous rock in the sea, encompassing the Ladrones, which rises in the form of a pyramid, and is thus described by Mr. Meares in his voyage, cited by Mr. Pinkerton. "The latitude was 29. 50. N. the longitude 142. 23. E. of Greenwich. The waves broke against its rugged front, with a fury proportioned to the immense distance they had to roll before they were interrupted by it. It rose almost perpendicular to the height of near 350 feet. A small black rock appeared just above the water, at about 40 or 50 yards from the western edge. There was a cavern on its south-eastern side, into which the waters rolled with an awful and tremendous noise. In regarding this stupendous rock, which stood alone in an immense ocean, we could not but consider it as an object which had been able to resist one of those great convulsions of nature that change the very form of those parts of the globe which they are permitted to desolate."

LO'TAN, [Hebrew.] A man's name.

LO'TE-TREE, or NET'TLE-TREE, *f.* See CELTIS.—The leaves of the *lote*-tree are like those of the nettle. The fruit of this tree is not so tempting to us as it was to the companions of Ulysses: the wood is durable, and used.



used to make pipes for wind-instruments: the root is proper for hafts of knives, and was highly esteemed by the Romans for its beauty and use. *Miller.*

Next comes the *lot-tree*, in whose dusky hue,  
Her black and sun-burnt country you might view. *Tate.*

LO'TEN (John), a good landscape-painter of the English school, though a native of Switzerland. His taste led him to solemn and dreary scenes, as land-forms accompanied with showers of rain, &c. and he seldom omitted to introduce oak-trees in his prospects. His landscapes are generally large; and he painted with nature, truth, and force: but the effect of his compositions had been much greater if he had been less cold in his colouring; for the judicious eye is not pleased with the darkish tint that predominates in it. He died in London about 1681.

LO'TEN (John Gideon), a distinguished friend to natural history, was by birth a Dutchman, and born at Utrecht. In the year 1732 he went to India, where he exercised some of the highest employments in the islands of Celebes and Ceylon with great reputation, and alleviated the cares of his important duties by cultivating the liberal arts. At Columbo he established a botanical garden; and in every place of India where he resided made the pleasing study of natural history a principal object of his care. On his return he brought over with him a large collection of drawings, done with equal neatness and accuracy, some by natives, and others by Europeans whom he found in the country. Mr. Pennant was indebted to his friendship for copies of several of them; but the greater part he at his request communicated to Peter Brown, an ingenious artist, by birth a Dane, who engraved twenty-one of them; and, with several others from different places, published a splendid work, in 1776, entitled *New Illustrations of Zoology*, under the patronage of Marnaduke Tunstall, esq. and Mr. Pennant. From the same collection was formed Pennant's *Indian Zoology*, begun in 1789 and left unfinished, but resumed and published more complete in one volume quarto in 1790. Mr. Loten returned to Europe in 1758; and coming to England, where he lived several years, married in 1765 his second wife, Letitia Cotes, of the reputable family of Cotes in Shropshire; several years after which he retired to Holland, and died at Utrecht in the month of February 1789, aged eighty, and was interred in St. Jacob's church in that city. In the north aisle westward of Westminster-abbey is a most magnificent cenotaph, the performance of Banks, erected in 1795, to perpetuate the memory of this excellent man. *Pennant's View of Hindoostan.*

LOTEWART, a town of Germany, in the county of Henneberg: three miles west-south-west of Smalkalden.

LOTH, a town of Scotland, in the county of Sutherland, on the east coast: sixteen miles north-north-east of Dornoch.

LOTH, or LO'THE. See LOATH, vol. xii. p. 853.

LOTH', or LOD, *f.* A weight in Germany; 2 loths being = 1 oz. and 16 oz. = 2 marks = 1 pfund or pound. In estimating the fineness of silver, the mark fine is divided into 16 loths, and the loth into 18 grains.

LOTHAU', a town of Germany, in the principality of Culmbach: nine miles south of Culmbach.

LO'THIAN, an extensive district in Scotland, divided, like Yorkshire in England, into three parts; viz. East-Lothian, called also HADDINGTONSHIRE; Mid-Lothian, or EDINBURGHSHIRE; and West-Lothian, or LINLITHGOWSHIRE; which see respectively.

LO'THING, a lake of England, in the county of Suffolk, near Lowestoff.

LO'THINGLAND, once an island, and part of the county of Suffolk, towards the German Ocean, situated in the north-east part of the county, and the most eastern part of Great Britain; now a peninsula. The river Yare bounds it on the north, the sea on the east, the lake of Lothing on the south, and the river Wavcny on the west; it is only joined to the main land by a narrow neck near

Lowestoff, formed as is supposed about the year 1722. It is above ten miles in length from north to south, and six in breadth; and contains sixteen parishes, of which Lowestoff is the principal and only market-town.

LO'TI ARBO'RIS FO'LIO. See MUNTINGIA.

LO'TI SIM'ILIS. See DIOSPYROS.

LO'TICH, or LOTICH'IVS (Peter), surnamed *Secundus*, a distinguished modern Latin poet, was born in 1528, at Schluttern, in the county of Hanau, in Germany. He had his first education at the convent of that place, under his uncle of the same name, who introduced the reformation into it. He afterwards pursued his studies at Frankfurt, Marburg, and Wittemberg; at which last university he contracted an intimacy with Melancthon and Camerarius. During the war in Saxony he served a campaign in the protestant army. In 1550 he visited France with some youths to whom he was governor, and continued in that country nearly four years. He afterwards made the tour of Italy, where a misfortune befel him, the consequences of which he felt as long as he lived. He lodged at Bologna in the same house with a young canon of Munich, of whom the hostess was desperately enamoured. Apprehensive of his infidelity, she prepared a philtre, which was in fact a strong poison, and presented it in soup to the canon. Unfortunately for Lotich, he made an exchange of dishes with him; and its effects were so violent, as to bring him into imminent danger of his life; and, although he recovered for the present, not a year passed afterwards in which he had not a relapse, whereby his health was ruined and his days shortened. He took at Padua the degree of doctor of physic; and on his return to Germany was chosen professor in that science at Heidelberg, in 1557. He there acquired the good graces of the elector-palatine; and, by his amiable disposition, and the singular frankness and sincerity of his character, rendered himself universally beloved. He did not long enjoy these advantages, being carried off by a renewal of his complaint in November 1560. A collection of the Latin poems of Lotich was published in 1561, with a dedicatory epistle by Joachim Camerarius, who praises him as the best poet of his age. Other learned men have bestowed similar applause upon him, and several successive editions have been given of his works. He is reckoned to excel particularly in elegy, and occupies the first rank among the Latin poets of Germany.

*Christian*, a younger brother of Peter, was also an elegant scholar, and a poet. A collection of his poems, with these of John Peter Lotich, was published in 1620.

*John-Peter*, grandson of Christian above-mentioned, was born at Frankfurt on the Maine in 1598. He was a physician, and maintained the literary character of his family, as he proved by a variety of writings. He exercised his profession at Minden and in Hesse, and was finally invited to a medical chair at Rintlen in Westphalia. This he occupied many years, till he died greatly regretted in 1652. Of his medical works the principal is *Consiliorum et Observationum Medicinalium*, Lib. v. 4to. 1644, and with an additional book in 1658. His Latin poems were published with those of his grandfather. He published in 1629 a Commentary on Petronius, 4to. which is much applauded by Guy Patin, and as much depreciated by Goldast. A History of the Emperors Ferdinand II. and III. 4 tom. fol. 1646, is attributed to him. *Bayle. Eloy, Dict. de la Med.*

LOTIE'RO, a town of Naples, in the Principato Ultra: fifteen miles east-north-east of Benevento.

LO'TION, *f.* [*lotio*, Lat. *lotion*, Fr.] A *lotion* is a form of medicine compounded of aqueous liquids, used to wash any part with. *Quincy.*

LOTION is, strictly speaking, such washing as concerns beautifying the skin, by cleansing it of those deformities which disordered blood throws upon it. Medicines of this kind, however, are for the most part insignificant, and sometimes very dangerous; the only proper method of treating these disorders is, by administering such medicines



cines as tend to correct the morbid state of the constitution from whence they arise.

**LOTION**, in pharmacy, denotes a preparation of medicines, by washing them in some liquid, either made very light, so as to take away only the dregs; or sharp, so as to penetrate them, in order to clear them of some salt, or corrosive spirit, as is done to antimony, precipitates, magisteries, &c. or intended to take away some foulness or ill quality, or to communicate some good one.

**LO'TIS**, or **Lo'tos**, a beautiful nymph, daughter of Neptune. Priapus offered her violence; and, to save herself from his importunities, she implored the gods, who changed her into a tree called lotus. *Ovid.*

**LO'TO AFFINIS**. See **ANTHYLLIS**, **CASSIA**, **EBENUS**, **MEDICAGO**, and **PSORALEA**.

**LO'TO SIM'ILIS**. See **HEDYSARUM**.

**LOTOPH'AGI**, in ancient geography, a people of the Regio Syrtica, so called from their living on the lotus; inhabiting between the two Syrtis, from the Cinyphus to the Triton. The lotus was said to be a food so luscious, as to make strangers forget their native country. A sweet wine was expressed from it, which did not keep above ten days. *Pliny.*

**LOTOPH'AGI** of Homer. See **MENINX**.

**LOT'TERY**, *f.* [from *lot.*] A kind of public game at hazard, frequent in Britain, France, and Holland, in order to raise money for the service of the state; being appointed with us by the authority of parliament, and managed by commissioners appointed by the lords of the treasury for that purpose. It consists of several numbers of blanks and prizes, which are drawn out of wheels, one of which contains the numbers, and the other the corresponding blanks or prizes.

The Romans invented lotteries to enliven their Saturnalia. This festival began by the distribution of tickets which gained some prize. Augustus made lotteries which consisted of things of little value; but Nero established some for the people, in which 1000 tickets were distributed daily, and several of those who were favoured by Fortune got rich by them. Heliogabalus invented some very singular; the prizes were either of great value or of none at all; one gained a prize of six slaves, and another of six flies; some got valuable vases, and others vases of common earth. A lottery of this kind exhibited an excellent picture of the inequality with which Fortune distributes her favours.

The first English lottery we find mentioned in history was drawn A. D. 1569. It consisted of 400,000 lots, or tickets, at 10s. each; the prizes were plate; and the profits were to go towards repairing the havens of the kingdom. It was drawn at the west door of St. Paul's cathedral. The drawing began on the 11th of January, 1569, and continued incessantly, *day and night*, till the 6th of May following; as Maitland, from Stowe, informs us in his history, vol. i. p. 257. There were then only three lottery-offices in London. The proposals for this lottery were published in the years 1567 and 1568. It was at first intended to have been drawn at the house of Mr. Dericke, her majesty's servant, i. e. her jeweller, but was afterwards drawn as above mentioned. In the year 1612, James I. granted permission for a lottery to be held also at the west end of St. Paul's, of which the highest prize was of the value of 4000 crowns, in fair plate; this was for the assistance of the Virginia company, who were licensed to open lottery-offices in any part of England, by which means they raised 29,000l. At length these lotteries came to be considered as public evils, and attracted the attention of parliament; they were repressed by the commons as a grievance, and were suppressed by an order of council. In 1630, however, Charles I. granted a special license for a lottery or lotteries, according to the course of other lotteries hitherto used or practised, for defraying the expense of a project for conveying water to London. Lotteries also were instituted by patent soon after the restoration, for the purpose of creating a fund for the suffering loyalists; and books were often the spe-

cies of property held out as a lure to the adventurer. Among these, Blome's Recreations, and Swillim's Heraldry, first edition, may be remembered. In the Gazette of May 18, 1668, is the following advertisement. "Mr. Ogilby's Lottery of Books opens on Monday the 25th instant, at the Old Theatre, between Lincoln's-Inn Fields and Vere-street; where all persons concerned may repair on Monday, May 18; and see the volumes, and put in their money." On May 25th is announced "Mr. Ogilby's Lottery of Books (adventurers coming in so fast that they cannot in so short a time be methodically registered) opens not till Tuesday the 2d of June; then not failing to draw; at the Old Theatre between Lincoln's-Inn Fields and Vere-street." A catalogue of the prizes, with some other curious particulars, may be seen in the Gentleman's Magazine, Suppl. for June last, p. 646.—The letters patent were from time to time renewed; and by those dated June 19, and Dec. 17, 1674, there was granted for thirteen years to come, all lotteries whatsoever, invented or to be invented, to several truly loyal and indigent officers, in consideration of their many faithful services and sufferings, with prohibition to all others to use or set up the said lotteries, unless deputations were obtained from those officers. Gazette, Oct. 11, 1675.

After the revolution, lotteries were again resorted to, among other expedients, for raising part of the extraordinary sums necessary for the public service; by which means the disposition for this species of gambling was greatly encouraged and extended. Of all the schemes, the most popular one was that drawn at the Dorset-Garden Theatre, with the capital prize of a thousand pounds for a penny. The drawing began Oct. 19, 1698; and in the Protestant Mercury of the following day, "its fairness (was said) to give universal content to all that were concerned." In the next paper is found an inconsistent and frivolous story as to the possessor of the prize: "Some time since a boy near Branford, going to school one morning, met an old woman, who asked his charity; the boy replied, he had nothing to give her but a piece of bread and butter, which she accepted. Some time after she met the boy again, and told him she had good luck for his bread and butter, and therefore would give him a penny, which, after some years keeping would produce many pounds; he accordingly kept it a great while; and at last, with some friend's advice, put it into the penny lottery; and we are informed that on Tuesday last it came up 1000l. prize." However absurd this relation appears, it must be recollected those to whom it was principally addressed, had given proof of having sufficient credulity for such a tale, in believing that two hundred and forty thousand shares could be disposed of and appropriated to a single number, independent of other prizes. The scheme was afterwards attacked in a pamphlet, which was not sufficient to prevent a further attempt at a fraud upon the public. In 1698, 9, schemes were started, called "the Lucky Adventure, or Fortunate Chance, being 2000l. for a groat, or 3000l. for a shilling;" and "Fortunatus, or another Adventure of 1000l. for a penny." But purchasers were more wary, and the money was returned in both cases.—The patentees also advertised against the "Marble-board, alias the Woolwich-board lotteries; the Figure-board, alias the Whimsey-board; and the Wyre-board lotteries." This nefarious system was at length struck at by act of parliament in the 10th and 11th of William III. c. 17, which declared such lotteries unlawful after 29th December, 1699; and by which a penalty of 500l. was laid on the proprietors of any such, and 20l. upon every adventurer in them. Notwithstanding which, the disposition to fraud on the one hand, and for adventure on the other, continued to prevail; and small lotteries were carried on under the denomination of sales of gloves, fans, cards, plate, &c. This was attempted to be checked by a clause in an act passed 1712; but which only gave rise to a new mode of carrying on this kind of gambling. Government-lotteries were still practised; and the adventure was now made to



depend upon the drawing of the former; and the buying and selling of chances and parts of chances of tickets in the state-lotteries became a general practice, till it was prohibited by an act passed in 1718, by which all the undertakings resembling lotteries, or being dependent on the state-lottery, were strictly prohibited, under the penalty of 100*l.* over and above all penalties enjoined by former acts of parliament against private lotteries.

During the reign of queen Anne, the lotteries were generally for terminable annuities, to which both blanks and prizes were entitled at different rates; thus in 1710, the lottery consisted of 150,000 tickets, valued at 1*l.* each, every ticket being entitled to an annuity for 32 years, the blanks at 14*s.* per annum, and the prizes to greater annuities, from 5*l.* to 1000*l.* per annum. This was the first lottery for which the Bank of England received the subscriptions for government. In the following year, the whole of the money advanced for the tickets was to be repaid, both in blanks and prizes, in 32 years, with interest at 6 per cent. and an additional sum of nearly half a million to be divided, in order to form prizes, which additional capital was to be paid with the like interest within the same period as the original sum. In this manner they were conducted for several years; and a very considerable premium was given for the money advanced, in addition to a high rate of interest.

According to the lottery-plans which prevailed from Sir Robert Walpole's administration to that of the duke of Grafton, the tickets were issued at 1*l.* each; and occasionally the subscription was open to the public at large. The highest prize was generally 10,000*l.* and the lowest 20*l.* There were from four to six blanks to a prize, and the blanks entitled the bearers to 5*l.* or 6*l.* stock in the three or four per cent. bank-annuities, the value of the blanks and prizes being generally funded. The lottery-office keepers divided the tickets into shares and chances, the former entitling the holders to the proportion they had purchased of blanks and prizes, the chances to prizes only; that is, they had no return if the ticket was drawn a blank. The tickets, according to the advantage or disadvantage of the scheme, in respect of the number of blanks to a prize, and the number of high prizes, generally sold at from 11*l.* to 12*l.* before the drawing. When the tickets sold for 11*l.* and the blanks were entitled to 6*l.* in the three per cents. as the blank might be sold for 5*l.* 8*s.* ready money when the three per cents. were at 90, the adventurer only gambled at a risk of 5*l.* 12*s.* and at the highest calculation, when tickets were worth 13*l.* he never staked more than 7*l.* 12*s.* for a ticket before the drawing.

In 1759, the scheme of the lottery included two prizes of 20,000*l.* each, which had not been the case in any preceding lottery since the time of queen Anne. The scheme for the year 1767, contained one prize of 20,000*l.* and this was many years after the usual amount of the highest prize. About this time a material alteration was made in the plan of the lotteries; the allowance to blanks was discontinued, the whole sum being divided into prizes, the number of which was of course considerably increased, particularly as the proportion of small prizes was much greater than it has since been, and in several of the following years was less than two blanks to a prize. All the lotteries during the time Lord North was chancellor of the exchequer were formed on this principle, with some variation in the schemes, which favoured the holders of tickets and the lottery-office keepers, and greatly increased the spirit of gaming, such as paying the prizes in money instead of stock, and making the first-drawn ticket for several successive days a prize of 1000*l.* or more, which enhanced the price of the tickets, and encouraged persons who had blanks drawn to buy again. Some judicious regulations were, however, adopted for the security of persons purchasing shares of tickets, by limiting the shares into which tickets may be divided to halves, quarters, eighths, and sixteenths; and obliging all lottery-

office keepers to deposit the tickets they divided into shares in the bank, and to have the said shares examined and stamped. The practice of insuring tickets and shares was likewise restrained, by enacting, that "no person shall sell the chance or chances of any ticket or any share for any time less than the whole time of drawing from the day of sale; nor shall receive any sum of money whatsoever in consideration for the repayment of any sum, in case any ticket shall prove fortunate, or in any case of any chance or event relating to the drawing, either as to time or its being fortunate, nor shall publish proposals for the same, under the penalty of 500*l.* one-half to be paid to the person suing for the same, and the other moiety to his majesty."

An act passed in 1778, for regulating the conduct of the lottery, restrains any person from keeping an office for the sale of tickets, shares, or chances, or for buying, selling, insuring, or registering, without a license; for which license each office-keeper must pay 50*l.* if it be in or within twenty miles of London, Edinburgh, or Dublin, and 10*l.* for every license for every other office, to continue in force for one year; and the produce to be applied towards defraying the expenses of the lottery. And no person is allowed to sell any share or chance less than a sixteenth, on the penalty of 50*l.* All tickets divided into shares or chances are to be deposited in an office, to be established in London by the commissioners of the treasury, who are to appoint a person to conduct the business thereof; and all shares are to be stamped by the said officer, who is to give a receipt for every ticket deposited with him. The numbers of all tickets so deposited are to be entered in a book, with the names of the owners, and the number of shares into which they are divided; and two-pence for each share is to be paid to the officer on depositing such tickets, who is therewith to pay all expenses incident to the office. All tickets deposited in the office are to remain there three days after the drawing. And any person keeping an office, or selling shares, or who shall publish any scheme for receiving moneys in consideration of any interest to be granted in any ticket in the said lottery, &c. without being in possession of such ticket, shall forfeit 500*l.* and suffer three months imprisonment. And no business is to be transacted at any of the offices after eight in the evening, except on the evening of the Saturday preceding the drawing. No person is to keep any office for the sale of tickets, &c. in Oxford or Cambridge, on penalty of 20*l.* Before this regulating statute took place, there were upwards of 400 lottery-offices in and about London only; but the whole number afterwards, for all England, as appeared by the list published by authority, amounted to no more than 51. They are, however, at this time much more numerous; but the list is not now made public.

By 42 Geo. III. c. 119, all games or lotteries called *little-goes* are declared public nuisances; and all persons keeping an office or place for any game or lottery not authorized by law, shall forfeit 500*l.* and be deemed rogues and vagabonds. The proprietor of a whole ticket may nevertheless insure it for its value only, with any licensed office, for the whole time of drawing, from the time of insurance, under a *bonâ-fide* agreement, without a stamp. The last state-lottery act enacting various new regulations was 49 Geo. III. c. 94.

During Mr. Pitt's administration, the lotteries were contracted for entirely distinct from the loans of the respective years; and, as it became necessary to endeavour to augment every source of the revenue as much as possible, various alterations were made in the lottery-schemes, chiefly with a view of raising the price of tickets, and of keeping up the price during the time of drawing. The number and amount of the highest prizes were increased, some schemes containing four prizes of 20,000*l.* each, others of two 30,000*l.* prizes; while, for the purpose of disposing of a greater number of tickets in the course of the year, the lottery was divided into two or three smaller ones, drawn at different times: the amount of the principal



cipal prize was still farther augmented; the lottery drawn in October 1807, containing a prize of 40,000*l.*, and that drawn in June 1808 six prizes of 20,000*l.* each. But, notwithstanding the temptations, which these schemes held out to the inconsiderate, the contractors found, either from the greater frequency of lotteries, or the increased number of tickets, that it became impossible to get the tickets off their hands, without resorting to a variety of expedients for attracting the public attention, which were carried to such a length as to become a public nuisance. This and many serious evils which were known to exist relating to lotteries, particularly that of illegal insurances, gave rise, in 1808, to a committee of the house of commons, which was appointed in order to enquire "how far the evils attending lotteries had been remedied by the laws passed respecting the same." In the report of this committee, various instances were adduced of the most serious evils, attested by the most respectable witnesses, some of which are so striking, that we cannot resist the mention of them in the present article. One case, which was attested by the Rev. Mr. Gurney, is particularly interesting, as it shows to what an amazing extent this kind of gambling will carry persons; who, had it not been for the temptations held out by lotteries, might have lived with comfort and respectability, but who, from these kinds of speculations, have been reduced to the most abject state of poverty and distress. "I knew," says Mr. Gurney, "a widow in a good line of business, as a silk-dyer, which, I suppose, brought her in about 400*l.* a-year. She kept a very good house, and I was in habits of intimacy with the family. The foreman she had was in the habit of insuring in the lottery; he was led astray by an acquaintance, and he and his mistress insured to the amount of from 300*l.* to 400*l.* in a night, although the foreman had only 30*l.* a-year wages. It appeared, on his decease, he had insured immense sums of money within the last year of his life. I found that he had expended upwards of 100 guineas in the lottery, purchasing one ticket at 1*l.* and insuring away the rest. It came up a blank at last; and I verily believe the disappointment was the cause of his death. He died insolvent, and I acted as his executor, and paid three or four shillings in the pound to his creditors. He had received a great many bills for his mistress, which he had never accounted for, and was the ruin of her also; she was not able to pay three shillings in the pound. She was obliged to go into an alms-house, and died there in four or five months. They would send all the plate she possessed to raise money to carry on an insurance, which had begun perhaps at a low rate. The gentleman who drew the foreman into this practice was himself also ruined by it. His wife had an annuity of 400*l.* per annum settled upon her, he sold her life-interest, and she was obliged to live afterwards upon charity, while her husband, who had formerly kept his carriage, and lived in a good house in Queen-square, spent the last hours of his miserable existence within the rules of the Fleet prison." Various other instances of a similar kind were mentioned in the appendix to the report of the committee, where the parties, formerly in respectable circumstances, were reduced to misery and distress. But what serves to mark the evils of lotteries the stronger is, that it is not only the unsuccessful adventurer that is ruined by the failure of his speculation, but there are many cases where a successful speculator has had equal reason to deplore his first connection with this species of gambling. Robert Baker, esq. deposed, that "he remembered one very strong instance of distress arising out of the transactions in the lottery four or five years ago. It was the case of a journeyman who belonged to a club, which club purchased a ticket that came up the great prize. The share of this man was 100*l.* or thereabouts; he had been an industrious working man before, and he was persuaded by his friends to invest the money in the stocks, in the joint name of himself and wife, in order to prevent his making away with it. He did so, but soon got into habits of

idleness after he was possessed of the money; and he wanted his wife to join in the transfer of it. This occasioned quarrels, which proceeded to assaults; he changed his habits of industry to those of drunkenness and idleness, he destroyed all his domestic comforts, and was the ruin of his family." Many other cases of a similar description are given in the appendix to this report; in some of them mothers have neglected their children, and left them destitute of the common necessaries of life, while the money by which those necessaries should have been purchased has been gambled away in the insurance of certain numbers in the lottery. In other cases the wife has robbed an industrious and careful husband and father of the small and hard-earned savings of many months, and even of many years; and who, instead of finding his little treasure in the drawer in which it was deposited, and which he was about to increase by another small addition, found that the whole had been gambled away in lottery-speculations, and every article of his clothes, which were not likely to be immediately wanted, had been pawned in order to recover the former loss. In other cases, children have robbed their parents; servants their masters; suicides have been committed; and almost every crime that can be imagined, has been occasioned, either directly or indirectly, through the baneful influence of lotteries.

The committee before which the above mentioned facts were disclosed, were fully aware of all the evils we have recounted, and in the course of their report, declared, that "the foundation of the lottery-system is so radically vicious, that your committee feel convinced, that under no system of regulations which can be devised will it be possible for parliament to adopt it as an efficacious source of revenue, and at the same time divest it of all the evils of which it has hitherto proved so baneful a source. But, in case it should be thought expedient to continue state-lotteries, the number in each year should be limited to two lotteries, of not more than 30,000 tickets each; that the number of days allowed for drawing, instead of ten, should be brought down to eight for each lottery, the number fixed in 1802; that the number of tickets to be drawn each day should be uncertain, and left to the direction of the commissioners of the stamp-duties, and kept secret till the close of the drawing each day; care being taken, as the lottery proceeds, not to leave too great a number undrawn on the latter days of drawing; but that one moiety, or upwards, be drawn on the four first days thereof; that every lottery-office keeper should, in addition to his own license, take out a limited number of licenses for his agents; that the limitation of hours during which lottery-offices may be open for the transaction of business, viz. from eight o'clock in the morning till eight o'clock in the evening, enacted by 22 Geo. III. c. 47, and renewed in the lottery-acts in 1802 and the three following years, but omitted in those of 1806 and 1807, ought in future to be re-enacted, without the exception therein made, to Saturday evenings." These suggestions have been attended to in the lotteries of the last two or three years, which have been several of them drawn in one day, and consequently a considerable check has been given to illegal insurances. Still, however, many evils remain, which are so blended with the nature of lotteries, that it is impossible to separate them; but while, in a moral view, lotteries are to be reprobated, in the department of finance they are found so convenient to a minister, that we cannot flatter ourselves with the hope of their annihilation; and the application of palliatives to the disease is all that the nation must expect. In stating the lottery-scheme, the minister generally assures the house that he has taken great pains to prevent its mischievous operation; but, when the principle itself is radically vicious, it is impossible to obviate all the evil consequences. Considered as a tax, or mode of raising money for the state, we may say on the one hand that no one is taxed without his own consent, and on the other that trade is hurt by many persons employing their money that way rather



rather than in the purchase of necessaries, or of luxuries which are the great support of trade. That they are not ungrateful to the people of this country is evident, from the price the tickets have borne of late years above their intrinsic value: for it is to be observed, that, whatever may be the nature of the scheme, the exact sum of 10*l.* per ticket is allotted for prizes. Ten pounds therefore is the precise value of a ticket, though at present they do not come into the hands of the public under 2*l.* or 2*l.* a ticket, and in shares not under the rate of 2*l.* The contractors are allowed (with some small restrictions) to form the scheme, that is, to dispose of this 10*l.* a ticket as they please. Every scheme, and there are at present five in a year, is trumpeted forth as being, like Cassio's song, "more excellent than the last;" and it requires no small share of ingenuity to vary them. Sometimes the variation is in the mode of drawing, sometimes in the distribution of the prizes. A very short time has been lately allowed for drawing, in order to prevent insuring, because the government get nothing by that, and the people please themselves to their own injury. No lottery can be set on foot by private persons without the sanction of an act of parliament. If people have a mind to risque their money foolishly or wisely, it must be for the benefit of the government, not of each other.

Some persons are apt to suppose, that, as the rising generation becomes wiser, and better instructed, the evils of lotteries will cease of themselves, because nobody will engage in such unprofitable speculations. But, as the Edinburgh Review very justly observes, "the whole mischief and hazard of such practices is just as thoroughly known at present as it will be when the world is five thousand years older; and as much pains are taken to impress the ardent spirits of youth with the belief of those hazards as can well be taken by the monitors who may discharge that office in the most remote futurity. The truth is, that the offenders do not offend so much in ignorance as in presumption. They know very well, that men are oftener ruined than enriched by lotteries and the gaming-table; but they know too, that this is not always the case; and they flatter themselves that their good luck, and good judgment, will class them among the exceptions, and not among the ordinary examples of the rule. They are told well enough, for the most part, of the excessive folly of acting upon such a presumption, in matters of serious importance; but it is the nature of youth, to despise much of the wisdom that is pressed upon them, and to think well of their fortune and sagacity, till they have actually had experience of their slipperiness. We really have no idea that their future teachers will be able to change this nature, or to destroy the external distinction between the character of early and mature life; and therefore it is, that we despair of the cure of the manifold evils that spring from this source; and remain persuaded, that young men will be nearly as foolish, and as incapable of profiting by the experience of their seniors, ten thousand years hence, as they are at this moment."

But let us not suppose that this species of folly is more grateful to Englishmen than to the inhabitants of other countries. Games of chance are fascinating every-where: "Hope follows through." We shall quote but one instance, from Mr. Professor Martyn's Tour through Italy, of the popular fondness of the modern Romans for this gambling species of taxation: "The common people of Rome are in a ferment during all the time of the lottery, which is drawn eight times a-year. Such is the rage for it, that the quantity of bread baked in the city is at these seasons considerably less than usual: in short, it is the locust which consumes what the caterpillar had left." By the caterpillar, Mr. M. no doubt alludes to the miserable government of that country, once the mistress, now the contempt, of the world.

LOTTI (Antonio,) principal organist of St. Mark's at Venice, and afterward maestro di capella of the same cathedral, was one of the greatest men of his profession. In

his compositions, he combined with the learning of the old school all the grace, rich harmony, and brilliancy, of the new. He was long at the head of the Venetian school. His ecclesiastical compositions were only used at St. Mark's on great and solemn occasions: they are truly sublime. The kind of pathos in his style elevates the soul, and expresses all the grandeur and reverence of devotion. *Essais sur la Mus.* tom. iii. Lotti was the disciple of Legrenzi, the model of Haffé, one of the masters of Marcello, Galuppi, and Pescetti. His name is chiefly known in England by the dispute in the Academy of Ancient Music, at the Crown and Anchor, in 1732, concerning a madrigal which Bononcini was accused of having stolen from him. Lotti composed for the Venetian theatres, between the years 1698 and 1717, fifteen operas. His cantatas furnish specimens of recitatives that do honour to his sensibility. He was opera-composer at the court of Dresden, when the Santa Stelli, his wife, performed the part of first woman there, in 1718; and in 1720 he returned to Venice, where he was living in 1733. The time of his death is not known.

LO'TUL, a town of Bengal: sixteen miles west of Toree.

LOTUS, *f.* [from *λωτος*, sweet.] BIRD'S-FOOT TREFOIL; in botany, a genus of the class diadelphia, order decandria, natural order of papilionaceæ, or leguminosæ. The generic characters are—Calyx: umbel simple; perianthium one-leaved, tubular, half-five-cleft; teeth acute, equal, erect; permanent. Corolla: papilionaceous; banner roundish, bent down; claw oblong, concave; wings roundish, shorter than the banner, broad, converging upwards; keel gibbous below, closed above, acuminate, ascending, short. Stamina: filaments diadelphous, simple and nine-cleft, ascending, with broadish tips; antheræ small, simple. Pistillum: germ columnar, oblong; style simple, ascending; stigma an inflexed point. Pericarpium: legume cylindrical, stiff and straight, stuffed, longer than the calyx, many-celled, two-valved; seeds several, cylindrical.—*Essential Character.* Calyx tubular; wings converging longitudinally upwards; legume cylindrical, straight.

The name *λωτος*, or *lotus*, is given by the ancients both to an herb and a tree, each different from the plants contained in this genus. The herb is a species of Nymphaea; and the tree-lotus is now supposed to be the RHAMNUS lotus, which see.

*Species.* I. With few legumes, not forming a head.

1. Lotus maritimus, or sea bird's-foot trefoil: legumes solitary, membranaceous, quadrangular; leaves smooth, bractes lanceolate. Root perennial. Stems several, decumbent, slender, a foot and a half long, round, simple, or with a few branches at the base, having stiffish hairs scattered over them, pressed close to the stem. Leaves ternate; leaflets obovate, fleshy, sessile, even, the edge towards the top having hairs scattered over it. Stipules ovate, acute, even, longer than the petioles, the same size with the leaves. Peduncles axillary, solitary, twice as long as the leaves, round, commonly one-flowered, seldom two-flowered. Bractee three-leaved, a little shorter than the calyx, the middle one longer than the others. Calyx oblong, even, hairy at the edge: corolla large, yellow, with flesh-coloured veins on the middle of the banner underneath, the wings of a deeper yellow; keel short, with a greenish tip. The legume has four longitudinal wings. It differs from the third species, by its perennial root, by the smoothness and greater fleshyiness of the leaves, by the floral leaflets being lanceolate and not like those on the stem, and by the calyxes being less deeply cut. Native of many parts of Europe, on the sea-coast, as Sweden, Denmark, Silesia, the south of France, the county of Nice, &c. Ray found it at the mouth of the Tiber. Cultivated by Mr. Miller in 1759. It flowers from May to October.

2. Lotus siliquosus, or square-podded bird's-foot trefoil: legumes solitary, membranaceous-quadrangular; stems procumbent, leaves pubescent, underneath. This is distinguished from the preceding, to which it is very nearly allied, by its procumbent stems, white pubescent, a foot long;



long; its hairy leaves and calyxes. Leaves alternate, petioled; leaflets subsessile, cordate-obovate, blunt, terminated by a spinule, quite entire, bright green and smooth above, white and silky underneath. Flower solitary, terminating, large, pale yellow, subsessile, surrounded by lanceolate ternate leaflets. Native of the south of Europe, in moist meadows. Mr. Professor Martyn gathered it near Lancy, Vevay, and Aigle, in May 1779. Cultivated in 1683 by Mr. James Sutherland. Gerard calls it "horned or codded claver;" Parkinson, "smooth codded trefoile of Mompelier." Gerard and Leyfer do not distinguish this from the preceding. Magnol, who first separated the sea from the meadow lotus, says that the latter has smooth fat thick leaves, and narrower pods.

3. *Lotus tetragonolobos*, or winged bird's-foot trefoil: legumes solitary, membranaceous-quadrangular, bractes ovate. Root annual. Stems several, about a foot long, having at each joint a ternate leaf. Seeds subglobular, the size of a small pea, smooth, pale or livid purple, without spots. It flowers in June and July, and the seeds ripen in autumn. It was formerly cultivated as an esculent plant, for the green pods, which are said to be still eaten in some of our northern counties, but they are very coarse. This plant is now chiefly cultivated in flower-gardens for ornament. It is a native of Sicily, where Ray found it on the hills above Messina; and was cultivated in 1596 by Gerard. Parkinson calls it "crimson-blossomed or square-codded pease." In Johnson's edition of Gerard's Herbal, it is named square crimson-velvet pease. Ray calls it square-codded vetch. None of these authors speak of the pods being esculent. Clusius says the seeds were frequently sent out of Italy under the name of *sandalida*, which Adanson has adopted for the generic name of these winged lotuses, and Scopoli for the trivial of the second species.

4. *Lotus conjugatus*, or twin-podded bird's-foot trefoil: legumes conjugate, membranaceous-quadrangular, bractes oblong-ovate. This agrees with the preceding in habit, age, leaves, hairiness, and legumes; but, differs in the corollas being only half the size; the legumes in pairs, with the wings, entire, and less waved or curled; and the leaves not embracing the stem at the base, but gaping on the opposite sides. The stems are branching, and a foot long. It flowers in July, and the seeds ripen in the autumn. Native of France about Montpellier.

5. *Lotus tetraphyllus*, or four-leaved bird's-foot trefoil: legumes solitary; leaves ternate, obcordate-wedge-shaped; stipule solitary, similar; bractes one-leaved. Stems filiform. Corolla yellow, with the back of the banner dark purple. It is distinguished from all the other species by its solitary stipules and one-leaved bractes. The former are lanceolate-oblong, and the latter sometimes, but seldom, two-leaved. Native of Majorca.

6. *Lotus edulis*, or esculent bird's-foot trefoil: legumes subsolitary, gibbous, curved in. This is an annual plant, with several trailing stalks, a foot long. The flowers stand singly on long axillary peduncles; they are yellow and small; and are succeeded by thick pods, arched with a deep furrow on the outside. Native of Italy and Candia. Ray says that he met with this, or one very like it, about Naples and in Sicily. Miller, who cultivated it in 1759, had the seeds sent him from Nice. The pods are eaten in Candia, when young, by the poorer inhabitants. It flowers here in July, but the seeds do not ripen in cold summers.

7. *Lotus peregrinus*, or flat-podded bird's-foot trefoil: legumes subbinate, linear, compressed, nodding. This is an annual plant like the eleventh, but does not branch so much; the leaflets are rounder at their ends, and smoother; the peduncles are shorter, and seldom sustain more than two flowers; they are succeeded by two very narrow pods about two inches long, and hanging downwards. Native of Spain and Portugal. Cultivated here in 1713. It flowers in July.

8. *Lotus angustissimus*, or narrow-podded bird's-foot tre-

foil: legumes subbinate, linear, stiff upright; stem upright; peduncles alternate. Root weak, branched. Stems straight, numerous, a foot high, branched, reddish, beset with long whitish hairs; at each joint a ternate leaf; leaflets oblong, acute. Peduncles axillary, solitary, an inch or more in length, with a yellow flower or two at top, in hairy calyxes. Legumes generally one, very seldom two; slender, near two inches in length, obsolete torulose where the seeds are: these are twenty or even twenty-three in number, spherical, pale sulphur-coloured, very smooth, shining like pearls, the size of a pin's head. Native of the south of France; Ray gathered it near Naples. Miller has confounded this with one of the varieties of *L. corniculata*.

9. *Lotus glaucous*, or glaucous bird's-foot trefoil: legumes subbinate, cylindrical, smooth; leaflets somewhat wedge-shaped, fleshy, hoary; stipules leaf-form. Native of Madeira, where it was found by Mr. Francis Masson. Introduced in 1777. It is biennial; and flowers from June to August.

10. *Lotus Arabicus*, or red-flowered bird's-foot trefoil: legumes cylindrical, awned; stems prostrate; peduncles three-flowered; bractes one-leaved. Root perennial. Stems several, a foot and a half high, scarcely pubescent. Native of Arabia, where it was found by Forskahl, and in Surat by Brad. Introduced in 1773, by the chevalier Murray. It flowers from July to November.

11. *Lotus ornithopodioides*, or claw-podded bird's-foot trefoil: legumes subternate, bowed, compressed; stems diffusid. This is an annual plant, which sends up many stiff stalks from one to two feet high, dividing into many branches. Leaves ternate, with two appendages or stipules. Peduncles axillary, two or three inches long, terminated by a cluster of yellow flowers: these sleep during the night with the bractes covering them. Native of Sicily. It flowers in July, and the seeds ripen in autumn. Cultivated in 1683, by Mr. James Sutherland: it was found by Ray on the hills above Messina, and at Capo Passaro; by Gerard, Sauvages, &c. in Provence; and by Pallas in Siberia.

12. *Lotus jacobæus*, or dark-flowered bird's-foot trefoil: legumes subternate; stem herbaceous, upright; leaflets linear. Stem slender, woody, from two to three feet high, sending out many slender herbaceous branches. Flowers axillary from the upper part of the stem, four or five on very slender peduncles, of a yellowish deep purple colour. Native of the Cape Verd Islands. Cultivated in 1714, by the dukes of Beaufort, at Badminton. It flowers all the summer and autumn, and many times great part of the winter. Mr. Miller says that he had the seeds from the Cape of Good Hope.

13. *Lotus Creticus*, or silvery bird's-foot trefoil: legumes subternate; stem suffrutescens; leaves silky, thinning. This rises with slender stems which require support, from three to four feet high, sending out a few side branches. At each joint is a neat silvery ternate leaf, with two appendages, or stipules. Peduncles axillary, from two to three inches long, sustaining heads of yellow flowers, which part in the middle, each head containing four or six flowers. These appear in May, June, and July, and are succeeded by long taper pods filled with roundish seeds, which ripen in the autumn. Native of Spain and the Levant. Morison had seeds from Aleppo, which produced plants at Oxford, before 1680.

14. *Lotus Dioscorides*, or Dioscorides's lotus: stem upright, branched; peduncles subbiflorous: legumes columnar, ovate, torose. Root annual. Stems a palm and half in height, round. Flowers yellow, small. Found near Villafranca, in the county of Nice, on the sea-coast.

15. *Lotus arboreus*, or tree bird's-foot trefoil: legumes quinque; leaflets obcordate; stem arboreous. Native of New Zealand.

11. With many-flowered peduncles, forming a head.  
16. *Lotus hirsutus*, or hairy bird's-foot trefoil: heads roundish; stem upright, rough-haired, legumes ovate.



This has a perennial stalk, three feet high. When the roots are large, they frequently send up several of these stalks, especially if the old ones be cut down; they are hairy, and divide into several branches. John Bauhin says it is from half a yard to a yard in height; and Magnol observed it in a wood a yard and a half high. Several of the species are very short in open situation, but are drawn up very much when they grow among bushes. Native of the south of France, Italy, and Sicily; also of the Levant. It was cultivated in 1683, by Mr. James Sutherland; and flowers from June to August. — It is called by Gerard *heary clover*; and by Parkinson *greater pile trefoil*.

17. *Lotus Græcus*, or five-leaved bird's-foot trefoil: heads roundish; stem upright, rough-haired; leaves quinate; legumes ovate. This is a middle species between the preceding and following, inasmuch that it is difficult to say which it approaches the nearest. Stem annual, but more spreadingly branched. Flowers white, less than in *hirsutus*, larger than in *rectus*. It differs from all the rest in having quinate (not ternate) leaves; that is, five leaflets, besides the stipules; which are oblong, as in *L. hirsutus*; not cordate, as in *L. rectus*. Native of the Levant; Greece, and Arabia.

18. *Lotus rectus*, or upright bird's-foot trefoil: heads subglobular; stem upright, even; legume straight, smooth. This has a strong perennial root; from which arise many upright strong stalks, from three to four feet high, covered with a purplish bark, and towards the top sending out a few side branches. Flowers whitish, numerous, in a horizontal bundle. Legumes more than twenty, whereas in *L. hirsutus* there are fewer than ten; they are cylindrical, obsoletely torulose at the seeds, black, the length of the human nail; and contain six or eight small globular black seeds, which are not shining. Native of the south of Europe; observed in the south of France, Calabria, and Sicily, by Ray; in Arragon, by d'Affo; near Lyons, Turin, &c. by Morison; in the county of Nice, by Allione. Parkinson calls it *lesser pile trefoil*. It was cultivated in 1683, by Mr. James Sutherland.

19. *Lotus corniculata*, or common bird's-foot trefoil: stems prostrate; heads of flowers flat; legumes cylindrical, spreading. Root perennial, tapering, striking deeply into the earth. Stems several, slender, bluntly four-cornered, procumbent except where supported, as in meadows or among bushes, from six or seven inches to a foot and a half in length; varying even more in different soils and situation, and in the several varieties. "I have now before me, August 17, 1797," says Mr. Professor Martyn, "specimens from the same spot; some growing detached, perfectly procumbent, and only six inches long; others three feet and a half high, by having run up among bushes, which they do without either twisting or clasping by tendrils. Leaves ternate, petioled, one at each joint, the leaflets differing extremely in form, in the several varieties, from bluntly ovate to linear-lanceolate; those in the specimens before me are ovate, terminating in a short point, on very short pedicels, the middle one narrowing towards the base, so as to be almost wedge-shaped; they are smooth, and the common petiole is membranaceous. The flowers grow in flattened heads resembling umbels, on peduncles from two to three inches and a half in length, but on pedicels hardly a line long. There is a single sessile ternate leaf at the base of each head without any stipules; and sometimes there is only one leaflet or two; the number of flowers varies from three or four to twelve or thirteen; none of my specimens have more than six, very few more than four, and some only one or two. Calyx fringed with long soft hairs; corolla, before it opens, of a bloody red on the outside, and of a yellowish green within; when expanded, of a full yellow; all the petals are equal, and stand each on narrow separate claws; the banner bent back, and the wings oblong-ovate. Legumes smooth, spreading like the spokes of a wheel, or rather like the fingers, or birds' claws, and ending in a long straight point. Seeds many, sometimes more than twenty, small,

somewhat kidney-shaped, and spotted. I do not find that more than three or four pods in a head come to maturity." Native of all parts of Europe, and also of Japan, in meadows, pastures, heaths, by road-sides, in hedges, among bushes, and in woods: flowering from June to August. The similitude of the stipules to leaves occasioned some of the old writers to call it *Lotus pentaphyllos*; Gerard however calls it *small coddled trefoil*; and Ray, *bird's-foot trefoil*, which is the name now commonly retained. Withering calls it *bird's-foot clover*. In Yorkshire it is said to be called *cheescake-groß*, and in some other counties, *butter-jags*, and *crow-toes*. It has been recommended for cultivation by Ellis under the name of *ladies finger*, by which it is confounded with *Anthyllis vulneraria*, a much inferior plant in rural economy; and by Dr. Anderson under the name of *Astragalus glycyphyllos*, or milkwort, which is a strong-smelling sticky plant, that does not seem to be agreeable to cattle, though Linnæus affirms that horses, kine, goats, and sheep, eat it. In Germany it is named *gehornie schotenklee*, *wilder fleinklee*, *gelber sunsolattriger klee*, *gelbe vogelwicke*, *kleiner hornklee*, *hornwicke*, *walzenkraut*, *frauenfingerkraut*, *unserer lieben frauens schuhlein*; in Dutch, *gehoornde klaveren*, *gekroonde melken*, *jufferfchoentjes*; in Danish, *kierringtand*, *kraeklover*; in Swedish, *haringetander*; in French, *lotier corniculé ou des pres*, *trefle jaune*.

Mr. Miller has made three species out of this; and several varieties are admitted. But Mons. Villars justly calls this species a Proteus, and remarks that he has seen individuals of one of the varieties of it, that approached nearer to *Lotus hirsutus*, in appearance, than to many individuals of this species. Where plants are so given to change, it is easy, but dangerous, to multiply species. Linnæus, in distinguishing the first and second species, only mentions that the appearance and place of growth are different, whereas the place of growth may probably occasion the difference in the appearance.

The flowers of bird's-foot trefoil become green when dried, in which respect they resemble those of Indigo. Mr. Miller says, he has always observed, that cattle of all sorts avoid eating this plant, whilst the grass all round it has been eaten very bare. But he ought to have remarked, that it is the designation of Providence, that, whilst cattle crop the herbage, they generally leave the flowering stems untouched, otherwise many plants could not be propagated. When he goes farther indeed, and affirms that he has cut the plant when young, and given it to various animals, but could never get them to eat it; we can only say that more modern experience contradicts his experience, whatever it might be. Linnæus's account is, that kine, goats, and horses, eat it; but that sheep and swine are not fond of it. On the contrary we are told, that it is cultivated in Hertfordshire as paturage for sheep. It makes extremely good hay; in moist meadows grows to a greater height than the other trefoils, and seems to be of a quality equal, if not superior, to most of them. In common with several other leguminous plants, it gives substance to the hay, and perhaps contributes to render it more palatable and wholesome for cattle. Dr. Anderson affirms, that, as every species of domestic animal eats the bird's-foot trefoil, (or milkwort, as he calls it, having mistaken it for *Astragalus glycyphyllos*, a plant totally different in appearance, character, and qualities,) in preference to every other plant, it seldom comes to flower in pasture-grounds, unless where they have been saved from cattle for some time. What first recommended it to his notice, was the having observed it to grow and flourish in poor ground; as in the midst of a barren moor, where the soil was so poor that even heath could hardly grow; upon bare obdurate clays; and in dry and barren sands. It certainly flourishes not only in these, but also in a chalky soil; and we may add, that on moors, heaths, and downs, hard stocked with sheep, we may observe the surface to be yellow with the flowers of this plant; which contradicts what Dr. Anderson asserts above, that it seldom



dom comes to flower in pastures; without however confirming the assertion of Linnæus, that sheep dislike it; or of Miller, that no cattle will eat it; for they devour the herbage, though they leave the flowering-stalks untouched, as we remarked above. Dr. Anderson's figure is not exact in the leaves, there being always three leaflets with two stipules, whereas he has never more than four, and frequently only two.

20. *Lotus cytifoides*, or downy bird's-foot trefoil: heads halved; stem diffused, very much branched; leaves tomentose. This is a perennial plant, sending out from the root many stalks, which branch out their whole length. Flowers on short peduncles, four or six in a divided head; they are yellow, and appear in July. Pods taper, with roundish seeds, ripening in autumn. Native of the south of Europe, on the sea-coast.

21. *Lotus dorycnium*, or shrubby bird's-foot trefoil: heads leafless; leaves sessile, quinate. This rises with weak shrubby stalks, three or four feet high, sending out many slender branches, thinly set with small hoary leaves, having five leaflets, spreading like the fingers, and sessile. Flowers at the extremity of the branches in small heads; they are very small and white, appear at the end of June, or in July, continue to September, and are succeeded by short pods, containing two or three small round seeds. Native of the south of Europe. Cultivated before 1640, by Parkinson.

Vahl remarks, that there are many specimens in the herbariums of several botanists, so different, that they are probably distinct species. Almost all the old writers, some of the moderns, and Linnæus himself in his earlier works, made the *Dorycnium* a distinct genus. Villars says it forms a genus between *Lotus* and *Trifolium*, differing from the former in the shortness of its legume, its woodiness, its distinct and more regular leaves, its calyx and very small flowers. It would range better with the trefoils, if it were not an absurdity to speak of a trefoil with quinate leaves, and if that genus were not much loaded with species already. He makes two species of *Dorycnium*. 1. *D. suffruticosum*; with suffruticose upright stems. 2. *D. herbaceum*, with a diffused herbaceous stem.

22. *Lotus medicaginoïdes*: legumes umbelled, bowed; leaflets obcordate, toothletted. Native of Siberia, resembling *Medicago polymorpha* when in flower, but smaller, with the legumes of *Trigonella*. Doubtful whether it be of this genus, or a *Trigonella*.

23. *Lotus oligoceros*: legumes binate, round, straight, striated, villose, dotted with white. Root annual. Stems branched, villose, half a foot or more in height. It approaches to *L. angustissimus*; but the stem is upright. It differs from *L. corniculata* in the stems, floescence, life, &c. The legume also is not one-celled; nor are the seeds cylindrical, but spherical. It flowers the beginning of July (in Italy), and perfects the seeds by the end of that month. This species should have been placed in the first division.

*Propagation and Culture*.—1, 2, 4, 6, 7, 11, 20. These are propagated by seeds, which should be sown early in April upon an open bed or border exposed to the sun, where the plants are to remain; when they come up they must be thinned, leaving them near two feet asunder, and afterwards they must be kept clean from weeds, which is all the culture they require.

3. The winged pea is an annual plant commonly cultivated in flower-gardens for ornament. The seeds are sown in patches, five or six together, where they are designed to remain. If the seeds all grow, some of the plants may be pulled up, leaving only two or three in each patch, and afterwards they will require no other care but to keep them clean from weeds.

12, 13, 16. These are too tender to live abroad; the plants therefore are kept in pots, which in winter are placed in a warm airy glass-case or dry stove, but in summer are placed abroad in a sheltered situation. They may be easily propagated by cuttings during the summer sea-

son, and also by seeds; but the plants which have been two or three times increased by cuttings, are seldom fruitful. The plants are subject to go off at once, and therefore new ones should be constantly raised, especially as they are beautiful, and almost always in flower.

18. This sort may be cultivated for feeding cattle in the same manner as lucern. It rises easily from seeds, is very hardy, and will thrive on any light dry poor-ground.

19. Dr. Anderson sowed the common bird's-foot trefoil with his ordinary hay-feeds. It grew the first season as tall as the great clover, and was scarcely distinguishable from lucern, but by the slenderness of the stalk, and proportional smallness of the leaf. Like lucern, it is perennial, sends down a long root to a great depth, at first small, but becoming at length of a considerable size; so that it is several years before it attains its full perfection; but, when once established, it remains many years in full vigour, and produces annually a great quantity of fodder. In autumn 1773, he cut the stalk from an old plant in an indifferent soil, and, having dried it, found that it weighed fourteen ounces and a half. Like lucern, it is never affected with the severest drought; but it does not resemble that plant in delicateness of constitution; as it thrives in the stiffest clays, and stands its ground among grass and weeds. The stalks die down entirely in winter, and do not come up in the spring till clover begins to advance, so that it can never be of use but as a summer-pasture. Neither does it advance very fast after it is cut down, or eat over, even in summer. Mr. Curtis justly remarks; whether this plant be deserving of the encomiums here bestowed upon it, the practical farmer must determine. There appears no reason why feed might not be obtained from it; and it should seem that land not strong enough to bear clover might be improved by the introduction of bird's-foot trefoil. "August 18, 1797. I gave a handful of it in full flower and seed to a working horse, who ate it greedily in preference to very good hay on which he was then feeding. A cow also in full pasture received it with seeming avidity." *Martyn's Miller*.—See ANTHYLIS, ASPALATHUS, CELTIS, CORONILLA, CYTISUS, DIOSPYROS, EBENUS, INDIGOPERA, LIPARIA, NYMPHÆA, ONONIS, RHAMNUS, TRIFOLIUM, and TRIGONELLA.

LOU'ZIN, a town of Prussia, in the province of Natangen, with a castle; situated on a canal, which joins the Angerburg and Leventin lakes. It is fifty-six miles south-east of Königsburg. Lat. 53. 53. N. lon 21. 57. E.

LOU-CHI', a town of China, of the third rank, in Honan: forty-five miles south-east of Tchen.

LOU-KI', a town of China, of the third rank, in Kiangsi: twenty miles east of Kien-tchang.

LOU-KI', a town of China, of the third rank, in Hou-quang: seventeen miles south-west of Tching-tcheou.

LOU-KIANG', a town of China, of the third rank, in Kiang-nan: forty miles south of Lin-tcheou.

LOU-KIANG', a river which rises in the south-west part of China, and runs into the sea at Mastaban. In the Birmah dominions it is called *Thakwayn*, or *Thanluayn*.

LOU-KI'EN, a river of China, which runs into the Hoang about two miles west of Ho-kiu.

LOU-LEANG', a city of China, of the second rank, in Yun-nan: 1145 miles south-south-west of Peking. Lat. 25. 6. N. lon. 103. 21. E.

LOU-NGAN', a city of China, of the first rank, in Chen-si: 267 miles south-south-west of Peking. Lat. 36. 42. N. lon. 116. 54. E.

LOU-NGAN', a city of China, of the second rank, in Kiang-nan: 500 miles south of Peking. Lat. 31. 48. N. lon. 116. 14. E.

LOU-PAN', a city of China, of the second rank, in Yun-nan: 1147 miles south-south-west of Peking. Lat. 24. 50. N. lon. 103. E.

LOU-TCHOU', a river of Thibet, which runs into the Sanpoo twenty-two miles south-west of Tankia.

LOU-Y', a town of China, of the third rank, in Honan: thirty-five miles south-south-west of Coue-te.

LOU-Y',



LOU-Y', a city of China, of the second rank, in Quang-tong: 1225 miles south-south-west of Peking. Lat. 20. 51. N. lon. 109. 22. E.

LOVA, a river of Russia, which runs into the Velika eight miles north-west of Onogka.

LOVA, a town of Hungary: twenty miles west of St. Croit.

LOV'AGE, *f.* in botany. See *LIGUSTICUM*, vol. xii. p. 699.

LOV'AGE (Bastard.) See *LASERPITIUM* filer, vol. xii. p. 256.

LOUANG', a river of France, which runs into the Laye five miles north of Bethune.

LOUAR', a town of Hindoostan, in Dowlatabad: ten miles west-north-west of Kondur.

LOV'AT, a river of Russia, which rises from three lakes in the province of Polotsk, and runs into the Lake Ilmen, near Stara Rusa, in the government of Novgorod.

LOV'AT, a town of European Turkey, in Bulgaria: sixty-four miles east of Sofia.

LOV'AT (Lord), who was beheaded for treason in the year 1745. See the article ENGLAND, vol. vi. p. 718, 20. Mr. Boswell tells us, that Dr. Johnson used to repeat with great energy the following verses "On Lord Lovat's Execution," which appeared in the Gentleman's Magazine for April 1747; but there is no authority to say they were his own. Indeed one of the best critics of our age suggests, that the word "indifferently" being used in the sense of "without concern," and being also very unpoetical, renders it improbable that they should have been his composition. The lines are these:

Pity'd by gentle minds, Kilmarnock died:  
The brave, Balmerino, were on thy side;  
Radcliffe, unhappy in his crimes of youth,  
Steady in what he still mistook for truth,  
Beheld his death so decently unmov'd,  
The soft lamented, and the brave approv'd.  
But Lovat's fate indifferently we view,  
True to no king, to no religion true:  
No fair forgets the ruin he has done;  
No child laments the tyrant of his son;  
No tory pities, thinking what he was;  
No whig compassions, for he left the cause;  
The brave regret not, for he was not brave;  
The honest mourn not, knowing him a knave!

Mr. B. justly observes, that these verses are somewhat too severe on the extraordinary person who is the chief figure in them; for he was undoubtedly brave. His pleantry during his solemn trial was very remarkable. When asked if he had any questions to put to sir Everard Fawcener, who was one of the strongest witnesses against him, he answered "I only wish him joy of his young wife." And after sentence of death, in the horrible terms in such cases of treason, was pronounced upon him, and he was retiring from the bar, he said, "Fare you well, my lords; we shall not all meet again in one place." He behaved with perfect composure at his execution, and called out *Dulce et decorum est pro patria mori*; "It is pleasing and honourable to die for one's country!" Boswell's Life of Johnson, vol. i.

LOVATOVA, a town on the east coast of the island of Flores. Lat. 8. 30. S. lon. 122. 50. E.

LOU'BENS, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Garonne: twelve miles north-west of Revel, and fifteen east of Toulouse.

LOUBE'RE (Simon de la), son of the judge-criminal of Toulouse, was born at that city in 1642. He studied in the Jesuits' College, and displayed the vivacity of his parts by an abundance of light compositions, such as songs, vaudevilles, and verses of gallantry, in the number of which he was scarcely surpassed by any man of his time. He did not, however, neglect more serious pursuits; and particularly attended to politics and public law. He commenced his political career with being secretary to M. de St. Romain, ambassador to Switzerland. In 1687 he was

appointed by Louis XIV. his envoy-extraordinary to the court of Siam, between which and that of France an intercourse had been formed by the artifices of the Jesuits. Loubere remained only about three months in the country, during which he made it his business to collect information concerning its natural and civil history, the religion, manners, &c. of the people. From these materials, and the account of his voyage, he composed a "Relation," on his return, first printed at Paris in 1691, 2 vols. 12mo. which became a popular work. He was afterwards sent without a public character into Spain, on a secret commission, supposed to have been that of detaching the Spanish and Portuguese courts from their alliance with England; but, the design transpiring, he was arrested at Madrid, and obtained his release only in consequence of reprisals upon some Spaniards in France. He attached himself to the chancellor Pontchartrain, minister of the finances and marine, with whose son he travelled. By the minister's influence, he was elected in 1693 into the French academy; on which occasion la Fontaine wrote an epigram, the point of which was, that this election was an impost laid by Pontchartrain on the academy; whence his literary character may be estimated. He afterwards retired to his native city, where he re-established the *floral games*, which had sunk into decay. His long life of eighty-seven years complete closed in 1729. Loubere was a man of very general knowledge, acquainted with several languages ancient and modern, and a writer in poetry, history, politics, mathematics, and other branches. He is, however, only remembered for his account of Siam. *Moreri.*

LOU'BES, a town of France, in the department of the Gironde; twelve miles north-east of Bourdeaux.

LOUBI'ERE, a town of the island of Dominica, on the west coast: seventeen miles south of Portsmouth.

LOU'BO, a town of Benin, at the mouth of the river Formosa: sixty miles south-west of Benin.

LOUBOU'X, a town of France, in the department of the Landes; nine miles south-east of St. Sever.

LOUBRESSAC', a town of France, in the department of the Lot: four miles west of St. Cere.

LOUCHOU', a town of Persia, in the province of Mazanderan: forty-five miles north-east of Casbin.

LOUD, *adj.* Noisy: striking the ear with great force:

Contending on the Lesbian shore,  
His prowess Philomelides confests'd,  
And loud acclaiming Greeks the victor blefs'd. *Pope.*

The numbers soft and clear,  
Gently steal upon the ear;  
Now louder, and yet louder rise,  
And fill with spreading sounds the skies. *Pope.*

Clamorous; turbulent.—She is loud and stubborn; her sect abide not in her house. *Proverbs.*

LOU'DE, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Loire: six miles north-west of Le Puy en Velay.

LOUDEAC', a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the North Coasts. Here is an iron-forge, and a manufacture of thread. It is twenty miles south of St. Brieu, and twenty-seven south-fourth-east of Guingamp. Lat. 48. 8. N. lon. 2. 40. W.

LOU'DES, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Loire, and chief place of a canton, in the district of Le Puy: six miles north-west of Le Puy. The place contains 800, and the canton 5377, inhabitants, in nine communes.

LOU'DLY, *adv.* Noisily; so as to be heard far:

The soldier that philosopher well blam'd,  
Who long and loudly in the schools declaim'd. *Denham.*

Clamorously; with violence of voice.—I read above fifty pamphlets, written by as many presbyterian divines, loudly disclaiming toleration. *Swift.*

LOU'DNESS, *f.* Noise; force of sound; turbulence; vehemence or furiousness of clamour.—Had any disaster made room for grief, it would have moved according to prudence,



prudence, and the proportions of the provocation: it would not have fallied out into complaint or *loudness*. *South*.

LOU'DON, a county of Virginia, in America, on the river Potowmac, adjoining Fairfax, Berkeley, and Faquier, counties; about fifty miles long and twenty broad; containing 15,533 free inhabitants, and 4990 slaves. Its chief town is Leesburg. Quarries of grey stone, white flint, and lime, are found in this county. The climate is favourable to apples, pears, peaches, plums, cherries, and grapes. The county was first settled from Pennsylvania and New Jersey.

LOU'DON, a township in Rockingham county, New Hampshire, taken from Canterbury, and incorporated in 1773; situated east of the Merrimack-river; and containing 1279 inhabitants.—A township in Berkshire county, Massachusetts; twenty-one miles south-east of Lenox; incorporated in 1773; containing 614 inhabitants, and 13,000 acres, of which 2944 are ponds.

LOUDUN, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Vienne, situated on an eminence between the Creuse and the Dive; twelve miles east of Thouars. The place contains 5138, and the canton 11,299, inhabitants, in eighteen communes. Lat. 47. 0. N. lon. 0. 10. E.

LOUE, a town of France, in the department of the Sarthe, and chief place of a canton, in the district of Le Mans; fifteen miles west of Le Mans. The place contains 1204, and the canton 12,563, inhabitants, in sixteen communes.

To LOVE, *v. a.* [*lupian*, *San.*] To regard with passionate affection, as that of one sex to the other.—The jealous man wishes himself a kind of deity to the person he loves; he would be the only employment of her thoughts. *Addison*.

Good shepherd, tell this youth what 'tis to love.

—It is to be made all of sighs and tears;

It is to be made all of faith and service;

It is to be all made of fantasy,

All made of passion, and all made of wishes;

All adoration, duty, and obedience;

All humbleness, all patience, all impatience,

All purity, all trial, all observance. *Shakespeare.*

To regard with the affection of a friend:

None but his brethren he, and sisters, knew,

Whom the kind youth preferred to me,

And much above myself I lov'd them too. *Cowley.*

To regard with parental tenderness.—He that loveth me shall be loved of my Father; and I will love him, and will manifest myself to him. *John*.—To be pleased with; to delight in.—Fish used to salt water delight more in fresh: we see that salmons and smelts love to get into rivers, though against the stream. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*

He lov'd my worthless rhimes, and, like a friend,  
Would find out something to commend. *Cowley.*

To regard with reverent unwillingness to offend.—Love the Lord thy God with all thine heart. *Deut. vi. 5.*

LOVE, *f.* The passion between the sexes.—You know y'are in my pow'r by making love. *Dryden.*

Let mutual joys our mutual trust combine,  
And love and love-born confidence be thine. *Pope.*

Kindness; good-will; friendship.—By this shall all men know that ye are my disciples, if ye have love one to another. *John xiii. 35.*

What love, think't thou, I sue so much to get?

That love which virtue begs, and virtue grants. *Shakespeare.*

Courtship:

Demetrius

Made love to Nedar's daughter Helena,  
And won her soul. *Shakesp. Midf. Night's Dream.*

If you will marry, make your loves to me;

My lady is bespoken. *Shakespeare's King Lear.*

Tenderness; parental care.—No religion that ever was, so fully represents the goodness of God, and his tender love to mankind, which is the most powerful argument to the love of God. *Tillotson*.—Liking; inclination to: as, The love of one's country:

In youth, of patrimonial wealth posselt,  
The love of science faintly warm'd his breast. *Fenton.*

Object beloved.—The lover and the love of human kind. *Pope.*

If that the world and love were young  
And truth in every shepherd's tongue;  
These pretty pleasures might me move,  
To live with thee, and be thy love. *Shakespeare.*

Lewdness:

He is not lolling on a lewd love bed,  
But on his knees at meditation. *Shakespeare.*

Unreasonable liking.—The love to sin makes a man sin against his own reason. *Taylor*.—Fondness; concord.—Shall I come unto you with a rod, or in love, and in the spirit of meekness? *1 Cor. iv. 21.*

Come, love and health to all!

Then I'll sit down: give me some wine; fill full. *Shakesp.*

Principle of union.—Love is the great instrument of nature, the bond and cement of society, the spirit and spring of the universe: love is such an affection as cannot so properly be said to be in the soul, as the soul to be in that: it is the whole man wrapt up into one desire. *South*.—Picturesque representation of love:

The lovely babe was born with every grace:  
Such was his form as painters, when they show  
Their utmost art, on naked loves bestow. *Dryden.*

A word of endearment:

'Tis no dishonour, trust me, love, 'tis none:  
I would die for thee. *Dryden's Don Sebastian.*

Due reverence to God.—Love is of two sorts, of friendship and of desire; the one betwixt friends, the other betwixt lovers; the one a rational, the other a sensitive, love: so our love of God consists of two parts, as esteeming of God, and desiring of him. *Hammond*.—The love of God makes a man chaste without the laborious arts of fasting, and exterior disciplines; he reaches at glory without any other arms but those of love. *Taylor*.—A kind of thin silk stuff.—This leaf held near the eye, and obverted to the light, appeared so full of pores, with such a transparency as that of a sieve, a piece of cypress, or love hood. *Boyle on Colours*. [Used poetically by Spenser for] Lover:

He unto her a penance did impose,  
Which was, that through the world's wyde wilderness  
She wander should in companie of those,  
Till she had sav'd so many loves as she did lose. *Fairy Queen.*

LOVE, in a large sense of the word, denotes all those affections of the pleasing kind which objects and incidents raise in us; thus we are said to love not only intelligent agents of morally good dispositions, but also sensual pleasures, riches, and honours. But love in its usual and more appropriate signification, may be defined, "that affection which, being compounded of animal desire, esteem, and benevolence, becomes the bond of attachment and union between individuals of the different sexes; and makes them feel in the society of each other a species of happiness which they experience no-where else." We call it an *affection* rather than a *passion*, because it involves a desire of the happiness of its object: and that its constituent parts are those which have been just enumerated, we shall first endeavour to prove, and then proceed to trace its rise and progress from a selfish appetite to a generous sentiment.

Animal desire is the actual energy of the sensual appetite: and that it is an essential part of the complex affection, which is properly called love, is apparent from this consideration,



consideration, that, though a man may have sentiments of esteem and benevolence towards women who are both old and ugly, he never supposes himself to be in love with any woman to whom he feels not the sensual appetite to have a stronger tendency than to other individuals of her sex. On the other hand, that animal desire *alone* cannot be called the affection of love is evident; because he who gratifies such a desire without esteeming its object, and willing to communicate at the same time that he receives enjoyment, loves not the woman, but himself. Mere animal desire has nothing in view but the species and the sex of its object; and, before it make a selection, it must be combined with sentiments very different from itself. The first sentiment with which it is combined, and by which a man is induced to prefer one woman to another, seems to be that by which we are delighted with gracefulness of person, regularity of features, and beauty of complexion. It is not indeed to be denied that there is something irresistible in female beauty. The most severe will not pretend that they do not feel an immediate prepossession in favour of a handsome woman; but this prepossession, even when combined with animal desire, does not constitute the whole of that affection which is called *love*. Savages feel the influence of the sensual appetite, and it is extremely probable that they have some ideas of beauty; but among savages the affection of love is seldom felt. Even among the lower orders in civil society it seems to be a very-gross passion, and to have in it more of the selfishness of appetite than of the generosity of esteem. To these observations many exceptions will no doubt be found; but we speak of savages in general, and of the great body of the labouring poor, who in the choice of their mates do not study, who indeed are incapable of studying, that rectitude of mind, and those delicacies of sentiment, without which neither man nor woman can deserve to be esteemed.

Sweetness of temper, a capital article with us in the female character, displays itself externally in mild looks and gentle manners, and is the first and perhaps the most powerful inducement to love in a cultivated mind. But such graces are scarcely discernible in a female savage; and even in the most polished woman would not be perceived by a male savage. Among savages, strength and boldness are the only valuable qualities. In these, females are miserably deficient; for which reason they are contemned by the males as beings of an inferior order. The North American tribes glory in idleness; the drudgery of labour degrades a *man* in their opinion, and is proper for *women* only. To join young persons in marriage is accordingly the business of the parents; and it would be unpardonable meanness in the bridegroom to show any fondness for the bride. In Guiana a woman never eats with her husband, but after every meal attends him with water for washing; and in the Caribbee islands she is not even permitted to eat in the *presence* of her husband. Dampier observes in general, that among all the wild nations with which he was acquainted, the women carry the burdens, while the men walk before and carry nothing but their arms; and that women even of the highest rank are not better treated. In Siberia, and even in Russia, the capital excepted, men till very lately treated their wives in every respect like slaves. It might indeed be thought, that animal desire, were there nothing else, should have raised women to some degree of estimation among men; but male savages, utter strangers to decency and refinement, gratify animal desire with as little ceremony as they do hunger or thirst. Hence it was that in the early ages of society a man *purchased* a woman to be his wife, as one purchases an ox or a sheep to be food; and valued her only as she contributed to his sensual gratification. Instances innumerable might be collected from every nation of which we are acquainted with the early history; but we shall content ourselves with mentioning a few. Abraham bought Rebekah, and gave her to his son Isaac for a wife. (Gen. xxiv.) Jacob, having nothing else to give,

served Laban fourteen years for two wives. (Gen. xxix.) To David, demanding Saul's daughter in marriage, it was said, *The king desireth not any dowry, but an hundred foreskins of the Philistines.* (1 Sam. xviii. 28.) In the Iliad (lib. ix.) Agamemnon offers his daughter to Achilles for his wife; and says that he would not demand for her any *price*. By the laws of Ethelbert king of England, a man who committed adultery with his neighbour's wife was obliged to pay the husband a fine, and to *buy him another wife*. (Sect. 32.) But it is needless to multiply instances; the practice has prevailed universally among nations emerging from the savage state, or in the rudest stage of society; and, wherever it prevailed, men could not possibly have for the fair sex any of that tender regard and esteem which constitute so essential a part of the complex affection of love.

Accordingly we find the magnanimous Achilles an absolute stranger to that generous affection, though his heart was susceptible of the warmest and purest friendship. His attachment to Patroclus was so heroically disinterested, that he willingly sacrificed his own life to revenge the death of his friend; but, when Agamemnon threatened to rob him of his favourite female captive, though he felt the insult offered to his *pride*, he never spoke of the *woman* but as a *slave*, whom he was concerned to preserve in point of *honour*, and as a testimony of his glory. Hence it is that we never hear him mention her but as his *spoils*, the *reward of war*, or the *gift* which the Grecians gave him. Pope has made the language of this rough warrior less inconsistent with the peculiar resentment natural to an injured lover than it is in the original; for in the original the hero says expressly, "I will not fight with you or with any other man for the sake of a *girl*; but you shall not rob me of any other part of my *property*;" which is surely the language of a man to whose heart love must have been an utter stranger.

Since, then, it is so apparent, that in the heroic age of Greece even princes and kings were strangers to the generous affection of love, it need not occasion much surprise that the same affection has very little influence upon mankind in the lowest ranks of the most polished societies of modern Europe. That this is actually the case, that among the generality of uneducated men and women there is no other bond of attachment than the sensual appetite, every year furnishes multiplied proofs. We daily see youths, rejected by their mistresses, paying their addresses without delay to girls who, in looks, temper, and disposition, are diametrically opposite to those whom so lately they pretended to love: we daily see maidens, slighted by their lovers, receiving the addresses of men, who in nothing but their sex resemble those to whom a week before they wished to be married; and we believe it is not very uncommon to find a girl entertaining several lovers together, that, if one or more of them should prove false, she may still have a chance not to be totally deserted. Did esteem and benevolence, placed on manners and character, constitute any part of vulgar love, these people would act very differently; for they would find it impossible to change their lovers and their mistresses with the same ease that they change their clothes.

To this account of love, as it appears in savage nations, some one may perhaps oppose the paintings of the softer passion in the poems of Ossian. That bard describes the female character as commanding respect and esteem, and the Caledonian heroes as cherishing for their mistresses a flame so pure and elevated as never was surpassed, and has seldom been equalled, in those ages which we commonly call most enlightened. This is indeed true; and it is one of the many reasons which have induced Johnson and others to pronounce the whole a modern fiction. Into that debate we do not enter at present. (See the article OSSIAN.) We might admit the authenticity of the poems, without acknowledging that they furnish any exception to our general theory. They furnish indeed, in the manners which they describe, a wonderful anomaly in the general history of man. All other nations of which we read were



In the hunter-state savage and cruel; the Caledonians, as exhibited by Ossian, are gentle and magnanimous. The heroes of Homer fought for plunder, and felt no clemency for a vanquished foe; the heroes of Ossian fought for fame; and, when their enemies were subdued, they took them to their bosoms. The first of Greeks committed a mean insult on the dead body of the first of Trojans; among the Caledonians, insults offered to the dead, as well as cruelty to the living, were condemned as infamous. The heroes of Ossian appear in no instance as savages. How they came to be polished and refined before they were acquainted with agriculture and the most useful arts of life, it is not our business to inquire. Perhaps the Caledonian ladies of Ossian resembled in their manners the German ladies of Tacitus, who accompanied their husbands to the chase, fought by their sides in battle, and partook with them of every danger. If so, they could not fail to be respected by a race of heroes among whom courage took place of all other virtues; and this single circumstance, from whatever cause it might proceed, will sufficiently account for the estimation of the female character among the ancient Germans and Caledonians, so different from that in which it has been held in almost every other barbarous nation.

But if, among savages and the vulgar, love be unknown, it cannot possibly be an *instinctive affection*; and therefore it may be asked, How it gets possession of the human heart? and by what means we can judge whether in any particular instance it be real or imaginary? These questions are of importance, and deserve to be fully answered; though many circumstances conspire to render it no easy task to give to them such answers as shall be perfectly satisfactory. Love can subsist only between individuals of the different sexes. A man can hardly love two women at the same time; and we believe that a woman is still less capable of loving at once more than one man. Love, therefore, has a natural tendency to make men and women pair, or, in other words, it is the source of marriage; but in polished society, where alone this affection has any place, so many things besides mutual attachment are necessary to make the married life comfortable, that we rarely see young persons uniting from the impulse of love; and have therefore but few opportunities of tracing the rise, progress, and consequences, of the affection. We shall, however, throw together such reflections as have occurred to us on the subject, not without indulging a hope, that they may be useful to the younger part of our readers when forming the most important connexion in life.

We have said, that the perception of beauty, combined with animal desire, is the first inducement which a man can have to prefer one woman to another. It may be added, that elegance of figure, a placid masculine countenance, with a person which indicates strength and agility, are the qualities which first tend to attach any woman to a particular man. Beauty has been defined, by pere Buffier in his *First Truths*, and sir Joshua Reynolds in the *Idler*, "That particular form, which is the most common of all particular forms to be met with in the same species of beings." Let us apply this definition to our own species, and try, by means of it, to ascertain what constitutes the beauty of the human face. It is evident that of countenances we find a number almost infinite of different forms, of which forms one only constitutes beauty, whilst the rest, however, numerous, constitute what is not beauty, but deformity, or ugliness. To an attentive observer, however, it is evident, that, of the numerous particular forms of ugliness, there is not one which includes so many faces as are formed after that particular cast which constitutes beauty. Every particular species of the animal as well of the vegetable creation, may be said to have a fixed or determinate form, to which, as to a centre, nature is continually inclining. Or it may be compared to pendulums vibrating in different directions over one central point; and, as they all cross the centre, though only one passes

through any other point; so it will be found that perfect beauty is oftener produced by nature than deformity: we do not mean than deformity in general, but than any one kind and degree of deformity. As we are then more accustomed to beauty than deformity, we may conclude that to be the reason why we approve and admire it, just as we approve and admire, fashions of dress for no other reason than what we are used to them. The same thing may be said of colour as of form: it is custom alone which determines our preference of the colour of the Europeans to that of the Ethiopians, and which makes them prefer their own colour to ours; so that, though habit and custom cannot be the *cause* of beauty, (see *BEAUTY*, vol. ii.) they are certainly the cause of our liking it.

That we *do like it* cannot be denied. Every one is conscious of a pleasing emotion when contemplating beauty either in man or woman; and, when that pleasure is combined with the gratification of the sensual appetite, it is obvious that the sum of enjoyment must be greatly increased. The perception of beauty, therefore, necessarily directs the energy of the sensual appetite to a *particular* object; but still this combination is a mere selfish feeling, which regards its object only as the best of many similar instruments of pleasure. Before it can deserve the name of *love*, it must be combined with esteem, which is never bestowed but upon moral character and internal worth; for, let a woman be ever so beautiful, and of course ever so desirable as an instrument of sensual gratification, if she be not possessed of the virtues and dispositions which are peculiar to her sex, she will inspire no man with a generous affection. With regard to the outlines, indeed, whether of internal disposition or of external form, men and women are the same; but nature, intending them for mates, has given them dispositions, which, though concordant, are however different, so as to produce together delicious harmony. The man, more robust, is fitted for severe labour, and for field exercises; the woman, more delicate, is fitted for sedentary occupations, and particularly for nursing children. The man, bold and vigorous, is qualified for being a protector; the woman, delicate and timid, requires protection. Hence it is, that a man never admires a woman for possessing bodily strength or personal courage; and women always despise men who are totally destitute of these qualities. The man, as a protector, is directed by nature to govern; the woman, conscious of inferiority, is disposed to obey. Their intellectual powers correspond to the destination of nature. Men have penetration and solid judgment to fit them for governing; women have sufficient understanding to make an engaging figure under good government: a greater proportion would excite dangerous rivalry between the sexes, which nature has avoided by giving them different talents. Women have more imagination and sensibility than men, which make all their enjoyments more exquisite, at the same time that they are better qualified to communicate enjoyment. Add another capital difference of disposition: the gentle and insinuating manners of the female tend to soften roughness of the other sex; and, wherever women are indulged with any freedom, they polish sooner than men.

These are not the only particulars that distinguish the sexes. With respect to the ultimate end of love, it is the privilege of the male, as superior and protector, to make a choice; the female, preferred, has no privilege but barely to consent or to refuse. Whether this distinction be the immediate result of the originally different dispositions of the sexes, or only the effect of associations inevitably formed, may be questioned; but among all nations it is the practice for men to court, and for women to be courted; and, were the most beautiful woman on earth to invert this practice, she would forfeit the esteem, however by the external grace she might excite the desire, of the man whom she addressed. The great moral virtues which may be comprehended under the general term



term *integrity*, are all absolutely necessary to make either men or women estimable; but to procure esteem to the female character, the modesty peculiar to their sex is a very essential circumstance. Nature hath provided them with it as a defence against the artful solicitations of the other sex before marriage, and also as a support of conjugal fidelity. A woman, therefore, whose dispositions are gentle, delicate, and rather timid than bold, who is possessed of a large share of sensibility and modesty, and whose manners are soft and insinuating, must, upon moral principles, command the esteem and benevolence of every individual of the other sex who is possessed of sound understanding; but, if her person be deformed, or not such as to excite some degree of animal desire, she will attract no man's love. In like manner, a man whose moral character is good; whose understanding is acute, and whose conversation is instructive, must command the esteem of every sensible and virtuous woman; but, if his figure be disagreeable, his manner unpolished, his habits slovenly, and, above all, if he be deficient in *personal courage*, he will hardly excite desire in the female breast. It is only when the qualities which command esteem are, in the same person, united with those which excite desire, that the individual so accomplished can be an object of love to one of the other sex; but, when these qualities are thus united, each of them increases the other in the imagination of the lover. The beauty of his mistress gives her, in his apprehension, a greater share of gentleness, modesty, and every thing which adorns the female character, than perhaps she really possesses; whilst his persuasion of her internal worth makes him, on the other hand, apprehend her beauty to be absolutely unrivalled.

To this theory an objection readily offers itself, which it is incumbent upon us to obviate. Men and women sometimes fall in love at first sight, and very often before they have opportunities of forming a just estimate of each other's moral character: How is this circumstance to be reconciled with the progressive generation of love? We answer, By an association of ideas which is formed upon principles of physiognomy. Every passion and habitual disposition of mind gives a particular cast to the countenance, and is apt to discover itself in some feature of the face. This we learn by experience; and in time, without any effort of our own, the idea of each particular cast of countenance comes to be so closely associated in our minds with the internal disposition which it indicates, that the one can never afterwards be presented to our view without instantly suggesting the other to the imagination. Hence it is that every man, who has been accustomed to make observations, naturally forms to himself, from the features and lineaments of a stranger's face, some opinion of his character and fortune. We are no sooner presented to a person for the first time, than we are immediately impressed with the idea of a proud, a reserved, an affable, or a good natured, man; and, upon our going into a company of absolute strangers, our benevolence or aversion, our awe or contempt, rises instantly towards particular persons, before we have heard them speak a word, or know so much as their names or designations. The same thing happens when we are presented to the fair sex. If a woman, seen for the first time, have that particular cast of countenance, and that expression of features, to which we have associated notions of gentleness, modesty, and other female virtues, she instantly commands our *esteem*; and, if she have likewise so much beauty as to make her an object of particular desire, esteem and desire become suddenly combined; and that combination constitutes the affection, of *love*. Such, too, is the nature of all mental associations, that each part of which they are composed adds strength and vividness to the other parts; so that, in the present instance, desire makes us imagine virtues in the woman which her countenance perhaps does not indicate; and the virtues which are there actually visible, make us apprehend her beauty as more perfect than it is.

The affection thus generated is more or less pure, and

will be more or less permanent, according as the one or the other part of which it is compounded predominates. "Where desire of possession prevails over our esteem of the person and merits of the desirable object, love loses its benevolent character: the appetite for gratification becomes ungovernable, and tends violently to its end; regardless of the misery that must follow. In that state, love is no longer a sweet agreeable *affection*; it becomes a selfish painful *passion*, which, like hunger and thirst, produces no happiness but in the instant of fruition; and, when fruition is over, disgust and aversion generally succeed to desire. On the other hand, where esteem, founded on a virtuous character and gentle manners, prevails over animal desire, the lover would not for the world gratify his appetite at the expense of his mistress's honour or peace of mind. He wishes, indeed, for enjoyment; and to him enjoyment is more exquisite than to the mere sensual lover, because it unites sentiment with the gratification of sense; at the same time that, so far from being succeeded by disgust or aversion, it increases his benevolence to the woman, whose character and manners he esteems, and who has contributed so much to his pleasure. Benevolence to an individual, having a general end, admits of acts without number, and is seldom fully accomplished. Hence mutual love, which is composed chiefly of esteem and benevolence, can hardly be of a shorter duration than its objects. Frequent enjoyment endears such lovers to each other, and makes constancy a pleasure; and, when the days of sensual enjoyment are over, esteem and benevolence will remain in the mind, making sweet, even in old age, the society of that pair, in whom are collected the affections of husband, wife, lover, friend, the tenderest affections of human nature.

From the whole of this investigation, we think it appears, that the affection between the sexes which deserves the name of *love*, is inseparably connected with virtue and delicacy; that a man of loose morals cannot be a faithful or a generous lover; that in the breast of him who has ranged from woman to woman for the mere gratification of his sensual appetite, desire must have effaced all esteem for the female character; and that, therefore, the maxim too generally received, that "a reformed rake makes the best husband," has very seldom a chance to be true. We think it may likewise be inferred, that thousands fancy themselves in love who know not what love is, or how it is generated in the human breast; and therefore we beg leave to advise such of our readers as may imagine themselves to be in that state, to examine their own minds, with a view to discover, whether, if the objects of their love were old or ugly, they would still esteem them for the virtues of their character, and the propriety of their manners. This is a question which deserves to be well weighed by the young and the amorous, who, in forming the matrimonial connexion, are too often blindly impelled by the mere animal desire inflamed by beauty. It may indeed happen, after the pleasure of gratifying that desire is gone (and, if not refined by esteem and benevolence, go it must with a swift pace), that a new bond of attachment may be formed upon more dignified and more lasting principles; but this is a dangerous experiment. Even supposing good sense, good temper, and internal worth of every sort, yet a new attachment upon such qualifications is rarely formed; because it *commonly* or rather *always*, happens, that such qualifications, the only solid foundation of an indissoluble connexion, if they did not originally make esteem predominate over animal desire, are afterwards rendered altogether invisible by satiety of enjoyment creating disgust; which is generally the case with violent love, founded on the desire of enjoyment only. As the delicate nature of female honour and decorum, and the inexpressible grace of a chaste and modest behaviour, are the surest and indeed the only means of kindling at first, and ever after of keeping alive, this tender and elegant flame, and of accomplishing the excellent ends designed by it; to attempt by fraud to violate the one,



er, under pretence of passion, to fully and corrupt the other, and, by so doing, to expose the too-often credulous and unguarded object, with a wanton cruelty, to the hatred of her own sex and the scorn of ours, and to the lowest infamy of both, is a conduct not only base and criminal, but inconsistent with that truly rational and refined enjoyment, the spirit and quintessence of which is derived from the bashful and sacred charms of virtue kept untainted, and therefore ever alluring to the lover's heart.

Violent love without affection is finely exemplified in the following story. When Constantinople was taken by the Turks, Irene, a young Greek of an illustrious family, fell into the hands of Mahomet II. who was at that time in the prime of youth and glory. His savage heart being subdued by her charms, he shut himself up with her, denying access even to his ministers. Love obtained such ascendancy, as to make him frequently abandon the army and fly to his Irene. War relaxed, for victory was no longer the monarch's favourite passion. The soldiers, accustomed to boory, began to murmur; and the infection spread even among the commanders. The basha Mustapha, consulting the fidelity he owed his master, was the first who durst acquaint him of the discourses held publicly to the prejudice of his glory. The sultan, after a gloomy silence, formed his resolution. He ordered Mustapha to assemble the troops next morning; and then with precipitation retired to Irene's apartment. Never before did that princess appear so charming; never before did the prince bestow so many warm caresses. To give a new lustre to her beauty, he exhorted her women next morning to bestow their utmost art and care on her dress. He took her by the hand, led her into the middle of the army, and, pulling off her veil, demanded of the basha, with a fierce look, whether they had ever beheld such a beauty? After an awful pause, Mahomet, with one hand laying hold of the young Greek by her beautiful locks, and with the other pulling out his scymetar, severed her head from her body at one stroke. Then, turning to his grandees, with eyes wild and furious, "This sword," says he, "when it is my will, knows to cut the bands of love." *Britannic Mag.* vol. i. *Sibyl's Key to Physic; Sketches of the Hist. of Man; Elements of Criticism; Ency. Brit.*

M. Retz, physician to the late king of France, has, in a work addressed to the youth of each sex on their entrance into life, defined and explained *love* in the following pleasing and instructive manner: "What is termed love, in the present day, is an ardent desire, which assumes the name of a *tender sentiment*. It is an honourable pretext to solicit something that is not so honourable. It is the seducing error of the young, the serious occupation of women, the wreck of men, the regret of the aged, and the real secret of Nature to perpetuate her works. Noble and well-formed minds are alone susceptible of a pure, disinterested, elevated, passion. To love a beautiful and virtuous woman, requires a taste for what is beautiful and honourable. To please her, we must resemble her. A lover is not courageous, sensible, humane, generous, because he loves; he loves because these qualities are innate; and it is with the mask of these qualities that men seduce the female who has not a sufficient degree of patience to put them to the trial. Genuine affection is the lot of a few. It requires too many qualities to be general. It demands too much constancy for the volatile, too much ardour for the sedate, too much restraint for the turbulent, too much delicacy for the simple, too much enthusiasm for the cold and icy, too much activity for the indolent, too much desire for the philosopher, too much self-denial for the libertine. Genuine love demands a considerable degree of elevation and energy of soul; generosity, sensibility, and rectitude of heart; a warm imagination; and inviolate attachment to the principles of virtue and honour. It cannot exist in the bosom of luxury and pleasure, in the midst of tumult, and the distractions of numerous and polite assemblies. It requires

simplicity of manners, and retired life. In times of happier manners, when the sex was *adored* by the men, they respected themselves, and endeavoured to render themselves worthy of the religious homage that was paid to them. Their esteem was the recompence of courage and virtue. The desire of pleasing them exalted the imagination, and was productive of heroes; but voluptuousness and sensuality have degraded us. We are no longer gallant; we are depraved. Since they are no longer considered as divinities, the sex is become too *human*; their influence on the character of men is now as pernicious as it was formerly beneficial. To soft illusions, to the enthusiasms of love, succeed facility of enjoyment, followed by quick disgust. *Philosophy* and debauchery take place of that heroic gallantry which constituted love and virtue. Formerly, as it was more difficult to please one woman, than it is now to seduce many, the reign of moral affection prolonged the power of *passion*. By refraining, directing, and fanning, the passion with delusive hopes, desires were perpetuated, while they preserved their force. Love could not be *made*, it was an *impulse*; it was even the child of innocence, and was nourished by the sacrifices which it made, instead of being extinguished by voluptuous gratification. True love mingles *respect* with the passion. If it was placed on mental qualities alone, the senses would be without energy; if placed solely on the charms of *person*, the *head* would be vacant. A genuine lover is equally struck with the virtues and with the attractions of his mistress.

"If we be deprived of love, what remains? For libertines, there is gallantry, its perpetual counterfeit; to the honest and feeling heart, tenderness; to *all*, the pleasures of friendship, less voluptuous than the pleasures of love, but mingled with fewer pains. It is too generally thought, that illicit amours may be pursued by a young man, without any pernicious consequences; but this is a fatal error. To what misfortunes does not criminal indulgence expose our youth? Remorse, shame, the loss of the esteem, not merely of the virtuous, but even of the vile accomplices of his pleasures, plunge his existence into a sea of sorrows. A woman who has yielded to the impulse of desire, seeks in vain to be indifferent to her situation, or to vindicate her errors to herself. In vain she attempts to believe that there are some passions which it is not in the power of human nature to conquer. Alas! less exertion is required to subdue the criminal passion, than is often employed to keep it alive." *Guide des Jeunes Gens; Paris, 1790.*

Dr. Mackenzie, in his discourse on Criminal Pleasure, feelingly describes the affection of love, and then exhibits the advantages of a married life compared with libertine indulgence: "How pleasing (says he) is the affection of love, when it first approaches the soul, arrayed with its native innocence and simplicity? It is ushered into the breast with the most delightful emotions, and awakens all the tenderest sympathies. It transports us beyond ourselves, creates a paradise around us, and gives us new interests and enjoyments. The selfish passions then cease to be regarded, and the generous affections take their turn to reign. All nature appears in her most pleasing form, and we feel ourselves in harmony with the universe. The mind is then in its highest and its best state. Why should I describe it! You, who have felt the impression, and can recall the ideas of the pleasing morning of your lives, can tell us that this affection is one of the perfect gifts of heaven, dispensed to mankind to heal their cares, and multiply their enjoyments, by creating the tenderest relations among the species, and uniting them more intimately with one another.

"There are two systems with respect to this affection, which offer themselves to our consideration; the libertine system, and the system of the married life. The effects of the former we have described. It presents us with all the melancholy effects of vitiated passions. If our argu-



ment upon it has been just, it is evident that it goes directly in opposition to the happiness of the species, and to the great object of the Creator. The individual it corrupts, the society it disorders. It ruins the affections, and destroys the tenderest connections of the species. It is a system selfish and mischievous. Like all other selfish systems, too, it defeats itself. Instead of multiplying our enjoyments, it contracts them; instead of expanding the mind, it renders it illiberal; and destroys all the nobler affections of the soul, by debasing its regards, and teaching it to confine all its views to one unprofitable gratification. The system of the *married life* is, in all respects, different. The obvious effect of it is to multiply our enjoyments, by carrying us beyond ourselves, and giving us the tenderest interest in others. The gratification of the passion is but the opening of the scene. The tenderest relations are created, the most delightful connections of life arise around us. We acquire the fidelity of friendship, and the delights of children. These are by far the purest pleasures of our state. They teach us the value of our nature, and connect us strongly with our kind. They give us an interest in the world, and make us enter intimately into the society of our species. Exhausted with our exertions, and satiated as we should be with our own experience, we resume our lives, and renew our pursuits, in our children. These give us an interest in life to the last. In these we feel a concern superior to any that we can feel for ourselves. They present an important object to our mind, which furnishes the most delightful employment of our lives; redoubles the enjoyments, and enables us to bear the difficulties of our state with cheerfulness and perseverance." *Mackenzie's Sermons*.—We may add, that *maternal affection* is the pledge of love, by which nature derives from the heart of a mother an ample compensation for all her sufferings. Nothing equals the anxiety with which a mother seeks her lost child; nothing can exceed her transport when, after fatiguing search, after a tedious separation, she at length recovers it, and embraces it as if it were just then born. The desire of fecundity is the brightest charm in the cestus of Venus; nay, it seems to be the only one that can be valuable in the estimation of chaste and virtuous women. These are the priestesses who keep alive the sacred fire of Vesta; and perish that contemptible wretch who, instead of being warmed with this pure flame, burns with a gross and brutal lust! Love has dipped only the point of his shaft with desire; when the whole weapon is envenomed by it, misery must attend those whom it wounds. *Hemsterhuis's Oeuvres Philosophiques*; Paris, 1792.

The manners of the Greeks and Romans were similar to each other in the affairs of love. They generally made a discovery of their passion by writing upon trees, walls, doors, &c. the name of their beloved. They usually decked the door of their dulcinea with flowers and garlands, made libations of wine before their houses, sprinkling the posts with the same liquor, as if the object of their affection were a real goddess. For a man's garland to be untied, and for a woman to compose a garland, were held to be indubitable indications of their love. When their love was without success, they used several arts to excite affection in the object of their desire. They had recourse to enchantresses, of whom the Thesalian were in the highest estimation. The means made use of were most commonly *philtres*, or love-potions, the operation of which was violent and dangerous, and frequently deprived such as drank them of their reason. Some of the most remarkable ingredients of which they were composed were: the hippomanes, the jynx, insects bred from putrefaction, the fish remora, the lizard, brains of a calf, the hairs on the tip of a wolf's tail, his secret parts, the bones of the left side of a toad eaten with ants, the blood of doves, bones of snakes, feathers of screech-owls, twisted cords of wool in which a person had hanged himself, rags, torches, a nest of swallows buried and famished in the earth, bones snatched from hungry bitches, the marrow of a boy fa-

mished in the midst of plenty, dried human liver; to these may be added several herbs growing out of putrid substances. Such were the ingredients that entered into the composition of that infernal draught a love-potion. But, besides the philtres, various other arts were used to excite love, in which the application of certain substances was to have a magical influence on the person against whom they levelled their skill. A hyæna's udder worn under the left arm, they fancied would draw the affections of whatever woman they fixed their eyes upon. That species of olives called *πύργα*, and barley-bran made up into a paste, and thrown into the fire, they thought would excite the flame of love. Flour was used with the same intention. Burning laurel, and melted wax, were supposed to have the like effect. When one heart was to be hardened, and another mollified, clay and wax were exposed to the same fire together. Images of wax were frequently used, representing the persons on whom they wished to make an impression; and whatever was done to the substitute of wax, they imagined was felt by the person represented. Enchanted medicaments were often sprinkled on some part of the house where the person resided. Love-pledges were supposed to be of singular use and efficacy: these they placed under their threshold, to preserve the affections of the owner from wandering. Love-knots were of singular power, and the number three was particularly observed in all they did. But no good effect was expected, if the use of these things was not attended with charms or magical verses and forms of words.

Having mentioned their arts of exciting love, it may not be amiss to take notice, that the ancients imagined, that love excited by magic might be allayed by more powerful spells and medicaments, or by applying to demons more powerful than those who had been concerned in raising that passion. But love inspired without magic had no cure; Apollo himself could find no remedy, but cried out *Hei mihi quod nullis amor est medicabilis herbis*. The antidotes against love were generally *agnus castus*, which has the power of weakening the generative faculty; sprinkling the dust in which a mule had rolled herself; tying toads in the hide of a beast newly slain; applying amulets of minerals or herbs, which were supposed of great efficacy in other cases; and invoking the assistance of the inferior deities. Another cure for love was bathing in the waters of the river Selemnus; to which we may add the *lover's leap*, or jumping down from the Leucadian promontory. This last, indeed, was the most effectual cure, because the party was generally killed; though some escaped; as to which see LEUCADIA, vol. xii. p. 547.

*Platonic Love* denotes a pure spiritual affection, subsisting between the different sexes, abstracted from all carnal appetites, and regarding no other object but the mind, and its beauties; or it is even a sincere disinterested friendship subsisting between persons of the same sex, abstracted from any selfish views, and regarding no other object but the person. The term took its rise from the philosopher Plato, a strenuous advocate for each kind. The world has a long time laughed at Plato's notions of love and friendship. In effect, they appear contrary to the intentions of nature, and inconsistent with the great law of self-preservation, into which love and friendship are both ultimately resolvable.

LOVE (James), whose real name was Dance, was one of the sons of Mr. Dance, the city-surveyor, (whose memory will be transmitted to posterity on account of the edifice which he erected for the residence of the city's chief magistrate,) received, it is said, his education at Westminster-school, from whence he removed to Cambridge, which he left without taking any degree. About that time a severe poetical satire against sir Robert Walpole, then minister, appeared under the title of "Are these Things so?" which, though written by Mr. Miller, was ascribed to Mr. Pope. To this Mr. Love immediately wrote a reply, called "Yes, they are; what then?" which proved so satisfactory to the minister, that he made him a



handsome present, and gave him expectations of preferment. Elated with this distinction, with the vanity of a young author and the credulity of a young man, he considered his fortune as established; and, neglecting every other pursuit, became an attendant at the minister's levees, where he contracted habits of indolence and expense without obtaining any advantage. The stage now offered itself as an asylum from the difficulties he had involved himself in; and therefore, changing his name to Love, (it is said from his wife's maiden name *L'Amour*;) he made his first essays in strolling companies. He afterwards performed both at Dublin and Edinburgh, and at the latter place resided some years as manager. At length he received, in the year 1762, an invitation to Drury-lane theatre, where he continued during the remainder of his life. In 1763, with the assistance of his brother, he erected a theatre at Richmond, and obtained a license for performing in it; but did not receive any benefit from it, as the success by no means answered his expectations. He died about the beginning of the year 1774. He neither as an actor or author attained any high degree of excellence. Falstaff was the character in which he most excelled. As an author he has given the world the following pieces: 1. Pamela, a comedy, 1742. 2. The Witches, a pantomime, 1762. 3. Rites of Hecate, a pantomime, 1764. 4. The Hermit, a pantomime, 1766. 5. Village Wedding, 1767. 6. Ladies' Frolic, an opera, 1770. 7. City Madam, a comedy, 1771.

LOVE (Tree of.) See CERCIS.

LOVE-AFFAMISHED, *adj.* Famished through love: With light thereof I do myself sustain,  
And thereon feed my *love-affamish'd* heart. *Spenser.*

LOVE-APPLE. See SOLANUM lycopersicum.

*Love-apple*, though its flower less fair appears,  
Its golden fruit deserves the name it bears. *Tate.*

LOVE-LIES-A-BLEEDING. See AMARANTHUS caudatus, vol. i.

LOVE-BORN, *adj.* Produced by love; the consequence of love:

Let mutual joys our mutual trust combine,  
And love and *love-born* confidence be thine. *Pope.*

LOVE-BROKER, *f.* A go-between in matters of love.—There is no *love-broker* in the world can more prevail in man's commendation with woman, than report of valour. *Shakespeare's Twelfth Night.*

LOVE-CHILD, *f.* A low phrase for a bastard.

LOVE-DARTING, *adj.* Darting love:

What need a vermeil-tinctur'd lip for that,  
*Love-darting* eyes, and tresses like the morn? *Milton.*

LOVE-DAY, *f.* The day on which any dispute was amicably settled between neighbours; a day in which one neighbour helps another without hire.

LOVE-DE'AN, a village in Hampshire: three miles and a half from Hambledon.

LOVE-DISCOURSE, *f.* Conversation upon the subject of love:

My tales of love were wont to weary you:  
I know you joy not in a *love-discourse*. *Shakespeare.*

LOVE-FLOWER. See XYLOPHYLLA.

LOVE-FLOWER (Indian.) See PHYLANTHUS.

LOVE-JUICE, *f.* Juice to create love:

Thou hast mistaken quite,  
And laid the *love-juice* on some true-love's fight. *Shaksp.*

LOVE-KNOT, *f.* A complicated figure, by which affection interchanged is figured.

LOVE-LABOURED, *adj.* Laboured through love:

Where silence yields  
To the night-warbling bird, that now awake  
Tunes sweetest his *love-labour'd* song. *Milton.*

LOVE-LEAR'NED, *adj.* Acquired in consequence of love:

Hearken to the birds' *love-learned* song  
The dewy leaves among. *Spenser's Epithalam.*

LOVE-LETTER, *f.* Letter of courtship.—The children are educated in the different notions of their parents: the sons follow the father, while the daughters read *love-letters* and romances to their mother. *Addison's Spectator.*

LOVE-LORN, *adj.* Forsaken of one's love:

The *love-lorn* nightingale  
Nightly to thee her sad song mourneth well. *Milton.*

LOVE-MAKING, *f.* Courtship.—The enquiry of truth, which is the *love-making* or wooing of it; the knowledge of truth, the preference of it; and the belief of truth, the enjoying of it, is the sovereign good of human nature. *Bacon.*

LOVE-IN-A-MIS'T. See PASSIFLORA.

LOVE-MONGER, *f.* One who deals in affairs of love.—Thou art an old *love-monger*, and speakest skilfully. *Shakespeare.*

LOVE-PINED, *adj.* Wasted by love:

Unquiet thought? whom at the first I bred  
Of th' inward bale of my *love-pined* heart,  
And sithence have with sighs and sorrows fed,  
Till greater than my womb thou waxen art. *Spenser.*

LOVE-POTION, *f.* (see p. 690.) A medicine to excite love.—A *love-potion* works more by the strength of charm than nature. *Collier on Popularity.*

LOVE-QUAR'REL, *f.* The falling-out of lovers.—*Love-quarrels* oft in pleasing concord end. *Milton.*

LOVE-SE'CRET, *f.* Secret between lovers:

What danger, Arimant, is this you fear?  
Or what *love-secret* which I must not hear? *Dryden.*

LOVE-SHAFT, *f.* Cupid's arrow:

A certain aim he took  
At a fair vestal throned by the west,  
And loos'd his *love-shaft* finartly from his bow. *Shakespeare.*

LOVE-SICK, *adj.* Disordered with love; languishing with amorous desire:

To the dear mistress of my *love-sick* mind,  
Her swain a pretty present has design'd. *Dryden.*

LOVE-SONG, *f.* Song expressing love:

Poor Romeo is already dead!  
Stabb'd with a white wench's black eye,  
Run through the ear with a *love-song*. *Shakespeare.*

LOVE-SONG, *adj.* Trifling; unprofitable:

*Love-song* weeds and fatyrick thorns are grown,  
Where seeds of better arts were early sown. *Donne.*

LOVE-SUIT, *f.* Courtship:

His *love-suit* hath been to me  
As fearful as a siege. *Shakespeare's Cymbeline.*

LOVE-TALE, *f.* Narrative of love.—Cato's a proper person to entrust a *love-tale* with! *Addison.*

The *love-tale*

Infested Sion's daughters with like heat;  
Whose wanton passions in the sacred porch  
Ezekiel saw. *Milton's Paradise Lost.*

LOVE-THOUGHT, *f.* Amorous fancy:

Away to sweet beds of flowers,  
*Love-thoughts* lie rich when canopied with bowers. *Shaksp.*

LOVE-TOY, *f.* Small presents given by lovers.—Has this amorous gentleman presented himself with any *love-toys*, such as gold snuff-boxes? *Arbutnot and Pope.*

LOVE-TRICK, *f.* Art of expressing love:

Other disports than dancing jollities;  
Other *love-tricks* than glancing with the eyes, *Donne.*

LOU'ECH,



LOUECH. See LEUK, vol. xii. p. 557, where the baths near this place have been slightly mentioned. These baths are situated in deep valley, surrounded on the east, west, and north, by mountains; hence the temperature of the air is remarkably mild, and the soil fertile; the Dala, which flows from the neighbouring glaciers, winds through the valley, and runs into the Rhone near Louech. The heat of the principal spring is estimated equal to forty-three degrees of Reaumur's thermometer. The baths are emptied, cleaned, and filled again, every evening, that the water may cool during the night, and be ready for the bathers in the morning; its temperature is thus reduced to about twenty-eight degrees.

These waters have no peculiar flavour either of sulphur or fixed air; and, notwithstanding their great heat, do not boil sooner on the fire than those of the coldest spring. They abound with *crocus martis*; and the internal and external use of them is recommended in all those cases in which warm mineral baths are usually prescribed. *Hist. of the Phil. Soc. of Laujanne.*

LOVELACE (Richard), an elegant poet of the seventeenth century, was the eldest son of sir William Lovelace, of Woolwich in Kent, and was born in that country about 1618. He received his grammar-learning at the Charter-house; and, in the year 1634, became a gentleman-commoner of Gloucester-hall, Oxford; being then, as Wood observes, "accounted the most amiable and beautiful person that eye ever beheld, a person also of innate modesty, virtue, and courtly deportment; which made him then, but especially after, when he retired to the great city, much admired by the female sex." In 1636, on the king's coming to Oxford, he was created M. A. and, leaving the university, retired, as Wood phrases it, in great splendour to the court, where, being taken into the favour of lord Goring, he became a soldier; and was first an ensign, and afterwards a captain. On the pacification at Berwick, he returned to his native country, and took possession of his estate, worth about five hundred pounds per annum; and about the same time was deputed by the county to deliver the Kentish petition to the house of commons; which giving offence, he was ordered into custody, and confined in the Gate-house, from whence he was released on giving bail, in 40,000*l.* not to go beyond the lines of communication without a pass from the Speaker. During the time of his confinement to London, he lived beyond the income of his estate, chiefly to support the credit of the royal cause; and in the year 1646 he formed a regiment for the service of the French king, was colonel of it, and wounded at Dunkirk. In 1648 he returned to England with his brother, and was again committed prisoner to Peter-house in London, where he remained until after the king's death. At that period he was set at liberty; but, (says Wood,) "having then consumed all his estate, he grew very melancholy, (which at length brought him into a consumption,) became very poor in body and purse, was the object of charity, went in ragged clothes, (whereas when he was in his glory he wore cloth of gold and silver,) and mostly lodged in obscure and dirty places, more befitting the worst of beggars than poorest of servants. He died in a very mean lodging in Gunpowder-alley, near Shoe-lane, in 1658, and was buried at the west end of St. Bride's church." He wrote two plays, neither of which has been printed, viz. 1. The Scholar, a comedy acted at Gloucester-hall and Salisbury-court. 2. The Soldier, a tragedy. 3. Lucastra, a collection of poems.

Surely Wood has aggravated the poverty of Lovelace; for his daughter and sole heir, Margaret, married Henry, fifth son of lord chief justice Coke, and carried to her husband the estates of her father at Kingdown in Kent. In possession of these, it is highly improbable that he should die poor and in rags, in a mean lodging, as Wood describes.

LOVELACE, a village in the parish of Betherden, Dorset.

LOVELESS, *adj.* Void of affection, destitute of love.

LOVELILY, *adv.* Amiably; in such a manner as to

excite love.—Thou look'st *lovelily* dreadful. *Otway's Venice Preserv'd.*

LOVELINESS, *f.* Amiability; qualities of mind or body that excite love.—If there is such a native *loveliness* in the sex as to make them victorious when in the wrong, how resistless is their power when they are on the side of truth? *Addison.*

When I approach  
Her *loveliness*, so absolute she seems,  
That what she wills to do, or say,  
Seems wisest, virtuourest, discreetest, best. *Milton.*

LOVELL, a town of America, in York county, Maine, north of Great Ossipee: eighty-nine miles north of York.  
LOVELL, a village in the parish of West Knighton, Dorset.

LOVELL'S CROSS AND HEATH, north-east of Horsham, in Suffex, on the borders of Surrey.

LOVELSTON, a village in the parish of Hevrish, Devon.  
LOVELY, *adj.* Amiable; exciting love.—Saul and Jonathan were *lovely* and pleasant in their lives, and in their death they were not divided. 2 *Samuel.*—The Christian religion gives us a more *lovely* character of God than any religion ever did. *Tillotson.*

The flowers which it had press'd  
Appeared to my view  
More fresh and *lovely* than the rest  
That in the meadows grew. *Denham.*

LOVENTINUM, or LUENTINUM, in ancient geography, a town of the Demetæ, in Britain; supposed by some, without sufficient reason, to have been swallowed up by an earthquake in the site of the present Llyn Savanathan, near Brecknock; but by others, with great probability, to have been situated at or near Llan-Dewi-Brevi, in Cardiganshire; where, in a field called Caer-Cestlib, or Castlefield, Roman coins and bricks are sometimes found.

LOVENTOR, a village in Devonshire, in the parish of Berry Pomeroy.

LOVER, *f.* One who is in love:  
Love is blind, and *lovers* cannot see  
The pretty follies that themselves commit. *Shakespeare.*

A friend; one who regards with kindness.—Your brother and his *lover* have embrac'd. *Shakespeare.*

I tell thee, fellow,  
Thy general is my *lover*: I have been  
The book of his good act, whence men have read  
His fame unparallel'd haply amplified. *Shakespeare.*

One who likes any thing.—To be good and gracious, and a *lover* of knowledge, are amiable things. *Burnet.*

LOVER, or LOU'VER, *f.* [from *Louvert*, Fr. an opening.] An opening for the smoke to go out at in the roof of a cottage:

But darkness drest and daily night did hover  
Through all the inner part wherein they dwelt;  
Ne lighten'd was with window, nor with *lover*;  
But with continuall candle-light, which delt  
A doubtful sense of things. *Fairy Queen.*

LOVERANO, a town of Naples, in the province of Otranto: five miles north-north-east of Nardo.

LOVESKATA, a town of Russia, on the Caspian Sea: twenty-seven miles south-east of Aitrachan.

LOVESOME, *adj.* Lovely. A word not used:

Nothing new can spring  
Without thy warmth, without thy influence bear,  
Or beautiful or *lovesome* can appear. *Dryden.*

LOVESTAIN, or LOU'VESTEIN, a fortress of Holland, situated in the island of Bommelweert, at the conflux of the Meuse and the Wahal. Hugo Grotius was confined here, in 1619, on a sentence of perpetual imprisonment, for having been connected with Barneveldt, who had been beheaded



beheaded the preceding year; and for favouring Arminianism, which had been condemned by the synod of Dort; but he was delivered by a stratagem of his wife. See GROTIUS, vol. ix. p. 38. This place is three miles east of Corcum.

LOUGH, *f.* [*loch*, Irish, a lake.] A lake; a large inland standing water:

A people near the northern pole that won,  
Whom Ireland sent from *loughs* and forests here,  
Divided far by sea from Europe's shore. *Fairfax.*

LOUGH A'BER, or LOCHA'BER, a small settlement in Georgia, on a branch of Savannah river, above its confluence with the Tugalo.

LOUGH AL'LEN, a lake of Ireland, formed by the widening of the Shannon: seven miles north of Leitrim.

LOUGH AR'ROW, a lake of Ireland: fourteen miles south of Sligo.

LOUGH BAR'RA. See BARRA.

LOUGH BEAT'TA. See BEATTA.

LOUGH BEG'. See BEG.

LOUGH BOFFIN. See BOFFIN.

LOUGH CAR'RAGH. See CARRAGH.

LOUGH CAL'T. See CALT.

LOUGH CLAY. See CLAY.

LOUGH CLE'AN. See CLEAN.

LOUGH CON'N. See CONN.

LOUGH COR'RIB. See CORRIE.

LOUGH COU'TRA. See COUTRA.

LOUGH CUR'LAN. See CURRAN.

LOUGH DE'LE. See DELE.

LOUGH DER'G. See DERG.

LOUGH DER'IG. See DERIG.

LOUGH DER'INA. See DERINA.

LOUGH DERVERA'GH. See DERVERAGH.

LOUGH EASK. See EASK.

LOUGH ENNEL. See ENNEL.

LOUGH ER'NE. See ERNE.

LOUGH FOY'LE. See FOYLE.

LOUGH FUR'REN. See FURREN.

LOUGH GA'RA. See GARA.

LOUGH GAW'NAGH. See GAWNAGH.

LOUGH GIL'LY. See GILLY.

LOUGH GLIN'. See GLIN.

LOUGH GUR'. See GUR.

LOUGH HOY'LE. See HOYLE.

LOUGH HY'NE. See HYNE.

LOUGH I'RON, a lake of Ireland, in the county of Westmeath: five miles north-west of Mullingar.

LOUGH KA'Y, a lake of Ireland, in the county of Roscommon: six miles north-west of Carrick.

LOUGH LA'NE, a lake of Ireland, near Killarney: fifteen miles south of Tralee.

LOUGH LAR'NE. See LARNE.

LOUGH LE'NE. See LENE.

LOUGH MAL'AR, a lake of the island of Man: three miles north of Ramsey.

LOUGH MAS'K, a lake of Ireland, in the county of Galway, about ten miles long and from one to three broad: ten miles south of Castlebar.

LOUGH MEL'VIN, a lake of Ireland, in the county of Fermanagh, about seven miles long and one or two wide: five miles south of Ballyshannon.

LOUGH NAF'TAY, a lake of Ireland, in the county of Galway: nineteen miles south Castlebar.

LOUGH NAL'LENROE, a lake of Ireland, in the county of Mayo: nineteen miles west of Killaloe.

LOUGH NE'AGH, a large lake of Ireland, about fifteen miles in length and eight in breadth, situated between the counties of Antrim, Down, Armagh, Tyrone, and Londonderry. The river Ban is the only outlet. A petrifying quality is ascribed to the water of this lake.

LOUGH OG'RAM, a lake of Ireland in the county of Clare: eight miles north-west of Killaloe.

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LOUGH OU'GHTER, a lake of Ireland, in the county of Cavan: six miles west of Cavan.

LOUGH PAL'LIS, a lake of Ireland, in King's county: twelve miles west-north-west of Portarlington.

LOUGH RA'MAR, a lake of Ireland, in the county of Cavan: twelve miles south of Cavan.

LOUGH RAPH'AM, a lake of Ireland, in the county of Mayo: twelve miles south-west of Castlebar.

LOUGH REA, a lake of Ireland, in the county of Galway, near the town of Loughrea, containing several small islands, on which were formerly some monasteries.

LOUGH RE'E, a lake of Ireland, formed by a considerable expansion of the river Shannon, between the county of Roscommon and the counties of Longford and Westmeath, reaching from Laneshorough to Athlone, and in some places three miles broad.

LOUGH SALEEN, a lake of Ireland, in the county of Mayo, near Castlebar.

LOUGH SHE'HAN, a lake of Ireland, in the county of Cavan: thirteen miles south of Cavan.

LOUGH STRANG'FORD. See STRANGFORD.

LOUGH SWIL'LY, a bay on the north coast of Ireland, in the county of Donegal, eighteen miles in length, and from one to four in breadth; but upwards of thirty in circumference. This bay, thought to be the Argite of Ptolemy, is one of the noblest ports in Ireland, or perhaps in Europe, with good anchorage and deep water: a whole fleet may anchor with safety.

LOUGH TA', a lake near the south coast of Ireland, in the county of Wexford, which receives several rivers, but having no outlet it overflows the county if care be not taken to cut away the banks, near the sea, which soon fill up again: three miles north-west of Carnfore Point, and nine south-fourth-east of Wexford.

LOUGH TRIOR'TY, a lake of Ireland, in the county of Donegal: seven miles south-south-east of Donegal.

LOUGH TRA', or LAKE OF THE LA'DIES ISLAND, a lake of Ireland in the county of Wexford, near the sea: six miles south of Wexford.

LOUGH'BOROUGH, a market-town in the county of Leicester, is situated twelve miles distant from the county town, and 108 miles from London, on the banks of the river Soar, over which it has a good stone bridge. According to its size and population, it may be esteemed the second town in the county. Leland says, "The town of Lughborow is yn largeness and good building next to Leyrcester, of all the markette-tounes yn the shire; and hath in it a four faire strates or mo, well pavid. The paroch-chirche is faire; chapelles or chirches besides, yn the towne, be none. The hole towne is builded of tymbre. At the southeft end of the church is a faire house of tymbre, wher ons king Henry VII. did lye." Loughborough consists of one parish, to which belong the two hamlets of Wood-thorpe and Knight-thorne, both about a mile distant; each having its proper officers, and maintaining its poor. Great part of the town is the property of the earl of Meira, to whom it came from his uncle the late earl of Huntingdon, in whose family it has been since the time of queen Mary. The church is a large pile of building, consisting of a nave, side aisles, chancel, transept, and tower; the latter was built by subscription, towards the end of the sixteenth century. In the church-yard is a free grammar-school, which was endowed with the rents of certain lands, &c. left by Thomas Burton for the maintenance of a chantry within the church. Here is also a charity-school for eighty boys and twenty girls. Four meeting-houses are appropriated to the Presbyterians, Baptists, Quakers, and Wesleyan Methodists. On the site of an old cross, a modern market-house, or what is called the butter-and-hen cross, was erected in 1742; it is supported by eight round brick pillars. At the upper end of the market-place stands a ruinous brick edifice, called the court chamber, where the lord of the manor's court-leet is annually held: the building appears to have been erect-



ed in 1688; it is sometimes used as a theatre and ball-room. The town suffered severely by the plague at various periods in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Under the act of 1810, the population was returned as 5400. The chief manufactures carried on here are hosiery, wool-combing, and framework-knitting. Six annual fairs are held, and a weekly market on Thursdays.

The Loughborough Canal, which communicates with that called the Union Canal, and with the river Soar, has proved very serviceable to this town, and an advantageous concern to the original proprietors; as 95l. a-year dividend has been paid on a share of 125l. and one of these shares has been sold for 1800l. See the article CANAL NAVIGATION, vol. iii. p. 633.

The following villages are the neighbourhood of Loughborough: Coats, one mile distant; Stanford, one; Normanston (south of Ashby-de-la-Zouch), two; Hathern, two north-west; Dibly, or Dibly-Thorp, one; Sheephead, three; Thorpe-Acre, one; Woodthorpe, one; Quarendon, two; here is an hospital lately erected and well endowed, for the old bachelors and widowers of this parish and that of Barrow-upon-Soar, two miles from Loughborough, and opposite to the last-mentioned village; it lies in a chalky soil, of which the best lime is made for durable buildings; here is a charity-school. Walton-on-the-Woulds, distant two miles; Prestwold, two; and Woodhouse, three miles distant.

LOUGH'BOROUGH, a township of Upper Canada, in Frontenac county, north of Kingston.

LOUGH'BOROUGH CANAL, an inlet on the west coast of North America, in the gulf of Georgia, about thirty miles long, and one broad; between mountains nearly perpendicular. The entrance is in lat. 30. 27. N. lon. 234. 35. E.

LOUGHBOROUGH'S ISLAND, an island in the Mergui Archipelago, of an oval form, about ten miles long and five broad. Lat. 10. 38. N.

LOUGHBRICK'LAND, a post-town of Ireland, in the county of Down, on the road to Belfast. It is fifty-eight miles north from Dublin, and twenty-two from Belfast.

LOUGHGA'LL, a small post-town of Ireland, in the county of Armagh. It is sixty-six miles north from Dublin, and three miles north-north-west from Richhill.

LOUGHRE'A, a town of Ireland, in the county of Galway, near a lake of the same name: fifteen miles south-west of Galway.

LOUGNON, a river of France, which runs into the Saône near Pontarlier.

LOUHA'NS, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Saône and Loire, situated at the conflux of the Seille and Solnan. It is a place of resort for the merchants of France and Switzerland, who meet there for the purpose of commerce: fifteen miles south-east of Châlons sur Saône, and twenty-four north-north-east of Mâcon. Lat. 46. 38. N. lon. 5. 18. E.

LOUICH'EA, *f.* in botany. See CAMPHOROSMA pteranthus, vol. iii. p. 667.

LOVIGNA'NO, a town of Naples, in the province of Otranto: twelve miles south-south-west of Brindisi.

LOVING, *participial adj.* Kind; affectionate.—This earl was of great courage, and much loved of his soldiers, to whom he was no less loving again. *Hayward.*

So loving to my mother,  
That he would not let ev'n the winds of heav'n  
Visit her face too roughly. *Shakespeare's Hamlet.*

Expressing kindness.—The king took her in his arms till she came to herself, and comforted her with loving words. *Esther xv. 8.*

LOVING, *f.* The act of regarding with tender affection. A long line to call in a hawk.

LOVING-KINDNESS, *f.* Tenderness; favour; mercy. A scriptural word.—Remember, O Lord, thy tender mer-

cies, and thy loving-kindnesses. *Psalms xxv. 6.*—He has adapted the arguments of obedience to the imperfection of our understanding, requiring us to consider him only under the amiable attributes of goodness and loving-kindness, and to adore him as our friend and patron. *Rogers.*

LOVINGLY, *adv.* Affectionately; with kindness.—It is no great matter to live lovingly with good-natured and meek persons; but he that can do so with the froward and perverse, he only hath true charity. *Taylor.*

LOVINGNESS, *f.* Kindness; affection.—Carrying thus in one person the only two bands of good-will, love-liness and lovingness. *Sidney.*

LOVINGTON, a village in Somersetshire, between Bruton and Somerton.

LOUIS, or LEWIS, a male Christian name, sometimes assumed as a surname. The name of many of the kings of FRANCE, see that article, vol. vii. and, for a few particulars relating to the present king, Louis XVIII. see the article LONDON, p. 158, 323, 377-391.

LOUIS (Order of St.) See the article KNIGHTHOOD, vol. xi. p. 818.

LOUIS (Anthony), an eminent French surgeon, was born at Metz in 1723. He rose to great distinction in his profession, and had the offices of consulting surgeon to the army, surgeon-major to the Hospital of la Charité, demonstrator and censor-royal, member and secretary of the Royal Academy of Surgery, and member of a great number of scientific societies in France and foreign countries. The time of his death is not mentioned; but the latest of his publications is dated in 1777. Mr. Louis was the author of many ingenious works on chirurgical and anatomical subjects; of which the following are the principal: 1. Observations sur l'Électricité, 1741, 1747. 2. Essai sur la Nature de l'Âme, où l'on tâche d'expliquer son Union avec le Corps, 1746. 3. Cours de Chirurgie sur les Plaies d'Armes à Feu, 1746. 4. Observations et Remarques sur les Effets du Virus cancreux, 1748. 5. Observations sur les Noyés, 1748. 6. Positiones Anatomico-chirurgicæ de Capite ejusque Vulneribus, 1749. 7. Lettres sur la Certitude de la Mort; avec des Observations et des Experiences sur les Noyés, 1752. The object of the first of these pieces is to lay down certain tokens of death, and remove the fears of being buried alive, without the necessity of long keeping of the body; with respect to the drowned, he thinks that their death is owing to water admitted into the trachæa, and that blowing air into it is the most powerful means of revival. 8. Experiences sur la Lithotomie, 1757. 9. Mémoire sur un Question Anatomique relatif à la Jurisprudence, 1763. The purpose of this memoir, written after the shocking affair of Calas, is to distinguish between voluntary death by hanging, and murder by that mode. 10. Mémoire sur la Légimité des Naissances prétendues tardives, 1764. In this piece he lays it down as a maxim, that the retardation of delivery beyond the natural period of gestation is physically impossible. 11. Recueil d'Observations pour servir de Base de la Théorie des Lésions de la Tête par contrecoup, 1766. 12. Histoire de l'Académie Royale de Chirurgie jusqu'en 1743. printed with the fourth volume of Memoirs of that Academy, 1768. He also wrote separate eulogies on several of the members. 13. Aphorismes de Chirurgie par Boerhaave, commentés par Van-Swieten, nouvelle Traduction avec des Notes, 7 vols. 12mô. 1768. 14. Traité des Maladies Veneriennes, traduit du Latin de M. Astruc, 4 vols. 12mô. 1777. M. Louis also wrote several papers in the Memoirs of the Academy of Surgery; and various controversial tracts. *Halleri Bibl. Anatom. et Chirurg.*

LOUIS (St.), an island on the west coast of Africa, at the mouth of the river Senegal; flat, sandy, and barren. Its name is derived from a fort built by the French. Both were ceded to the English by the treaty of Versailles, in 1763. During the American war it was taken by the French, and kept by them after the peace of 1783. Lat. 16. N. lon. 16. 8. W.



**LOUIS (St.),** a seaport-town on the south coast of the island of Hispaniola; situated at the head of a bay of its name. Lat. 18. 16. N. lon. 74. 19. W.—A seaport-town of Hispaniola, on the north coast; ruined in 1797 by a hurricane: five miles south-east of Cape François.—A town of South America, in the province of Guiana. Lat. 3. 55. N. lon. 52. 30. W.—The capital town of Guadeloupe, Grand Terre, with a fortress: three leagues south-east of the Salt river.

**LOUIS (St.),** a town on the west side of the river Mississippi, twenty-five miles below the mouth of the Missouri. It is situated on a pleasant and healthy eminence; and contained, in 1799, 130 large commodious houses, built of stone, and 925 inhabitants, of whom 268 are slaves. In this year the productions of the settlement were 4300 bushels of wheat, 10,300 bushels of corn, and 1650 pounds of tobacco. The inhabitants possessed 1140 horned cattle, and 215 horses.—A small compact bay in West Florida, with about seven feet water: the land near it is of a light soil, and good for pasture. Formerly here were several settlers; but in the year 1767 the Choctaw Indians killed their cattle, and obliged them to remove.

**LOUIS (St.),** a lake of Canada, commencing, or rather terminating, at La Chine, a village which stands at the lower end of it. The lake is about twelve miles in length, and four in breadth. At its uppermost extremity it receives a large branch of the Utawas river, and also the south-west branch of the river St. Lawrence, which by some geographers is called the river Cadaraqui, and by others the river Iroquis; but in the country, generally speaking, the whole of that river, running from lake Ontario to the gulf of St. Lawrence, goes simply under the name of St. Lawrence. At the upper end of lake St. Louis, the water is very shallow, owing to the banks of mud and sand washed up by the two rivers; and these banks are entirely covered with reeds, so that, when a vessel sails over them, she appears at a little distance to be absolutely sailing over dry land. This part of the lake is infested with clouds of insects, similar to those which have been commonly observed on various parts of the river St. Lawrence. Their size is about that of a gnat; their colour is white; and their form so delicate, that the slightest touch destroys them, and reduces them to powder. Their wings are broad in proportion to their size; and they fly heavily; so that it is only when the air is remarkably calm that they can venture to make their appearance. Lat. 45. 25. N. lon. 73. 20. W. *Weld's Travels through Canada.*

**LOUIS (St.),** a group of small islands in the river St. Lawrence. Lat. 45. 23. N. lon. 73. 30. W.—A river of America, which runs into lake Superior in lat. 46. 44. N. lon. 91. 52. W.

**LOUIS DE MARANHAM (St.),** a town on the north coast of Brazil, and on the Atlantic Ocean; situated on the east side of Mearim river, about halfway between point Mocaripe and the mouth of the river Para.

**LOUIS D'OR, f.** [French.] A golden coin of France, valued at about twenty shillings.—In 1700 the council made an order and a proclamation, that the *Louis d'or* should not go for above seventeen shillings. *Leake.*

Louis d'ors were first struck in 1641, under the reign of Louis XIII. and were valued at ten livres, afterwards at eleven, and at length at twelve and fourteen. In the latter end of the reign of Louis XIV. they had risen to twenty, and in the beginning of that of Louis XV. to thirty and thirty-six, nay forty and upwards; with this difference, however, that in the last coinings the weight was augmented in some proportion to the price, which in the former reign was never regarded. The Louis d'ors coined before 1726, which then passed for twenty livres, were coined at the rate of 36½ per French mark of gold, twenty two carats fine: these ceased to be a legal coin in France as far back as 1726; but they still continued to circulate through many parts of Germany and Switzerland, where they had a fixed value, and were known by the name of "Old Louis d'Ors:" of these few are now in circulation, From the year 1726

to 1785, Louis d'ors were coined at the rate of thirty to the mark of gold, twenty-two carats fine. Accordingly, before 1786, the Louis weighed 5 dwt. 5½ gr. contained in pure gold 112¼ gr. and was valued at 19s. 10½d. sterling; and the demi-louis weighed 2 dwt. 14¾ gr. contained in pure gold 56½ gr. and was valued at 9s. 11½d. sterling. These coins ceased to be current in France in 1786. In Holland, Germany, &c. they were called "New Louis d'ors," by way of distinction from those which we have before mentioned; though these are now become the old ones. The intrinsic value of such a Louis d'or is very little more than a pound sterling. In 1785 and 1786, all the gold coins in France were called in, and ordered to be melted down; and a new coinage took place, at the rate of thirty-two Louis d'ors to the mark of the same degree of fineness. Accordingly, the Louis coined since 1786, weighed 4 dwt. 22 gr. contained of pure gold 106½ gr. and was valued at 18s. 10d. sterling. The intrinsic value of this new Louis d'or is 18s. 9½d. sterling.

Louis d'ors may be considered as a current coin in most parts of the continent; but in England they are sold merely as merchandise, and their price has fluctuated from 18s. 6d. to 21s. sterling. On one side of the coin is the king's head, with his name and title, thus: LUD. XVI. D.G. FR. ET. NAV. REX. i. e. "Louis XVI. king of France and Navarre;" on the reverse, the arms of France and Navarre, with a crown over them. On the pieces coined before 1786, there are two distinct shields; and on those coined since 1786, a double shield; the legend is, CHR. REGN. VINC. IMPER. i. e. "Christ reigns, conquers, governs:" under the arms is a letter, by which the mint where the piece was coined is distinguished. The double and half Louis bear the same impression.

There are also white Louises, or Louis d'argent, some of 120, others of 60, sols apiece, called also *écus*; and among us French crowns, half crowns, &c. The old *écus*, coined before 1726, were coined at the rate of nine pieces to the mark of 10 deniers 22 grains fine; these, like the Louis d'ors of the same period, after they had ceased to be current in France, still preserved a fixed value in some parts of Germany; but they are now scarcely in circulation. In 1726, the coinage of *écus* was regulated, and continued without alteration, as follows: 8⅓ *écus* of six livres, or 16⅓ *écus* of three livres, were to be coined from a mark of silver eleven deniers fine; and their intrinsic value is 4s. 9½d. sterling. On the one side of these is the king's head, and on the other the French arms, with this legend, *Sit nomen Domini benedictum*; "Blessed be the name of the Lord."

The Louis d'or is also a gold coin of Malta. The double, single, and half, Louis d'ors, were coined by the grand master Rohan, at twenty, ten, and five, scudi, copper or current money. The double Louis weighs 10 dwt. 16 gr. contains of pure gold 215½ gr. and is valued at 1l. 18s. 1½d. sterling; the Louis and half Louis in proportion; but the fineness of the gold coins of Malta undergoes great variation. *Kelly's Universal Cambist.*

**LOUISA,** a sea-port town of Sweden, in the province of Nyland, on the north-coast of the gulf of Finland, built in 1745 as a frontier town towards Russia, and at first called *Degerby*, but afterwards Louisa, in 1752, by king Adolphus Frederic. It is an open town, defended towards the sea by a small fortress. The houses are all of wood, and of two stories, painted with a red colour, and appearing much neater than the common towns in Russia. Lat. 60. 27. N. lon. 26. 16. E.

**LOUISA,** a county of Virginia, adjoining Orange, Albemarle, Fluvanna, Spottsylvania, and Goochland, counties. It is about thirty-five miles long, and twenty broad; and contains 5900 free inhabitants, and 5992 slaves. Many parts of this county are covered with pine.—A river of Virginia, the head-water of Cole-river, a south-west branch of the Great Kanhaway.—A river of Africa, which runs into the Atlantic in lat. 5. 10. S.

**LOUISA CHITTO,** or **LOOSA CHITTO,** a river of America, which rises on the borders of South Carolina, and



and runs a south-westerly course, through the Georgia western lands, and joins the Mississippi just below the Walnut-hills, and ten miles from Stony-river. It is thirty yards wide at its mouth, and said to be navigable for canoes thirty or forty leagues.

**LOUISBURG**, a town and capital of the island of Cape Breton, situated on a point of land on the south-east side of the island. Its streets are regular and broad, consisting for the most part of stone houses, with a large parade at a little distance from the citadel; the inside of which is a fine square, near 200 feet every way. On its north side, while possessed by the French, stood the governor's house, and the church; the other sides were taken up with barracks, bomb-proof; in which the French secured their women and children during the siege. The town is near half an English mile in length, and two in circuit. The harbour is more than half an English mile in breadth, from north-west to south-east in the narrowest part, and six miles in length from north-east to south-west. In the north-east part of the harbour is a fine careening wharf to heave down; and very secure from all winds. On the opposite side are the fishing-stages, and room for 2000 boats to cure their fish. In winter, the harbour is totally impracticable, being entirely frozen, so as to be walked over; that season begins here at the close of November, and lasts till May or June: sometimes the frosts set in sooner, and are more intense; as particularly in 1745, when by the middle of October a great part of the harbour was already frozen. The principal if not the only trade of Louisburg, is the cod-fishery, the plenty of fish being remarkable, and at the same time better than any about Newfoundland. The anchorage, or mooring, is good, and ships may run a-ground without any danger. Its entrance is not above 300 toises in breadth, formed by two small islands. Here is plenty of cod; and the fishery may, in general, be continued from April to the close of December. It was taken from the French by the English fleet under sir Peter Warren, and our American forces commanded by sir William Pepperel, in the year 1745; but afterwards restored to France by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748. It was again taken by the English under the command of admiral Boscawen and lieutenant-general Amherst, on the 27th of July, 1758; and its fortifications since demolished. Lat. 45. 55. N. lon. 59. 50. W.

**LOUISBURG**, in Pennsylvania. See **HARRISBURG**, vol. ix.

**LOUISBURG**, a county in Orangeburgh district, South Carolina.—A post-town of North Carolina, and capital of Franklin county, which lies on Tar river, and contains between twenty and thirty houses, a court-house, and gaol; thirty miles north of Raleigh.—A post-town and chief town of Greenbriar county, Virginia, on the north side of Greenbriar river, containing about sixty houses, a court-house, and gaol; 250 miles west-by-north of Richmond. Lat. 38. 8. N.—A post-town of Northumberland county, Pennsylvania, called also Tarstown, on the west side of the Susquehanna, seven miles above Northumberland; containing about sixty houses, and well situated for a good trade with the north-west part of the state; thirty miles east-by-north from Aaronburg.

**LOUISIA'DE**, the southern coast of a considerable island belonging to New Guinea; so called by Bougainville in 1768.

**LOUISIANA**, a country of North America, first discovered by Ferdinand de Soto in 1541, and afterwards visited by Col. Wood in 1654, and by Capt. Bolt in 1670. But the first person who attempted to settle in this country was M. de la Salle, who, in 1682, traversed the Mississippi; and in the following year he repaired to France, and, in consequence of the representations which he made of his discoveries, obtained a grant of four small vessels and 170 men; with which armament he set sail for the mouth of the Mississippi. In 1685, this small colony, under the direction of their leader, landed in the Bay of St. Bernard's, about 300 miles west of the place of their destination.

After struggling with many hardships, both in their landing and in their endeavours to settle, some of this colony murdered La Salle, and all the rest perished, except seven persons, who penetrated through the country of Canada. In 1699, M. Ibberville, of Canada, a brave naval officer, having obtained the patronage of the French court, sailed from Rochfort with two ships and a number of men, and laid the foundation of the first French colony on the Mississippi. This colony was diminished by some unfavourable circumstances, in 1712, to twenty-eight families. At this time, Crozat, a merchant of great opulence and an adventuring spirit, obtained the exclusive trade of Louisiana; but his plans, which were extensive and patriotic, proving ineffectual, he resigned his charter, in 1717, to a company formed by the famous projector John Law. From this period the country became an object of interest to speculative adventurers; so that, in 1718 and 1719, a numerous colony of labourers, collected from France, Germany, and Swisserland, was conveyed to Louisiana, and settled in a district called Biloxi, on the island of New Orleans, a barren and unhealthy situation, where many hundreds died through want and vexation. This event ruined the reputation of the country; and, the colony having languished till the year 1731, the company at length, for the sum of 1,450,000 livres, purchased the favour of surrendering their concerns into the hands of the government. The French continued in quiet possession of Louisiana, frequent contests with the Indians excepted, till the year 1762. Among these tribes of hostile Indians, we may reckon the Natchez, who appear in the year 1731 to have been almost wholly extirpated. In 1736 and 1740 the colonists were engaged in bloody wars with the Chickasaw Indians; but these, in process of time, terminated in permanent peace. From this time the prospects of the colonists were brightening, as their peltry-trade with the Indians and their commerce with the West Indies were increasing. Several hundred Canadians and recruits of inhabitants from other countries settled on the banks of the Mississippi, and imparted additional strength and prosperity to the original colony.

Such was the state of the country, when in the year 1764 the inhabitants received information, that in November 1762, Louisiana, comprehending New Orleans and the whole territory west of the Mississippi, had been ceded to Spain by a secret treaty. This measure incensed the colonists, and was vigorously opposed, so that complete possession of the country was not obtained by Spain till the 17th of August, 1769; after which event, several victims were sacrificed to atone for the delay of submission, and others were conveyed away to languish out their lives in the dungeons of the Havannah. By the treaty of peace in 1763, which ceded Canada to Great Britain, the boundaries of the British provinces were extended southward to the Gulf of Mexico, and westward to the Mississippi; and Louisiana was limited north by Canada, and east by the Mississippi, excepting that it included the island of New Orleans on its east bank. This state of things remained till the American revolutionary war, during which Spain took from Great Britain the two Floridas. The United States, according to their present limits, became an independent government; and left to Great Britain, of all her American provinces, those only which lie north and east of the United States. All these changes were sanctioned and confirmed by the treaty of 1783.

Thus things continued till the treaty of St. Ildefonso, October 1, 1800, by which Spain engaged to cede to the French republic, on certain conditions, the colony or province of Louisiana, with the same extent which it actually had when France possessed it. This treaty was confirmed and enforced by the treaty of Madrid, March 12, 1801. From France it passed to the United States by the treaty of the 30th of April, 1803. In consideration of this cession, the government of the United States engaged to pay to the French government, under certain stipulations, the sum of 60,000,000 francs, independent of the sum which should



should be fixed by another convention for the payment of the debts due by France to the citizens of the United States.

The boundaries of Louisiana, as formerly possessed by France and Spain, and now held by the United States, are stated as follows: viz. south on the Gulf of Mexico, from the bay of St. Bernard, south-west of the Mississippi to the mouth of the *Rio Perdido*, or Lost River, so called by the Spaniards, because it loses itself under ground, and afterwards appears again, and discharges itself into the sea a little to the east of Mobile, on which the first French planters settled; up the Perdido to its source, and thence (if it rise not north of the 31st degree of lat.) in a straight line north to that parallel; thence along the southern boundary of the United States, west to the Mississippi; then up this river to its source, as established by the treaty of 1783. Beyond this point, the limits (which have never been accurately ascertained) may be considered as including the whole country between the White-Bear lake, or other head of the Mississippi, and the source of the Missouri; and between the last and the head springs of the Arkansas, Red River, and other copious streams, which fall into the Mississippi. In other words, Louisiana may be considered as bounded north and north-west by the high lands which divide the waters that fall into the St. Lawrence and Hudson's Bay from those which fall into the Mississippi; west by that high chain of mountains, known by the name of the Shining Mountains, which may be called the Spine, or Andes, of that part of North America, and which turn the waters on the west of them to the Pacific, and those on the east to the Atlantic Ocean. In a word, it embraces the whole slope, or inclined plain, fronting the south-east and east, down which the various streams flow into the bed of the Mississippi. On the south-west it is bounded by New Mexico, between which and Louisiana the divisional line has never been settled. Some pretend that this boundary is a right line from the head of Red River to that of Rio Bravo, and thence down its channel to the Gulf of Mexico. Others make the Rio Colorado, and others, with greater probability, make the Rio Mexicano, the south-west boundary of Louisiana.

Louisiana may naturally be divided into the three following districts; viz. Eastern, Lower, and Upper.—The *Eastern* division comprehends all that part of this territory which lies east of the Mississippi, bounded south by the gulf of Mexico, east by Perdido river, north by the Mississippi territory, and west by the Mississippi river. This division includes the island of New Orleans, and is watered by the Mobile, Pascagoula, Pearl, Bouquechito, Tanfipaho, and Amit, rivers, with Thompson's creek, and Bayou Sara. The whole coast, embracing the old Biloxi district, consists of a fine white sand, injurious to the eyes, and so dry as not to be fit to produce any thing but pine, cedar, and some ever-green oaks. The Mobile river has few fish, and its banks and vicinity are not very fertile. Between Pascagoula and Mississippi rivers, the country is intermixed with extensive hills, fine meadows, numerous thickets, and in some places woods thick set with cane, particularly on the banks of rivers and brooks, and proper for agriculture. Its coast, though flat, dry, and sandy, abounds with delicious shell and other fish, and affords security against the invasion of an enemy.

*Lower Louisiana* comprehends that part of this territory bounded east by the Mississippi River, south by the gulf of Mexico, south-west and west by New Mexico, north by a line drawn from the Mississippi west, dividing the country in which stone is found from that in which there is none. This part of Louisiana is watered by Red River, and many others which fall into the gulf of Mexico. On both sides of the mouths of the Mississippi are quagmires, affording a safe retreat for water-fowl, gnats, and mosquitoes, and extending for more than twenty miles. The whole coast from the Mississippi, west as far as St. Bernard's Bay and beyond it, resembles that already described of the eastern division; and the soil is barren. In ascending the

Mississippi, beyond the marshes are some narrow strips of firm land, partly bare of trees and partly thickly covered with them; which are fit for cultivation. This part seems to have been either recovered from the sea, or formed by various materials that have descended to it; and it is not unreasonable to imagine, that in process of time the river and sea may form another tract of country like Lower Louisiana. The principal river is the Mississippi; which see. The Red River has its source not far from that of Rio Bravo, or Rio del Norte, on which the city of Sanra Fé is built, and in the mountain which has the springs of the Missouri. On each side of this river are some scattered settlements, for about fifty miles to Bayan Rapide, in which are about one hundred families. The land here is not inferior to any in the world with regard to fertility; and, for a space of about forty miles from hence to the commencement of the Appalusa prairies, the country is equally rich and well-timbered. It is perfectly level, and the soil twenty feet deep, and like a bed of manure. Higher up, the banks and low lands are of similar quality with the lands on Bayan Rapide, the texture of the soil being somewhat looser; but there are few settlements, till you come to the River Cane settlements, sixty or seventy miles higher up Red River. Hence to the village or port of Natchitoches, about fifty miles, and twenty-five miles above it, the banks of one branch of Red River are settled like those of the Mississippi; and the country abounds with beautiful fields and plantations, and luxuriant crops of corn, cotton, and tobacco. The low grounds of Red River, generally five or six miles wide, have an uncommonly rich soil, which is overflowed annually in the month of April. The crops of corn and tobacco are plentiful, and never fail. The soil is particularly favourable for tobacco; an acre yields from eighty to a hundred bushels of corn; and it is no less productive of cotton. Two men, with ten or twelve old pots with kettles, supply the settlement on Red River with salt, the springs of which are almost inexhaustible. Here is likewise plenty of iron and copper ore, pit-coal, shell and stone lime. The different branches of the river, the lakes, creeks, and bayans, furnish abundance of very fine fish, cockles, soft-shelled turtle and shrimps, and in winter great varieties of wild fowl. The country is far from being sickly. The mosquito is rarely seen. The high lands are covered with oak, hickory, ash, gum, sassafras, dogwood, vines, &c. intermixed with short-leaved pine, and interspersed with prairies, creeks, lakes, and fountains. Its hills and valleys are gently varied; and the soil is generally a stony clay. The country on Red River is most valuable, beginning about fifty or sixty miles above the upper settlements, and extending four or five hundred miles. The low lands about forty miles on each side are remarkably rich, interspersed with prairies, and beautiful streams and fountains; also quarries of free-stone, lime, flint, slate, grit, and almost every kind of stone. About thirty miles from the mouth of Red River, Black River falls into it on the north side, which is a clear and navigable stream for five or six hundred miles; about one hundred miles upwards, it branches in three different directions; the eastern branch, called the Tensaw, is navigable for many miles, and affords rich land; the middle or main branch, called Washeta, is navigable five hundred miles, and affords excellent lands, salt-springs, lead-ore, and plenty of very good mill and grind stones; the western branch, called Catahola, runs through a beautiful rich prairie country, in which is a large lake, called Catahola lake. On this lake are salt-springs; and it abounds with fish and fowl. On the river called Ozark are many valuable tracts of land, which is likewise the case with respect to White River and St. Francois.

*Upper Louisiana* comprehends all the remainder of this territory, and is the largest and most valuable part. It is bound on the south by Lower Louisiana, on the east by Mississippi, north and west by the highlands and mountains which divide the waters of St. Lawrence, Hudson's Bay, and the Pacific Ocean, from those of the Mississippi.



It is watered by the Red River, the Arkansas, St. Francis, and the Missouri, with a vast number of smaller streams which fall into these or the Mississippi. From the lower settlement at Sans la Grace, to the upper settlement on the Missouri, about the distance of two hundred and fifty miles, is a country equal to any part of the western territory, containing a population of fifty or sixty thousand, and furnishing lead and iron mines. The soil is at the bottom a solid red clay; and this is covered by a light earth, almost black, and very fertile. The grass grows here to a great height; towards the end of September it is set on fire; and, in eight or ten days after, the young grass shoots up half a foot high. In advancing northwards towards the Arkansas and St. Francis, the country becomes more beautiful and fertile, abounding with various kinds of game, as beavers, &c. and herds of deer, elks, and buffaloes, from ten to a hundred in a drove. Here have been also found specimens of rock-crystal, plaster of Paris, lead and iron ore, lime-stone, and pit-coal. It has all the trees known in Europe, besides others that are there unknown. The cedars are remarkably fine; the cotton-trees grow to such a size, that the Indians make canoes out of their trunks; hemp grows naturally; tar is made from the pines on the sea-coast; and the country affords every material for ship-building. Beans grow to a large size without culture; peach-trees are heavily laden with fruit; and the forests are full of mulberry and plum-trees. Pomegranate and chestnut trees are covered with vines, whose grapes are very large and sweet. They have three or four crops of Indian corn in the year; as they have no other winter besides some rains. Here are also mines of pit-coal, lead and copper, quarries of free-stone, and of black, white, and jasper-like, marble, of which they make their calumets. One species of timber, which is common from the mouth of the Ohio down the Mississippi swamp, is cotton-wood, resembling the Lombardy poplar in the quickness of its growth, and the softness of the timber. Here are also the papaw and black ash, button-wood or sycamore, hickory and cypress; wild cherry, sassafras, beech, chestnut, and Bermudian mulberry-trees. From the Walnut-hills to Point Coupee, and easterly fifteen or thirty miles, the whole country in its natural state is one-continued cane-brake. The cane in general is thirty-six feet high, often forty-two; intermingled with a smaller species, which continue thence on all the creeks to the gulf of Mexico.

As to the climate of this country, during the winter the weather is very changeable, generally throughout Lower and the southern part of Upper Louisiana. In summer it is regularly hot. In the latitude of the Natchez, Fahrenheit's thermometer ranges from 70° to 96°. The average degree of heat is stated to be 14° greater than in Pennsylvania. The climate of Louisiana varies in proportion as it extends northward. Its southern parts are not subject to the same degree of heat as the same latitudes in Africa, nor its northern parts to the same degree of cold as the corresponding latitudes in Europe; owing to the thick woods which cover the country, and to the great number of rivers which intersect it. The prevailing diseases on the lower part of the Ohio, on the Mississippi, and through the Floridas, are bilious fevers. In some seasons they are mild, and are little more than common intermittents; in others they are very malignant, and approach the genuine yellow fever of the West Indies.

The total population of all the parts or districts of Louisiana, including whites, free people of colour, and slaves, is said to be 42,375, of whom 12,920 are slaves. But it is apprehended that this number is too small. The Spanish government is fully persuaded that the population considerably exceeds 50,000 persons. The inhabitants of this country are chiefly the descendants of the French and Canadians. In New Orleans there is a considerable number of English and Americans. The two German coasts are peopled by the descendants of settlers from Germany, and by French mixed with them. The three succeeding settlements, up to Baton Rouge contain mostly Acadians;

banished from Nova Scotia by the English, and their descendants. The government of Baton Rouge, especially on the east side, which includes the whole country between the Iberville and the American line, is composed partly of Acadians, a few French, and a great majority of Americans. On the west side they are mostly Acadians; at Point Coupee and Fauffee River they are French and Acadians; of the population of the Atacapas and Opelousas, a considerable part is Americans; Natchitoches, on the Red River, contains but a few Americans, and the rest of the inhabitants are French; but the former are more numerous in the other settlements on that river, viz. Avoyelles, Rapide, and Ouacheta. At Arkansas they are mostly French; and at New Madrid, Americans. At least two-fifths, if not a greater proportion, of all the settlers on the Spanish side of the Mississippi, in the Illinois country, are likewise supposed to be Americans. Below New Orleans the population is altogether French, and the descendants of Frenchmen. The natives of the southern part of the Mississippi are sprightly; they have a turn for mechanics and the fine arts; but their system of education is so wretched, that little real science is obtained. Many of the planters are opulent, industrious, and hospitable. There is a militia in Louisiana, amounting, as it is said, to about 10,340.

The Indian nations within the limits of Louisiana, are as follow, according to the statement of the late president of the United States, Mr. Jefferson:—On the east bank of the Mississippi, about twenty-five leagues above Orleans, are the remains of the Houmas, or red men, amounting to about 60 persons; on the west side of the same river are the remains of the Tunicas, settled near and above Point Coupee, consisting of 50 or 60 persons.—In the Atacapas, on the lower part of the Bayou Teche, about eleven or twelve leagues from the sea, are two villages of Chitimachas, consisting of about 100 persons; the Atacapas, properly so called, dispersed throughout the district, are about 100; and there are about 50 wanderers of the tribes of Biloxis and Choctaws on Bayou Crocodile, which empties into the Teche.—In the Opelousas, north-west of Atacapas, are two villages of Alibamas in the centre of the district, consisting of 100 persons; and the Conchates dispersed through the country as far as the Sabinas and its neighbourhood, are about 350. On the river Rouge, at Avoyelles, nineteen leagues from the Mississippi, is a village of the Biloni nation, and another on the lake of the Avoyelles, the whole including about 60 persons.—At the Rapide, twenty-six leagues from the Mississippi, is a village of Choctaws, consisting of 100 persons, and another of Biloxes, about two leagues from it, of about 100 more; and at about eight or nine leagues higher up the Red River is a village including about 50 persons. All these are occasionally employed by the settlers as boatmen.—About eighty leagues above Natchitoches, on the Red River, is the nation of the Cadoquies, or Cados, who can raise from three to four hundred warriors, the friends of the whites, and esteemed the bravest and most generous of all the nations in this vast country; they are rapidly declining by their intemperance, and by the attacks of the Osages and Choctaws. Near one of their villages is a rich silver-mine; another lies further north. Lead ore is also found in different places, and also iron-ore, pit-coal, marble, slate, and plaster of Paris. There are 500 families of the Choctaws dispersed on the west side of the Mississippi, on the Ouacheta and Red Rivers, as far west as Natchitoches. On the river Arkansas is a nation of the same name, consisting of about 260 warriors, brave, yet peaceable and well-disposed, attached to the French, and disposed to engage in their wars with the Chickasaws. They live in three villages at eighteen leagues from the Mississippi on the Arkansas river; and the others are at three and six leagues from the first. A scarcity of game on the east side of the Mississippi has induced a number of Cherokees, Choctaws, Chickasaws, &c. to frequent the neighbourhood of Arkansas, where game is still abundant, where



where they have contracted marriages with the Ankanfas, and incorporated themselves with that nation.—On the river St. Francis, in the vicinity of New Madrid, &c. are settled a number of vagabonds from the Delawares, Shawnee, Miamis, Chickasaws, Cherokees, and Piorias; supposed to consist in all of 500 families. They are piratical in their disposition, attached to liquor, unsettled and vagrant in their habits; some of them speak English, all understand it, and some of them can even read and write it. At St. Genevieve, about 30 Piorias, Kaskaskias, and Illinois, are settled among the whites. These are the remains of a nation, which fifty years ago could bring into the field 1200 warriors.

On the Missouri and its waters, are many and numerous nations, the best known of which are—The Osages, situated on the river of the same name on the right bank of the Missouri, at about eighty leagues from its confluence with it; they consist of 1000 warriors, who live in two settlements at no great distance from each other. They are of a gigantic stature and well proportioned, are enemies of the white and of all other Indian nations, and commit depredations from the Illinois to the Arkansas. The trade of this nation is said to be under an exclusive grant. They are a cruel and ferocious race, and are hated and feared by all the other Indians. The confluence of the Osage River with the Missouri is about eight leagues from the Mississippi. Sixty leagues higher up the Missouri, and on the same bank, is the river Kansas, and on it the nation of the same name, but at about seventy or eighty leagues from its mouth. It consists of about 250 warriors, who are as fierce and cruel as the Osages, and often molest and ill-treat those who go to trade among them.—Sixty leagues above the river Kansas, and at about two hundred from the mouth of the Missouri, still on the right bank, is the Riviere Platte, or Shallow River, remarkable for its quicksands and bad navigation; and near its confluence with the Missouri dwells the nation of Otolactos, commonly called Otos, consisting of about 200 warriors, among whom are 25 or 30 of the nation of Missouri, who took refuge among them about twenty-five years since.—Forty leagues up the river Platte you come to the nation of Panis, composed of about 700 warriors in four neighbouring villages; they hunt but little, and are ill provided with fire-arms; they often make war on the Spaniards in the neighbourhood of Sante Fé, from which they are not far distant.—At 3000 leagues from the Mississippi, and one hundred from the river Platte on the same banks, are situated the villages of the Mahas. They consisted, in 1799, of 500 warriors; but are said to have been almost cut off by the small-pox.—At fifty leagues above the Mahas, and on the left bank of the Missouri dwell the Poncas, to the number of 250 warriors, possessing in common with the Mahas, their language, ferocity, and vices. Their trade has never been of much value; and those engaged in it are exposed to pillage and ill treatment.—At the distance of 450 leagues from the Mississippi, and on the right bank of the Missouri, dwell the Aricaras, to the number of 700 warriors; and sixty leagues above them, the Mandane nation, consisting of about 700 warriors likewise. These two last nations are well disposed to the whites, but have been the victims of the Sioux, or Mandowessies, who being themselves well provided with fire-arms, have taken advantage of the defenceless situation of the others, and have on all occasions murdered them without mercy. No discoveries on the Missouri, beyond the Mandane nation, have been accurately detailed; though the traders have been informed, that many navigable rivers discharge their waters into it, above it, and that there are many numerous nations settled on them. The Sioux, or Mandowessies, who frequent the country between the north bank of the Missouri and Mississippi, are a great impediment to trade and navigation. They endeavour to prevent all communication with the nations higher up the Missouri, to deprive them of ammunition and arms, and thus keep them subservient to themselves. In the winter they are chiefly on the banks of the Missouri,

and massacre all who fall into their hands. There are a number of nations at a distance from the banks of the Missouri to the north and south, concerning whom but little information has been received.—Returning to the Mississippi, and ascending it from the Missouri, about seventy-five leagues above the mouth of the latter, the river Moingona, or Riviere de Moine, enters the Mississippi on the west side; and on it are situated the Ayoas, a nation originally from the Missouri, speaking the language of the Otachatas; it consisted of 200 warriors before the small-pox lately raged among them. The Saes and Renards dwell on the Mississippi, about three hundred leagues above St. Louis, and frequently trade with it; they live together, and consisted of 500 warriors; their chief trade is with Michilimackinack, and they have always been peaceable and friendly. The other nations on the Mississippi, higher up, are but little known to us.—The Sac and Fox nations of India have ceded to the United States a valuable country, with a front of 600 miles on the Mississippi. It contains 80,000 square miles, and is equal to 51,200,000 acres. The nations of the Missouri, though cruel, treacherous, and insolent, may doubtless be kept in order by the United States, if proper regulations are adopted with respect to them.

The productions of Louisiana are sugar, cotton, indigo, rice, furs and peltry, lumber, tar, pitch, lead, flour, horses, and cattle. The soil is fertile, the climate salubrious, and the means of communication between most parts of the province certain, and by water. The exports of Louisiana amount in value to 2,158,000 dollars; and the imports, in merchandise, plantation-utensils, slaves, &c. amount to 2¼ millions, the difference being made up by the money introduced by the government, to pay the expenses of governing and protecting the colony. The imports to the United States from Louisiana and the Floridas amounted in 1803 to 1,006,214 dollars, and the exports to Louisiana and the Floridas in the same year to 1,224,710 dollars. In Louisiana there are few domestic manufactures. The Acadians manufacture a little cotton into quilts and cottonades; and, in the remoter parts of the province, the poorer planters spin and weave some negro-cloths of cotton and wool mixed. In the city, besides the trades which are absolutely necessary, there is a considerable manufacture of cordage, and four small ones of shot and hair-powder; and within a few leagues of the town are twelve distilleries for making tafia, which are said to distil annually a considerable quantity; and one sugar-refinery, which is said to make about 200,000lbs. of loaf-sugar.

There are no colleges, and but one public school, which is at New Orleans. There are a few private schools for children. Not more than half of the inhabitants are able to read and write. In general the learning of the inhabitants does not extend beyond those two arts; though they seem to be endowed with a good natural genius, and an uncommon facility of learning whatever they undertake. The clergy consists of a bishop, who does not reside in the province, whose salary of 4000 dollars is charged on the revenue of certain bishoprics in Mexico and Cuba; two canons and twenty-five curates, receive each from 360 to 480 dollars a-year. At Orleans there is a convent of Ursulines, to which is attached about 1000 acres of land. Soon after Louisiana was ceded to the United States, there were two societies established for the promotion of science and literature; one of them at New Orleans, and another at Natchez. The former publishes a monthly magazine for the purpose of diffusing a knowledge of the country, and to amuse the readers with a variety of useful subjects. The latter, which was established in 1803, called the Mississippi Society for the Acquisition and Diffusion of useful Knowledge, consists of forty members, and has correspondents in various parts of the United States: the American government has granted it a charter of incorporation. See NEW ORLEANS.



LOUISTOWN, a town of America, in Talbot county, Maryland, on the west side of Tuckahoe Creek: four miles north of King's Town.

LOUISTOWN, a post-town in Lincoln county, Maine, on the east side of Androscoggin-river, and bounded south-west by Bowdoin; containing 948 inhabitants: thirty-six miles north-east of Portland.

LOUISTOWN, a post-town in Suffex county, Delaware, pleasantly situated on Lewes-creek, three miles above its mouth in Delaware-bay; containing a presbyterian and methodist meetings, and about eighty houses, in a street more than three miles in length, extending along a creek which separates the town from the pitch of the cape. The court-house and gaol are commodious buildings. The entrance of the bay is crowded with vessels from all parts of the world; but during part of the winter is closed with ice. The circumjacent country is beautifully diversified with hills, woods, streams, and lakes, but much infested with mosquitoes and sand-flies. This town carries on a small trade with Philadelphia in the productions of the country. A manufacture of marine and Glauber salts, and magnesia, has been established here. It is 113 miles south of Philadelphia. Lat. 38 6. N. lon. 75. 18. W.

LOUISTOWN, the chief and post-town of Mifflin-county, Pennsylvania, situated on the north side of Juniatta-river, on the west side of, and at the mouth of, Cishicoquilis-creek: about twenty-three miles north-east of Huntingdon; incorporated in 1795, and containing about 120 dwelling-houses, 523 inhabitants, a court-house, and gaol. It is 150 miles west-north-west of Philadelphia. Lat. 40. 33. N. lon. 77. 23. W.

LOUISVILLE, a town of the state of Georgia, on the Ogechee: forty-five miles south-west of Augusta. Lat. 32. 55. N. lon. 82. 42. W.

LOUISVILLE, a town of the state of Kentucky, on the south side of the Ohio: seventy miles west of Lexington. Lat. 38. 4. N. lon. 86. 6. W.

LOULAY, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Charente: six miles north of St. Jean d'Angely, and seventeen south of Niort.

LOULE, a town of Portugal, in the province of Algarva, on a river of the same name, near the sea; surrounded with antique walls, and containing a castle, hospital, three convents, and about 4400 inhabitants: nine miles north of Faro, and fifteen west of Tavira. Lat. 37. 5. N. lon. 7. 54. W.

LOULIE' (François), a French musician, who published in 1696 an ingenious and useful book, entitled "Elements of Music," with a description of a chronometer to measure time by a pendulum; and in 1698, another book was printed at Amsterdam, called "A New System of Music," by the same author. In this work, besides the usual instructions in elementary books, he explains the nature of transposition, and proposes a method of reducing a piece of music into any key different from that in which it was originally composed, by means of imaginary clefs.

LOUND (East), a village in the isle of Axholme, Lincolnshire.

LOUND HALL, a place in Nottinghamshire, north of Redford, on the river Idle.

LOUNG, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Sehaurumpour: twenty-eight miles south of Merat.

To LOUNGE, *v. n.* [*lunderen*, Dut.] To idle; to live lazily.

LOUNGER, *f.* An idler.

LOUNGING, *f.* The act of living in idleness.

LOUP, a river of France, which runs into the Mediterranean in lat. 43. 38. N. lon. 7. 12. E.

LOUP, a river of Canada, which runs into lake St. Pierre in lat. 46. 13. N. lon. 72. 47. E.

LOUP (St.) a town of France, in the department of the Upper Saone, and chief place of a canton, in the district of Lure: six miles north-west of Luxeuil. The place contains 1891, and the district 13,366, inhabitants, in fourteen communes.

LOUP (St.), a town of France, in the department of the Two Seves, and chief place of a canton, in the district of Parthenay, near the river Thoue; nine miles north-north-east of Parthenay. The place contains 1649, and the canton 5968, inhabitants, in nine communes.

LOUP DE SALLE (St.), a town of France, in the department of the Saone and Loire, near the river Heune: eleven miles north of Chalons sur Saone.

LOUPE, *f.* [French.] A magnifying-glass. *Obsolete.*

LOUPPE, a town of France, in the department of the Eure and Loire: twelve miles south-west of Châteauneuf en Thimerais, and eighteen west of Chartres.

LOUR'BOTTLE, a village in Northumberland, south of Whittingham.

LOUPTE'RE (John Charles de Relongue), was born in the diocese of Sens in 1727; he became a member of the Academy of the Arcadi at Rome; and died in the year 1788. He is known by a collection of poems in two volumes 12mo. written with much spirit and elegance; and by six parts of a Journal for Ladies, printed in 1761.

LOURDE, a town of France, and seat of a tribunal, in the department of the Higher Pyrenees: six miles north of Argeltez, and eleven south of Tarbe. Lat. 43. 6. N. lon. 0. 1. E.

LOURE, *f.* In French music, a kind of dance, of which the tune is rather slow, and generally in the measure of  $\frac{3}{4}$ , or six crotchets in a bar. Likewise the name of an instrument resembling bagpipe, to the music of which the tune is danced.

LOURE'ZA, a town of Spain, in the province of Galicia: eight miles west of Tuy.

LOURGE, *f.* [from the Lat. *longurio*.] A tall loose-made fellow; a gangrel.

LOURICAL, a town of Portugal, in the province of Estremadura: twelve miles south of Montemor Velho, and six north of Leiria.

LOURIN'HA, a town of Portugal, in the province of Entre Duero e Minho: eight miles south-south-east of Peniche.

LOURISTAN, a district of Persia, forming the northern part of the province of Chufistan.

LOUSE, *f.* plural *lice*; [*luz*, Sax. *lays*, Dut.] A small animal, of which different species live on the bodies of men, beasts, and perhaps of all living creatures. See PEDICULUS.—There were *lice* upon man and beast. *Exod.* viii. 18.

Frogs, *lice*, and flies, must all his palace fill  
With loath'd intrusion.

*Milton.*

Wood-LOUSE. See MILLEPEDES.

To LOUSE, *v. a.* [pronounced *louze*.] To clean from lice.—As for all other good women, that love to do but little work, how handsome it is to *louse* themselves in the sunshine, they that have been but a while in Ireland can well witness. *Spenser on Ireland.*

LOU'SEWORT, *f.* in botany. See DELPHINIUM, STAPHISAGRIA, and PEDICULARIS.

LOU'SEWORT, (Yellow.) See RHINANTHUS.

LOU'SILY, *adv.* In a paltry, mean, and scurvy, way.

LOU'SINESS, *f.* The state of abounding with lice.

LOU'SY, *adj.* Swarming with lice; over-run with lice.—Sweetbriar and gooseberry are only *lousy* in dry times, or very hot places. *Mortimer's Husbandry.*

Let him be daub'd with lace, live high and whore,  
Sometimes be *lousy*, but be never poor.

*Dryden.*

Mean; low-born; bred on the dunghill.—I pray you now remembrance on the *lousy* knave mine host: a *lousy* knave, to have his gibes and his mockeries. *Shakespeare.*

To LOU'T, *v. n.* [*hluzan*, to bend, Sax.] To pay obedience; to bend; to bow; to stoop, *Obsolete.* It was used in a good sense:

He fair the knight saluted, *louting* low,  
Who fair him quitted, as that courteous was.

*Spenser.*

The



The palmer, grey with age, with count'nance *louting* low,  
His head ev'n to the earth, before the king did bow. *Drayt.*

To LOU**T**, or Low**T**, *v. a.* [This word seems in  
Shakespeare to signify] To overpower :

I'm *louted* by a traitor villain,  
And cannot help the noble chevalier. *Shakespeare.*

LOU**T**, *f.* [*loete*, old Dut.] A mean awkward fellow;  
a bumpkin; a clown.—Pamela, whose noble heart doth  
disdain that the trust of her virtue is reposed in such a  
*lout's* hands, had yet, to show an obedience, taken on  
shepherdish apparel. *Sidney.*

I've need of such a youth,  
That can with some discretion do my business;  
For 'tis no trusting to yon foolish *lout*. *Shakespeare.*

LOUTETS'NA, a town of Croatia: twelve miles  
south of Creutz.

LOUTH, a large market-town in Lincolnshire, situated  
in a fertile valley at the eastern foot of the Wolds, twenty-  
six miles distant from Lincoln, and 153 from London.  
It was anciently called *Luda*, from its proximity to the  
Ludd, a small rivulet formed by the confluence of two  
streams. Among the few historical events relative to Louth,  
we find that in the rebellion of the year 1536, occasioned  
by the suppression of the religious houses, the inhabitants  
took an active part, under Dr. Mackerel, who was known  
by the name of Captain Cobler, when the prior of Barling's  
abbey, with the vicar and thirteen other ring-leaders, suf-  
fered death. In this town were anciently established three  
religious fraternities, called the Guild of our Blessed Lady,  
the Guild of the Holy Trinity, and the Chantry of John  
of Louth. King Edward VI. alienated the funds of these  
guilds, and granted them for the purpose of erecting and  
endowing a free grammar-school. The lands then pro-  
duced 40*l.* per annum, but are now let at 400*l.* One-half  
of the produce was granted for a head-master's salary, one-  
fourth for the usher's, and the remainder for the perpetual  
maintenance of twelve poor women. The trustees of this  
foundation were incorporated by the name of "The  
Wardens and Six Assistants of the Town of Louth, and  
Free School of King Edward VI. in Louth." Another  
free-school on a very respectable scale, was founded in  
pursuance of the will of Dr. Mapletoft, dean of Ely, bear-  
ing date August 17, 1677.

The parish-church of St. James is a spacious edifice,  
consisting of a nave, two aisles, with an elegant tower and  
spire at the west end. The east end, which presents a fine  
elevation, exhibits a large central window, having six up-  
right mullions and varied tracery, with two lateral win-  
dows opening into the aisles. Internally the nave is sepa-  
rated from the aisles by octagonal columns, the alterna-  
te sides of which are relieved by single flutes. The  
chancel, which has an altar-piece containing a picture of  
the Descent from the Cross, by Williams, is of more mo-  
dern date than the body of the church, and is probably  
coeval with the justly-admired steeple. The latter was  
begun in the year 1501, and completed in fifteen years.  
The height was originally 360 feet; but the flat stone on  
the summit was blown off in 1587, and carried with it  
part of the building into the body of the church. The  
whole spire being blown down October 11th, 1634, the  
present one was erected. The tower-part of the steeple  
consists of three stories: each stage terminates with ele-  
gant pediments, supported by ornamental corbels; in this  
manner diminishing to the top, where are four octagonal  
embattled turrets. At eighty feet from the base, round  
the exterior of the tower, runs a gallery, guarded by a  
parapet wall; and at the height of 170 feet the battle-  
ments commence. The top stone projects with a cornice;  
the height of the spire to the cross is 141 feet; the total  
height of the whole 283 feet. A few years ago, a sailor  
undertook to climb to the top of it on the outside, sup-  
porting himself by means of small stones regularly pro-  
jecting out of the angles; one of the stones giving way,  
he was near falling, but fortunately recovered himself.

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After dancing round the weathercock for some time, he  
descended by the same means, in safety, contrary to the  
expectations of the townsmen, who had gazed at him  
with sensations of anxiety and horror. The living of St.  
James is a vicarage, in the gift of a prebendary of Lin-  
coln cathedral, to which it was annexed by the Conque-  
ror. The vicarage-house, which stands contiguous to the  
church-yard, is an old thatched building; and the pre-  
sent vicar has, in unison with its appearance, laid out his  
garden in a curious style of ingenious rusticity: it is de-  
nominated the Hermitage, and deservedly claims the at-  
tention of the curious. It is constructed of local mate-  
rials, chiefly collected out of the neighbouring fields and  
hedges; and appears as if it were formed by nature rather  
than art.

In Louth was formerly another church, named St.  
Mary's; it is now totally demolished; but the church-  
yard is the place of sepulture for the town, as that of St.  
James has not been used for that purpose for forty years  
past. The dissenters from the establishment have three  
places of worship; one for catholics, one for baptists, and  
one for methodists. The other principal buildings are a  
town-hall, an assembly room, and a theatre.

The civil government of the town is vested in the war-  
den and six assistants, incorporated, as already mentioned,  
by Edward VI. who in the same charter granted two mar-  
kets, to be held on Wednesdays and Saturdays; and three  
fairs, to commence on the third Sunday after Easter, St.  
James's day, and the feast of St. Martin; with a particular  
injunction, that they should continue two whole days af-  
ter, that the first day of each fair might be appropriated  
"to hearing the word of God." Queen Elizabeth gave  
to the corporation the manor of Louth, of which the  
annual value was then 78*l.* 14*s.* 4*d.* for the better sup-  
port of the corporate dignity; and some additional pri-  
vileges were granted by James I. In the year 1811, the  
inhabitants of Louth, as appears by the return under the  
population-act, were—2247 males, and 2481 females; to-  
tal 4728; and it is remarkable, that for the last ten years  
the births and deaths were exactly equal. A carpet and  
blanket manufactory has been recently established here,  
and is now in a very prosperous state; here is also a large  
manufactory of soap, and a mill for making coarse paper.  
In the year 1761 an act was obtained for cutting a canal  
between Louth and the North Sea. It commences about  
half a mile from the town, and keeps parallel with the  
Ludd, which supplies it with water; leaving the river  
about four miles from the town, it sweeps to the north,  
and joins the sea at a place called Tetney lock. The un-  
dertaking cost 12,000*l.* which brings in very good in-  
terest. By this channel, vessels of considerable burthen  
regularly trade to London, Hull, and several parts of  
Yorkshire, carrying out corn and wool, and bringing  
home timber, coals, grocery, &c. In Louth and its vicin-  
ity are various springs of a very peculiar nature, worthy  
of investigation by the philosopher and chemist.

About a mile from the town is the site of Louth-park  
abbey, which was built by Alexander bishop of Lincoln  
in the year 1139, and appropriated to Cistercian monks.  
In the time of Henry III. this house contained 66 monks,  
and 150 converts, or labourers.—The following are the  
principal villages in the neighbourhood of Louth: Tath-  
well, three miles distant; Haugham, four; Ruckland  
(north-east of Horncastle,) six; Farforth, six; Tedford,  
ten; South Ormesby, nine; Burwell, near Althorp, six;  
Muckton, six; Swaby, nine; South Thoresby, ten; Bellen,  
nine; Authorpe, eight; North and South Reston, five;  
south-east; Castle Carleton six; Great Carlton, eight;  
Manby, seven, north-east; Grimoldby (south-west of Sal-  
fleet), seven; Stewton, two; North and South Cocker-  
ington, six, north-east; Alvingham, five; Keddington, two;  
Yarborough, five; Cawthorpe and Covenham, seven;  
Fullston (near Granthorp), eight; Tetney, twelve; North  
Thoresby, seven; Grainsby, eight; Wayth, nine; Haw-  
ardby, ten; Wyham, eight; Utterby, five; Fotherby,

8 L

three;



three; Little Grimsby, three; North Ormesby, seven, north-west; Ludborough (near Wyham, west of Salfleet), six; Kellstern, six, west; Ludford, nine; at this place Roman coins have been dug up; it is near Market Raisin; Brough, eight; Gayton on the Wold, six; Cawkwell (east of Stanton), six; Scamblesby, seven; North Elkington, four; South Elkington, two; Welton, three; Withcall, five; Hallington, two, south-west; and Raithby, two.

**LOUTH**, a county of Ireland, in the province of Leinster, bounded on the north by the county of Armagh, on the east by the Irish Sea, on the south by Meath, and on the west by Meath and Monaghan. It is the smallest county of Ireland, but very fertile and pleasant, and abounding with many remains of antiquities, of which Mr. Wright, in his *Louthiana*, has given a very ample description. It contains 111,180 Irish plantation acres, 50 parishes, five baronies, and five boroughs; and formerly returned ten members to parliament: it is about twenty-two miles in length from north to south, and from nine to fourteen in breadth from east to west. It contains 61 parishes, upwards of 11,500 houses, and about 57,750 souls. Except on the side of Carlingford Bay, which is mountainous, the soil is in general rich and fertile. The principal towns are Drogheda, Carlingford, Dundalk, Ardee, and Dunleer. Two members are returned to the imperial parliament for the county, and for Drogheda and Dundalk one each.—**LOUTH**, which gives name to the county, is a village, six miles from Dundalk, with one annual fair.

**LOUTH**, a township of Upper Canada, west of Grantham, and fronting Lake Ontario.

**LOUTHERBOURG** (Philip James de), was born at Strasburg on the Rhine, Nov. 1, 1740. His family was originally of Poland, where his ancestors had been ennobled by king Sigismund, whose letters of nobility bear date at Warsaw, A. D. 1564; but, when the reformation began to spread in that kingdom, about the year 1537, one branch of the family dissented from the church of Rome, and retired, to avoid impending persecution, into Switzerland, where it continued, till, on Mr. de Louthembourg's father being appointed principal painter to the prince of Hanau Darmstadt, he removed to Strasburg. As Mr. de Louthembourg's father was a painter of eminence (who had been a disciple of Largilliere, the celebrated portrait-painter), it was natural to suppose he would have brought up his son to that profession: however, that was not the case; his parents were divided in their destination of their child's future occupation. The one designed he should be an engineer; and the other insisted on his being bred a Lutheran minister. The difference of the two professions was, indeed, very great; but, till that should be decided, it was resolved he should receive an education that should fit him for either. For this purpose he was entered at the university of Strasburg; where he studied mathematics, to qualify him for an engineer; and philosophy, languages, and theology, to enable him to take orders. It is frequently seen that the intentions of parents for the establishment of their children are frustrated, especially when the inclinations of the child are not consulted; so it was the case of young Philip. His genius led him to painting; and, though he had made a rapid progress in mathematics and theology, particularly in the deepest and most abstruse points of mystics, yet he snatched every opportunity to prosecute his favourite study: and, as he was strongly attached to chemistry, he found, by following the principles of nature, a method of preparing and blending his colours (unknown to other artists), by which they were rendered more vivid and durable, as one component part did not destroy the effect of the other. Thus qualified by genius, learning, and industry, he quitted Strasburg, and went to Paris, where he became a disciple of the great Carlo Vanloo. Mr. de Louthembourg, by keeping an attentive eye on nature, soon rose to excellence. He struck out a new manner peculiar to himself; for he scorned to be a servile imitator of the manner of any mas-

ter, however excellent: he adopted the beauties of Vanloo without copying his defects; his outline became free, his drawing correct, and his colouring rich. In a word, he gained the height of eminence so early in life, that the Royal Academy of Painting and Sculpture broke through the fundamental law in his favour, by electing him an academical, in the year 1762, at the age of 22, when that law forbade any one from being a member till turned 30. Indeed, he anticipated age by merit; and, though younger in years than the letter of the law prescribed, he was more mature in art than the spirit of it required; and in 1782 stood the twenty-eighth in seniority of fifty-nine academicians. Five years after (1767), he was admitted a member of the Academy of Marseilles. He quitted Paris; and visited those parts of Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, where he could observe the most perfect works of art, or the most picturesque views of nature; and about the year 1771 came to England, where his fame had arrived. He was soon particularly distinguished by Mr. Garrick, who engaged him as superintendent of the scenery and machinery at Drury-lane; which office he constantly executed in such a style and manner as almost to realize fancy, and add to the illusion of the drama. His other works, seen in several exhibitions, and in the cabinets of royalty and nobility, have stamped his merit with a currency that will never fail. Nov. 23, 1781, he was elected a member of the Royal Academy of Arts in London. He died at his house at Hammer-smith, on the 11th of March, 1812.

The various compositions of Mr. de Louthembourg—his historical pictures, battles, sea-pieces; landscapes and convulsions of nature; together with his vignettes for Macklin's Bible—are fully known to the public; and his character is fully established; but it will still bear an addition with those who knew that he was as amiable in private life; so that in him was happily blended the scholar, the artist, and the gentleman. The greatest collection of his productions, in this country, is in the possession of Henry Von Boadicoate, esq. of Hammer-smith. From a portrait of M. de L. painted by Ickle, a German artist, about twenty years ago, the engraving which accompanies this article was taken, by permission of Mrs. de Louthembourg. Mr. de L. has a monument in Chiswick church-yard, (which the reader will not forget contains the ashes of Hogarth;) with an epitaph written by Dr. Moody, which concludes as follows:

Here, Louthembourg, repose thy laurel'd head!  
While Art is cherish'd, thou canst ne'er be dead:  
Salvator, Poussin, Claude, thy skill combines,  
And beauteous Nature lives in thy designs.

**LOUT'ISH**, *adj.* Clownish; bumkinly.—This *lout'ish* clown is such, that you never saw so ill favoured a vitar; his behaviour such, that he is beyond the degree of ridiculous. *Sidney*.

**LOUT'ISHLY**, *adv.* With the air of a clown; with the gait of a bumpkin.

**LOU'TRA** (Great and Little), two small Greek islands in the gulf of Engia: seven miles north-west of Engia.

**LOUTZO'VA**, a town of Russia, in the government of Irkutsk: ten miles north-east of Verchnei Udinsk.

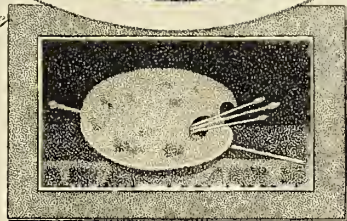
**LOUVAIN**, or **LOE'VEN**, a city of France, in the department of the Dyle, heretofore the capital of Brabant, founded, according to some, by Julius Cæsar, according to others by one Lupus, who lived a long time before him; but on this there can be no reliance. It is however certain, that Louvain was known in the year 885, when Godfrey duke of Normandy, having ravaged the country, encamped near the Dyle, on the plain of Louvain. The emperor Arnulph built a castle to defend the country against the Normans, about this time, which was called *Laven*, and afterwards *le Chateau de Cæsar*, or Cæsar's Castle, and was a long time the ordinary residence of the dukes of Brabant; in this castle Henry I. was assassinated in the year 1038; Thierry, comte of Holland, was kept prisoner in the year 1200; the emperor





*Engr. by Page from the  
MS. in the possession of*

*Original Picture  
MS. Louthborough*



LOUTHERBOURG.

*London. Published as the Act directs Aug. 1811 by G. Jones.*







emperor Charles V. and his sisters, were brought up here till 1510; and formerly the assembly of the states was held here. It is now in ruins. The city was first surrounded with walls in the year 1165, and afterwards very much enlarged in the 14th century, by Wenceslaus and John, dukes of Brabant. The trade at present is not very considerable; the principal article is beer, of which a great quantity is sent to Brussels, Antwerp, Liege, Tirlmont, and other cities and towns. It was formerly much larger than it now is, much richer, and carried on more trade than any other place in the country. At the beginning of the fourteenth century, four thousand houses were inhabited by clothiers, and their manufactories employed above 150,000 workmen. It is related in their annals, that, when, this crowd of weavers left work, they were compelled to found a large bell, that the women might keep their children within doors, lest they should be thrown down and trampled to death. This is probably the reason that the magistrates are here more numerous than in other cities; for, besides two burgo-masters, seven echevins, two pensioners, six secretaries, and four receivers, they had a council of 21; eleven of whom are nobles, and the other ten merchants or tradesmen. The town-house where they assembled is a beautiful Gothic structure. In the year 1382, the weavers and other tradesmen revolted against Wenceslaus, duke of Brabant, and cruelly threw seventeen of the magistrates out of the town-house windows; took arms against their prince, and laid waste the province; but being besieged, they implored for mercy, and obtained pardon at the intreaty of Arnold de Hornes, bishop of Liege, only the most culpable being punished; and the weavers, who were the authors of the insurrection, were banished; they retired for the most part to England, where they were very well received. Louvain being thus nearly deprived of commerce and inhabitants, John IV. duke of Brabant, with the consent of Pope Martin V. in the year 1426, founded an university, which has since been the chief ornament and glory of the place, and is said to resemble those in England more than any other abroad. There are sixty colleges in this university, which, though much admired for their situation and building, are not however so sumptuous as those of Oxford and Cambridge. The Dutch have a college here for Roman Catholics; the English one of Dominican friars; the Irish one of secular priests, another of Dominican friars, and another of Franciscans. There is a convent here of English nuns, which is reckoned the best of any of this nation in the Low Counties. Louvain long prided itself as never having been taken by arms. In the year 1542, Martin Roslen, general of the Gueldrians, attempted it in vain; and, in 1572, William prince of Orange was compelled to raise the siege by the vigorous resistance of the citizens and students. On the first Sunday of July, they have an annual fête in memory of their deliverance from the Dutch and the French in 1635, who were compelled by famine to retire. And on the 5th of August, 1710, the French, under the partisan du Moulin, attempted to surprize the city, but were repuffed by the citizens, and obliged to retire in confusion; this bravery was rewarded by a present of a golden key, sent them by Charles III. king of Spain, as an acknowledgment of their fidelity, which they preserve in their town-house, as a memorial of his majesty's good-will. But, nevertheless, this city was taken by the French in the year 1746; and again by the soldiers of the French republic, under Dumourier, in their hasty progress through Brabant; but was evacuated on the 22d of March, 1793; and indeed it is but ill adapted for defence, the walls being nine miles in circumference, though not a third part of the inclosure is built on; the rest being occupied for gardens and vineyards. Louvain was anciently situated part in the diocese of Liege, and part in the diocese of Cambrai, but, on the erection of the archbishopric of Malines, it was placed under that diocese, and so remained till its union with France. The number of inhabitants is estimated at 18,000. It is twenty-one miles south-west of

Antwerp, and thirteen north-east of Brussels. Lat. 50. 34. N. lon. 4. 40. E.

LOU'VE, a river of France, which runs into the Adour near Castlenau.

LOUVEN, a river of Norway, which runs into the sea at Lauvig, in the province of Aggerhuus.

LOUVET' (Peter), a French advocate, ecclesiastical writer, and antiquary, in the seventeenth century, was a native of Reinville, two leagues from Beauvais: he was educated to the legal profession, and became master of requests to queen Margaret, in whose service he died in 1646. He was the author of several works, which, though not to be commended for the style in which they are written, will be found to contain much useful and curious matter, valuable to the civil and ecclesiastical historian. Of this description, are, 1. The History of the Antiquities of the Diocese of Beauvais, 2 vols. 8vo. 1609 and 1614. 2. Nomenclatura et Chronologia Rerum Ecclesiasticarum Diocesis Bellovacensis, 8vo. 1618. 3. Remarks on the ancient State of the Nobility in the Beauvaisin, and of several French Families, 8vo. 1631 and 1640; which is very rare, and in an unfinished state: it is drawn up in alphabetical order, and reaches no farther than to the commencement of the letter N. 4. An Abstract of Constitutions and Regulations, for general provincial, and particular, Chapters, designed to effectuate a Reform in the Convent of Jacobins at Beauvais, 1618. *Moreri*.

LOUVET DE COUVRA'Y (John Baptist), one of the members of the French convention of France. He was of the Brissotine party, and had the courage to oppose the savage Robespierre, when at the very height of his power; yet he escaped the slaughter which that tyrant inflicted on a multitude of good men, and died in the year 1797. He was author of; 1. A romance, entitled the Amours of the Chevalier Faublas. 2. A political journal, called the Sentinel. 3. A Justification of Paris in 1789. 4. Emily de Varmont. 5. An Account of himself, and of the Dangers which he had passed through.

LOUVIER'S, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Eure: twelve miles north of Evreux, and fifteen south of Rouen. Lat. 49. 3. N. lon. 2. 55. E.

LOUVIGNE', a town of France, in the department of the Ourthe, and chief place of a canton, in the district of Liege. The place contains 1541, and the canton 5925, inhabitants, in seven communes.

LOUVIGNE', a town of France, in the department of the Ile and Vilaine: eight miles north-north-east of Fougères, and twenty-four east of Dol.

LOUVIGNE' EN BAIN, a town of France, in the department of the Ile and Vilaine: seven miles south-west of Vitre, and eight north-west of La Guerche.

LOUVIL'LE D'ALONVIL'LE (Eugene), a French mathematician and astronomer, was descended from an ancient and noble family, and born at the chateau de Louville in the diocese of Chartres, in the year 1671. He received an education intended to qualify him for assuming the naval or military profession; and, having served for some time at sea, and afterwards on land, was made brigadier in the armies of Philip V. king of Spain, and colonel of a regiment of dragoons. Being disbanded upon the peace of Utrecht, he devoted himself entirely to the study of the mathematics, and particularly of astronomy. In the year 1713 or 1714, he went to Marseilles, for the sole purpose of precisely ascertaining the latitude of that place, that his observations might correspond the more exactly with those of Pytheas, made almost two thousand years before that time. In the last of the years above-mentioned, he was admitted a member of the Academy of Sciences at Paris, and appointed astronomer at the observatory of that city. During the year 1715, he came into England, in order to observe the total eclipse of the sun in that year, which was to be more perfectly visible about London than in any other part of the northern hemisphere. While he was in this country, or not long afterwards, he



was elected a fellow of the Royal Society. Upon his return into France, he fixed his residence at a small country-house within a quarter of a league of Orleans, where he applied himself most assiduously to his astronomical studies. So intent was he in prosecuting them, that he became a philosophical recluse, and was never to be spoken with but during the time when he was at his meals. At the same time, however, that he led this solitary life, and seemed to be wholly wrapt up in himself, and to regard external objects with stoical apathy, he was friendly, obliging, and liberal. Fontenelle also relates, that, though he was thus strictly studious, he was noted for a degree of delicacy and niceness with respect to dress, and articles for the table, which one would not expect to observe in so profound and abstract a philosopher. In the year 1732, he was attacked by a lethargic disorder; and soon afterwards a relapse proved fatal to him, when he was about the age of sixty-one. He was the author of a great number of curious Dissertations on physical and astronomical subjects, several of which are inserted in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences, and others in the French Mercury, after the year 1720. He was a good scientific mechanic, and had an excellent collection of the best astronomical instruments, of which the most difficult and ingenious were made with his own hands. *Moreri.*

LOU'VO, a town of Siam, on a river which runs into the Mecon. The ancient kings had here a pleasure-house or palace, which was rebuilt in 1687. The situation is charming, and the air so good, that the king resides here the greatest part of the year. It is forty miles south of Siam. Lat. 14. 55. N. lon. 100. 30. E.

LOUVOIS, a town of France, in the department of the Marne: nine miles north-east of Epemay.

LOUVOIS (Marquis). See TELLIER.

LOU'VRE, *f.* The name of the royal palace at Paris.

The *Honours of the Louvre*, were certain privileges (which we may now suppose will be or are restored in the ancient form) annexed to divers dignities, or offices, particularly those of duke, peer, chancellor, &c. as to enter the Louvre in a coach, to have the tabouret, or stool, in the queen's presence, &c.

LOU'VRE, *f.* [from its being first used at the above place.] A well-known dance-tune.

LOU'VRES, a town of France, in the department of the Seine and Oise: twelve miles north of Paris. Lat. 49. 3. N. lon. 2. 35. E.

LOU'YS, or Louis (John), an engraver of considerable eminence, who flourished about the middle of the sixteenth century. According to Basan, he was a native of Flanders. He learned the art of engraving from Peter Soutman, at the time that Suyderhoef studied under the same master; and his usual style of engraving bears some resemblance to that of his master. One of his best prints is Diana, with her nymphs, reposing after the chase; a middling-sized plate, lengthwise, from Rubens.

LOUZAC', a town of France, in the department of the Correze: seven miles north-east of Uzerches, and twelve north of Tulle.

LOW, *adj.* Not high:

Their wand'ring course now high, now low, then hid,  
Progressive, retrograde. *Milton.*

Not rising far upwards.—It became a spreading vine of low stature. *Ezek. xvii. 6.*—Not elevated in place, or local situation.—Whatsoever is washed away from them is carried down into the lower grounds, and into the sea, and nothing is brought back. *Burnet's Theory of the Earth.*

O mighty Cæsar! dost thou lye so low?  
Are all thy conquests, glories, triumphs, spoils,  
Shrunk to this little measure? *Shakespeare's Julius Cæsar.*

Descending far downwards; deep.—The lowest bottom  
snook of Erebus. *Milton.*

So high as heav'd the tumid hills, so low  
Down sunk a hollow bottom, broad and deep,  
Capacious bed of waters. *Milton.*

Not deep; not swelling high; shallow; used of water—  
As two men were walking by the sea-side at low water,  
they saw an oyster, and both pointed at it together.  
*L'Étrange.*—Not of high price: as, corn is low.—Not loud;  
not noisy.—The theatre is so well-contrived, that, from  
the very deep of the stage, the lowest sound may be heard  
distinctly to the farthest part of the audience; and yet, if  
you raise your voice as high as you please, there is nothing  
like an echo to cause confusion. *Addison on Italy.*

As when in open air we blow,  
The breath, though strain'd, sounds flat and low:  
But, if a trumpet take the blast,  
It lifts it high, and makes it last. *Waller.*

In latitudes near to the line.—They take their course  
either high to the north, or low to the south. *Abbot's De-  
scription of the World.*—Not rising to so great a sum as some  
other accumulation of particulars.—Who can imagine,  
that in sixteen or seventeen hundred years time, taking  
the lower chronology, that the earth had then stood, man-  
kind should be propagated no farther than Judæa? *Bur-  
net.*—Late in time: as, the lower empire.—Dejected; de-  
pressed:

His spirits are so low, his voice is drown'd,  
He hears as from afar, or in a swoon,  
Like the deaf murmur of a distant sound. *Dryden.*

Impotent; subdued.—To keep them all quiet, he must  
keep them in greater awe and less splendour; which power  
he will use to keep them as low as he pleases, and at no  
more cost than makes for his own pleasure. *Graunt.*

To be worst,  
The lowest, most dejected, thing of fortune,  
Stands still in esperance. *Shakespeare.*

Not elevated in rank or station; abject.—He woos both  
high and low, both rich and poor. *Shakespeare.*—Dis-  
honourable; betokening meanness of mind: as, low tricks:  
Yet sometimes nations will decline so low  
From virtue, which is reason, that no wrong  
But justice, and some fatal course annex'd,  
Deprives them of their outward liberty,  
Their inward lost. *Milton.*

Not sublime; not exalted in thought or diction.—In com-  
parison of these divine writers, the noblest wits of the  
heathen world are low and dull. *Felton.*—Submissive; hum-  
ble; reverent:

I bring them to receive  
From thee their names, and pay their fealty  
With low subjection. *Milton.*

LOW, *adv.* In times approaching towards our own.—  
In that part of the world which was first inhabited, even  
as low down as Abraham's time, they wandered with their  
flocks and herds. *Locke.*—With a depression of the voice.  
—Lucia, speak low; he is retired to rest. *Addison.*—In a state  
of subjection.—How comes it that, having been once so  
low brought and thoroughly subjected, they afterwards  
lifted themselves so strongly again? *Spenser.*

To LOW, *v. a.* To sink; to make low. Probably mis-  
printed for lower.—The value of guineas was loved from  
one-and-twenty and sixpence to one-and-twenty shillings.  
*Swift.*

To LOW, *v. n.* [hlopan, Sax. The adjective low, not  
high, is pronounced lo, and would rhyme to no: the verb  
low, to bellow, is by Dryden rhymed to now.] To bellow  
as a cow.—Doth the wild ass bray when he has grafs? or  
loweth the ox over his fodder? *Job, vi. 5.*

Fair Iô grac'd his shield, but Iô now,  
With horns exalted stands, and seems to low. *Dryden.*

LOW (Edward), a musician of the seventeenth century;  
brought up in Salisbury cathedral, and was appointed or-  
ganist of Christ-church, Oxford, in 1630, where he was  
deputy



deputy music-professor under Dr. Wilson; and, upon his quitting the university, Low was appointed his successor in the professorship. Low published, in 1661, an useful little book of "Short Directions for the Performance of the Cathedral Service;" which was reprinted in 1664, under the title of "A Review of some short Directions, formerly printed, for the Performance of Cathedral Service, with many useful Additions according to the Common Prayer Book, as it is now established: published for the information of such as are ignorant in the Performance of that Service, and shall be called to officiate in Cathedral or Collegiate Churches; or any other that religiously desire to beare a Part in that Service. By E. L. Oxon. 1664." At the restoration, he was appointed one of the organists of the chapel royal. He died in 1682, and was succeeded in the king's chapel by Henry Purcell.

LOW (Thomas), a stage-finger, with an exquisite tenor voice. His first profession was that of a gold and silver lace manufacturer; and he began music too late to read it as a language, so that he learned the songs, which he performed in public, by his ear, to the end of his life. He stood, however, very high in the favour of lovers of English ballads, particularly those of Dr. Arne at Drury-lane and Vauxhall, composed expressly for his voice and bounded abilities. He was the rival of Beard, and gained as much applause by the sweetness of his voice, through all his ignorance, as Beard, a regular-bred musician, brought up in the king's chapel, could do by knowledge of music, humour, and good acting. Low, like many other actors and singers, was profligate, extravagant, and unprincipled; which rendered the latter part of his life disgraceful and wretched. From acquiring unbounded applause, and an income of more than 1000*l.* a-year, he was reduced to the lowest state of indigence, and degraded into a chorus-finger at Sadler's Wells, Cuper's Gardens, and some say as a ballad-finger in the streets; but we believe this last particular is not correct. He ended his days as the keeper of an alehouse at Otter's Pool in Hertfordshire, where the remains of his fine voice drew much company from the neighbouring towns and villages; he lived to a great age.

LOW-BELL, *f.* A name given to a bell by means of which, assisted by a flame of light, larks, woodcocks, partridges, &c. may be caught in open champaign countries, and in stubble-fields, especially those of wheat, from the middle of October to the end of March. *Low*, in this case, is derived from *laeye*, Dut. *leg*, Sax. or *log*, Islandic, a flame. *Lowe* denotes a flame in Scotland also; and *to lowe*, to flame.

LOW-BELLERS, *f.* in our statute-books, are persons who go in the night-time with a light and bell, by the sight and noise whereof, birds sitting on the ground become stupified, and so are covered with a net, and taken. They are stigmatized as poachers, or petty thieves, because partridges are caught in this way.

LOW-BELLING, or BIRD-BATTING, *f.* Catching birds with a low-bell. It is performed in the following manner: When the air is mild, about nine o'clock at night, the moon not shining, take the low-bell, which should be of a deep hollow sound, and of such a size as may be conveniently carried in one hand; toll this bell just as a wether-sheep does while he is feeding in pasture-ground. You must also have a box, much like a lantern, about a foot and a half square, big enough to hold two or three great lights, lined with tin, and one side open to send forth the light: fix this box to your breast, and the light will cast at a great distance before you, very broad, by which means you may see any thing on the ground within the compass of the light, and consequently the birds that roost thereon. You are to have two men with you, one on each side, but a little after you, that they may not be within the reflection of the light. Each of them should be provided with a hand-net, about three or four feet square, which must be fixed to a long stick, to carry in their hands; so that, when either of them sees any

birds on his side, he is to cast his net over them, and so take them up with as little noise as may be. When the net is over the birds, the person who laid it is not to be in a hurry to take them, but must stay till he who carries the light is got beyond it, that the motions may not be discovered. The blaze of the light and the noise of the bell terrify and amaze the birds in such a manner, that they remain still to be taken; but the people who are about the work must keep the greatest quiet and stillness that may be.

Some people are fond of going alone in this sport. The person then fixes the light-box to his breast, and carries the bell in one hand and the net in the other; the net in this case may be somewhat smaller, and the handle shorter. But some persons, instead of having the light to their breast, tie the low-bell to their girdle, and their motion causes the bell to strike; and, as for the light, they carry it in their hand, extending the arm before them; but then their lantern or box is not so large as that which is hung at the breast. *Osbaldiston's British Sportsman.*

LOW-BORN, *adj.* Born of mean parents:

This is the prettiest *low-born* lass that ever  
Ran the green-sward; nothing she does or seems,  
But smacks of something greater than herself. *Shakespeare.*

Corruption, like a general flood,  
Shall deluge all; and a'rice, creeping on,  
Shall spread a *low-born* mist, and blot the sun. *Pope.*

LOW-BROWED, *adj.* Having a low forehead, or front:

We wand'ring go through dreary wastes,  
Where round some mould'ring tower pale ivy creeps,  
And *low-brow'd* rocks hang nodding o'er the deeps. *Pope.*

LOW-BUILT, *adj.* Built low; constructed so as to rise but little from the surface.

Vast yellow offsprings are the German's pride;  
But hotter climates narrower frames obtain,  
And *low-built* houses are the growth of Spain. *Creech.*

LOW COUNTRIES. See BRABANT, FLANDERS, and NETHERLANDS.

LOW GREEN POINT, a cape on the east coast of the island of Sumatra. Lat. 3 12. S. lon. 106. E.

LOW-HA-REA'H, a town of Africa, in the country of Tunis, anciently called *Aquilaria*, situated at the point of the peninsula of Dackbul, near Cape Bon: fifteen miles north of Clybea, and forty-five east-north-east of Tunis.

LOW HILL, a township of America, in Northampton county, Pennsylvania, containing 545 inhabitants.

LOW-HUNG, *adj.* Hanging low; situate in the lower region of the air:

My eyes no object met  
But *low-hung* clouds that dipt themselves in rain  
To shake their fleeces on the earth again. *Dryden.*

LOW ISLAND, a small island in the Eastern Indian Sea, near the south coast of Cumbava. Lat. 9. 1. S. lon. 117. 34. E.

LOW LAYTON. See LAYTONSTONE, vol. xii. p. 407.

LOW-MINDED, *adj.* Mean; grovelling.

LOW-RATED, *adj.* At a low price; valued at a low rate:

Proud of their numbers, and secure in soul;  
The confident and over-lusty French  
Do the *low-rated* English play at dice. *Shakespeare.*

LOW-ROOFED, *adj.* Built low; having the roof not far from the ground:

No luxury found room  
In *low-roof'd* houses and in walls of loom. *Dryden.*

LOW-SPIRITED, *adj.* Dejected; depressed; not lively; not vivacious; not sprightly.—Severity carried to the highest pitch breaks the mind; and then, in the place of a disorderly young fellow, you have a *low-spirited* moped creature. *Locke.*



LOW-THOU'GHTED, *adj.* Having the thoughts withheld from sublime or heavenly meditations; mean of sentiment; narrow-minded:

Oh grace serene! Oh virtue heav'nly fair!  
Divine oblation of *low-thoughted* care!

Pope.

LOW WATER, *f.* The lowest ebb of the tide.

LOWANG', one of the Chu-fan islands in China, which was visited by the gentlemen, belonging to lord Macartney's embassy in the year 1793. It was not easy to effect a landing, as the Lowang shore was surrounded by soft deep clay and mud wherever the bank run out, and by steep rocks elsewhere. They found, at last, means to climb up the latter. From one of the neighbouring hills the passage in which the Clarence brig lay had the appearance of a river, while the sea beyond it might be considered as an immense lake studded with innumerable islands. The hill on which they stood was covered with strong grasses, reeds, and shrubbery, together with plants sufficiently denoting a situation remote from Europe. There were so few trees or cattle, that the country had the appearance of nakedness to an European eye. Descending from the hill, they came to a small level plain recovered from the sea, which was kept out by an embankment of earth, at least thirty feet thick. The quantity of ground gained by it seemed scarcely to be worth the labour that it must have cost. The plain was indeed cultivated with the utmost care, and laid out chiefly in rice-plats, supplied with water collected from the adjacent hills into little channels, through which it was conveyed to every part of those plantations. It was manured, instead of the dung of animals, with matters more offensive to the human senses, and which are not very generally applied to the purposes of agriculture in England. Earthen vessels were sunk into the ground for the reception of such manure; and for containing liquids of an analogous nature, in which the grain was steeped previously to its being sown; an operation which is supposed to hasten the growth of the future plant, as well as to prevent any injury from insects in its tender state. The party fell in with a peasant, who, though struck with their appearance, was not so scared by it as to shun them. He was dressed in loose garments of blue cotton, a straw hat upon his head fastened by a string under his chin, and half-boots upon his legs. He seemed to enter into the spirit of curiosity naturally animating travellers, and readily led them towards an adjoining village. Passing by a small farm-house, they were invited into it by the tenant, who, together with his son, observed them with astonished eyes. The house was built of wood, the uprights of the natural form of the timber. No ceiling concealed the inside of the roof, which was put together strongly, and covered with the straw of rice. The floor was of earth beaten hard, and the partitions between the rooms consisted of mats hanging from the beams. Two spinning-wheels for cotton were seen in the outer room; but the seats for the spinners were empty. They had probably been filled by females, who retired on the approach of strangers; while they remained, none of that sex appeared. Round the house were planted clusters of bamboo, and of that species of palm, of which each leaf resembles the form of a fan; and, used as such, becomes an article of merchandize. The return of the tide put an end to this visit to Lowang, of which place one of the natives said that it was so considerable, and so well peopled, as to contain near ten thousand inhabitants. *Staunton*, vol. i.

LOWBY'ER, a village in Cumberland, near Kirkhaugh.

LOWCOO'TY, a town of Hindoostan, in Bahar: eight miles west of Mongir.

LOWDE'HA, a town of Hindoostan, in Allahabad: twenty-four miles south-fourth-west of Allahabad.

LOW'DHAM, a village between Nottingham and Southwell: one mile from Trent.

LO'WE, a termination of local names.—*Lowe, loc.* comes

from the Saxon *hleap*, a hill, heap, or barrow; and so the Gothic *hlaiw* is a monument or barrow. *Gibson*.

LO'WE (Peter), a surgeon of the sixteenth century, was born in Scotland. In a work, entitled "A Discourse on the whole Art of Chirurgery," published at Glasgow in 1612, he acquaints his readers, that he had practised twenty-two years in France and Flanders; that he had been two years surgeon-major to the Spanish regiment at Paris; and had then followed his master, the king of France, (Henry IV.) six years in his wars. It does not appear how long he had resided at Glasgow; but he mentions that, fourteen years before the publication of his book, he had complained of the ignorant persons who intruded into the practice of surgery, and that in consequence the king (of Scotland) granted him a privilege, under his privy-seal, of examining all practitioners in surgery in the western parts of Scotland. He refers to a former work of his own, entitled "The Poor Man's Guide," and speaks of an intended publication concerning the diseases of women. His epitaph in the cathedral church-yard of Glasgow (see Pennant's *Tour to the Hebrides*, p. 134) is, however, dated 1612, in December of which year the work just mentioned was published; so that he was probably prevented by death from fulfilling his intention. The Discourse on Chirurgery appears to have been in esteem; for the fourth edition of it was printed in London in 1654. It is indeed copious, plain, and methodical; full of references to ancient and modern authors; and, in fact, like the majority of books of those times, is more founded on authority than observation. Ames mentions another work of his with the following title: "An easy, certain, and perfect, Method to cure and prevent the Spanish Sickness;" by Peter Lowe, Doctor in the Faculty of Chirurgerie at Paris, Chirurgeon to Henry IV." London 1596, 4to. *Aikin's Biog. Mem. of Med.*

LO'WEN, a town of Silesia, in the county of Glatz, situated in a valley. It is a royal town; the principal employment of the inhabitants is in turning: thirteen miles west of Glatz. Lat. 50. 13. N. lon. 16. 3. E.

LO'WEN, LO'WEN, or LEW'IN, a town of Silesia, in the principality of Brieg, on the Neisse: nine miles south-east of Brieg, and ten east-north-east of Grotkau. Lat. 50. 40. N. lon. 17. 33. E.

LO'WENBERG, or LEMBERG, a town of Silesia, in the principality of Jauer, near the Bober: twenty-five miles west of Jauer, and thirty-four south of Sagan. Lat. 51. 5. N. lon. 15. 42. E.

LO'WENDAHL (Ulric-Frederic, Woldemar, Count of), a celebrated general, born at Hamburg in the year 1700. His father, grand marshal and minister of the king of Poland, elector of Saxony, inured him to arms when he was only thirteen years old. He rose gradually in the army, and served in several campaigns, exposed to the dangers and fatigues of warfare, proving himself, on all occasions, worthy of the rank he held, by his valour and prudence. In 1721, the king of Poland gave him the command of his horse-guards and a regiment of infantry; his leisure time he employed in the profound study of gunnery and fortification; and in 1728 he was made field-marshal and inspector-general of the Saxon infantry. After the death of the king he distinguished himself in the defence of Cracow; in the following campaigns he commanded the Saxon auxiliaries on the Rhine under prince Eugene, and had a chief command at the storming of Otchakof. In 1743 he entered the service of the king of France, and was for some years actively employed in the war in which that monarch was engaged. In 1747 he attained the summit of his glory as a besieging general, by making a sweep of several towns of Flanders, concluding with that of Bergen-op-Zoom, which had been deemed impregnable. Immediately after the capture of this last place, Lowendahl was declared a marshal of France. He now retired from the active scenes of war, and distinguished himself as a worthy estimable character in private life, equally agreeable



able and instructive in conversation, and furnished with a variety of knowledge. He was conversant with many languages, and devoted a large portion of his time to reading. He died at the age of fifty-five. His name had been some time enrolled among the honorary members of the Academy of Sciences. *Moreri*.

LO'WENDOLLAR, or LYONDOLLAR, *f.* A Dutch silver coin, valued at 42 stivers, or a little more. This coin is  $\frac{2}{3}$  of the ducatoon, weighs 17 dwts. 14 grs. and is valued at 43'07d. in Sir I. Newton's Table of Assays, &c.

LO'WENSTEIN, a town and capital of a county, annexed as a fief to Wurtemberg: nine miles east-south-east of Heilbron, and twenty north-east of Stuttgart. Lat. 49. 6. N. lon. 9. 23. E.

LO'WENSTEIN. See LAUENSTEIN, vol. xii. p. 295.

To LO'WER, *v. a.* To bring low; to bring down by way of submission:

As our high vessels pass their wat'ry way,  
Let all the naval world due homage pay;  
With hasty reverence their top-honours lower,  
Confessing the asserted power. *Prior*.

To suffer to sink down.—When water issues out of the apertures with more than ordinary rapidity, it bears along with it such particles of loose matter as it met with in its passage through the stone; and it sustains those particles till its motion begins to remit, when by degrees it lowers them, and lets them fall. *Woodward*.—To lessen; to make less in price or value.—The kingdom will lose by this lowering of interest, if it makes foreigners withdraw any of their money. *Locke*.—Some people know it is for their advantage to lower their interest. *Child on Trade*.

To LO'WER, *v. n.* To grow less; to fall; to sink:

The present pleasure,  
By revolution low'ring, does become  
The opposite of itself. *Shakespeare's Ant. and Cleopatra*.

To LO'WER, *v. n.* [It is doubtful what was the primitive meaning of this word: if it was originally applied to the appearance of the sky, it is no more than to grow low, as the sky seems to do in dark weather: if it was first used of the countenance, it may be derived from the Dut. *laeren*, to look askance: the *ow* sounds as *ou* in *hour*.] To appear dark, stormy, and gloomy; to be clouded.—When the heavens are filled with clouds, and all nature wears a lowering countenance, I withdraw myself from these uncomfortable scenes. *Addison*.

If on St. Swithin's feast the welkin lours,  
And ev'ry penthouse streams with hasty show'rs,  
Twice twenty days shall clouds their fleeces drain. *Gay*.

To frown; to pout; to look sullen.—There was Diana when Actæon saw her, and one of her foolish nymphs, who weeping, and withal lowering, one might see the workman meant to set forth tears of anger. *Sidney*.

He mounts the throne, and Juno took her place,  
But sullen discontent sat low'ring on her face. *Dryden*.

LOW'ER, *f.* Cloudiness; gloominess.—Cloudiness of look.—Philoclea was jealous for Zelmane, not without foighty a lower as that face could yield. *Sidney*.

WER, *adj.* More low.

LOW'ER (Sir William), a noted cavalier in the reign of Charles I. was born at a place called Tremere in Cornwall. During the heat of the civil wars he took refuge in Holland, where, being strongly attached to the males, he had an opportunity of enjoying their society, and pursuing his study in peace and privacy. He died in 1662. He was a very great admirer of the French poets, particularly Corneille and Quinault, on whose works he has built the plans of four out of the eight plays which he wrote. The titles of his dramatic works are—1. Phoenix in her Flames, a tragedy, 1639. 2. Polyuctes, or the Martyr, a tragedy, 1655. 3. Horatius, a tragedy, 1656. 4. The Three Dorotheas, a comedy, 1657. 5. Don Japhet of Armenia, a comedy, 1657. 6. Enchanted Lovers, a

pastoral, 1658. 7. Noble Ingratitude, a pastoral tragedy-comedy, 1659. 8. Amorous Fantafme, a tragedy-comedy, 1660.

LOW'ER (Richard,) an eminent physician and anatomist, descended from a good family in Cornwall, was born at Tremere, near Bodmin, about 1631. He was admitted as king's scholar at Westminster-school, whence he was selected to Christ's-church college, in Oxford, in 1649. He passed through the usual course of the university, and, commencing M.A. in 1655, entered upon the physic-line. By the able assistance which he afforded to Dr. Willis in his dissections, he ingratiated himself with that celebrated physician, so far as to be introduced by him into practice, and employed in visiting his country patients. In one of his professional journeys, he discovered the medicinal spring of East Thorpe, or Altrop, in Northamptonshire, which his recommendations, with those of Dr. Willis, brought into repute. He took the degree of M. D. in 1665, and in that year published a defence of Willis's work on fevers, entitled "Diatribæ Thomæ Willisii, M. D. et Prof. Oxon. de Febribus Vindicatio adversus Edm. de Meara Ormondienfem Hibern. M. D." 8vo. About this time he occupied himself in experiments of the transfusion of blood from one animal to another, which he performed for the first time at Oxford, in February 1665. The Hon. Robert Boyle, hearing of this, requested a particular account of it from Dr. Lower, who conveyed it in a letter to him, printed in the Phil. Transf. 1666. Lower says, that he was led to this experiment from having frequently injected fluids into the veins of living animals; but with whom the thought first originated is a matter of dispute. (See LIBAVIUS, vol. xii.) He removed soon after to London, and was elected a fellow of the Royal Society in 1667, and in the same year became a fellow of the College of Physicians. His celebrated work, entitled "Tractatus de Corde, item de Motu et Colore Sanguinis, et Chyli in eum transitu," was first printed in London in 1669. This is a very valuable performance, and stands conspicuous among those which have contributed to the modern perfection of anatomy. In the chapter concerning the transfusion of the blood, he mentions having practised it upon an insane person before the Royal Society; but it is allowed that the French first tried this experiment upon the human subject. To an edition of this work in 1680, is added a chapter on catarrh, in which the author refutes the notion of a descent of serous matter from the brain in that disease. This had been printed in 1672, as a separate work. Lower's Treatise on the Heart was many times edited abroad, and was translated into French. The reputation acquired by his publications brought him into extensive practice; and after the death of Dr. Willis, he was considered as one of the ablest physicians in London. But his attachment to the whig-party at the time of the popish plot brought him into disfavour at court, so that his business was considerably diminished before his death, which happened in January 1690-91. He had purchased an estate at St. Tudy, near Bodmin, at which he was buried, leaving two unmarried daughters.

LOWER ALLOWAY'S CREEK, a township of America, in Salem county, New Jersey.

LOWER CREEK, a river of America, in the western territory, which runs into the Ohio in lat. 40. 9. N. lon. 80. 43. W.

LOWER DUB'LIN, a township of America, in Philadelphia county, Pennsylvania; containing 1495 inhabitants.

LOWER LAN'DING, or EAST LAN'DING, lies on Niagara-river, Upper Canada, opposite to Queenstown on the Niagara-fort side.

LOWER LA'NE, a village in Staffordshire, near Newcastle-under-line.

LOWER MAR'LBOROUGH, a post-town of America, in Maryland; thirty miles from Annapolis, and twelve from Calvert court-house

LOWER MIL'FORD, a township of America, in Burk's county, Pennsylvania.

LOWER.



**LOWER PENN's NECK**, a township of America, in Salem county, New Jersey.

**LOWER STRATTON**, a village in Somersetshire, one mile from Petherton.

**LOWER WEAU' TOWNS**, lie in the territory north-west of the Ohio, twenty miles below Rippacanoë creek, at its mouth in Wabash river.

**LOWERING**, *f.* The process or method of weakening spirits by mixing them with water. The standard and marketable price of these liquors are fixed, in regard to a certain strength in them called *proof*; this is that strength, which makes them, when shook in a phial, or poured from on high into a glass, retain a froth or crown of bubbles for some time. In this state spirits consist of about half pure or totally-inflammable spirit, and half water; and if any foreign or home spirit is to be exposed to sale, and is found to have that proof wanting, scarce any one will buy it, till it has been distilled again and brought to that strength; and, if it is above that strength, the proprietor usually adds water to it to bring it down to that standard. This addition of water, to debase the strength, is what is called lowering it. People well acquainted with the goods will indeed buy spirits at any strength, only lowering a sample to the proof-strength, and by that judging of the strength of the whole; but the generality of the buyers will not enter into this, but have it all lowered for them.

There is another kind of lowering in practice among the retailers of spirituous liquors to the vulgar; this is the reducing it under the standard of proof. They buy it proof, and afterwards increase their profit upon it, by lowering it with water one-eighth part. The quantity of spirit is what they allow themselves for the addition of water; and whoever has the art of doing this, without destroying the bubble proof, as this is easily done by means of some addition that gives a greater tenacity to the parts of the spirit, will deceive all that judge by this proof alone; that is, very nearly all who are concerned in the spirit-trade. Such an additional quantity of water as one-eighth makes the spirit taste softer and cooler, and will make many prefer it to the stronger spirit, which is hotter and more fiery; but unless the spirit, thus lowered, were tolerably clean, or the proof be some other way preserved, the addition of the water lets loose some of the coarse oil, which makes the liquor milky, and leaves a very nauseous taste in the mouth. *Shaw's Essay on Distillery.*

**LOWERINGLY**, *adv.* With cloudiness; gloomily.

**LOWERMOST**, *adj.* Lowest.—Plants have their seminal parts uppermost, living creatures have them *lowermost*. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—It will also happen, that the same part of the pipe which was now *lowermost*, will presently become higher, so that the water does ascend by descending; ascending in comparison to the whole instrument, and descending in respect of its several parts. *Wilkins.*

**LOWES FOREST**, in the south-west part of the county of Northumberland.

**LOWES WATER**, a lake in the county of Cumberland, about six miles in circumference: ten miles south of Cockermouth.

The chapel of Lowes-water is a picturesque object, on a cultivated slope, surrounded with scattered farms. "Having passed through a gate that leads to the common, the lake spreads out before you, a mile in length, and of an equal breadth of about a quarter of a mile. The extremities are rivals in beauty of hanging woods, little groves, and waving inclosures, with farms seated in the sweetest points of view. The south end is overlooked by lofty Mellbreak, at whose foot a white house, within some grass-inclosures, under a few trees, stands in the point of beauty. The eastern shore is open, and indented with small bays; but the opposite side is more pleasing. Carling-knot presents a broad pyramidal front of swift ascent, covered with soft vegetation, and spotted with many aged solitary thorns. On each side the outlines wave upward in the finest manner, terminating in a cone of grey rock, patched with verdure. This lake, in

opposition to all the other lakes, has its course from north to south; and under Mellbreak falls into Cromack-water. It is of no great depth; but it abounds with pike, and perch, and has some trout. An evening-view of both lakes is from the side of Mellbreak, at the gate, under a coppice of oak, in the road to Ennerdale. Nothing exceeds, in composition, the parts of this landscape. They are all great, and lie in fine order of perspective. If the view be taken from the round knoll at the lower end of the lake, the appearance of the mountains that bound it is astonishing. You have Mellbreak on the right, and Grasmire on the left; and, betwixt them, a stupendous amphitheatre of mountains, whose tops are all broken and dissimilar, and of different hues, and their bases skirted with wood; or clothed with verdure. In the centre point of this amphitheatre, is a huge pyramidal broken rock, that seems with its figure to change place as you move across the fore-ground, and gives much variety to the scene, and alters the picture at every pace. In short, the picturesque views in this district are many, some mixt, others purely sublime, but all surprize and please. The genius of the greatest adepts in landscape might here improve in taste and judgment; and the most enthusiastic ardour for pastoral poetry and painting will here find an inexhaustible source of scenes and images." *Guide to the Lakes.*

**LOWEST**, *adj.* Low in the greatest degree.

**LOWESTOFF**, or **LES'TOFF**, a town on the coast of Sussex, situated on the most eastern point of land in England; and, standing upon a lofty eminence, commands a very extensive prospect of the German Ocean, as all the traders, &c. from the north, pass and repass very near the shore; and it has the noblest and most beautiful appearance from the sea of any town upon the coast. This town was formerly called *Lohnwist*, as some think from *Lothbroch*, a noble Dane, who landed in this neighbourhood about the year 864, and *wista*, a half-hide of land. The town, however, is certainly of much earlier origin. Gillingwater, in his "History of Lowestoft," says it can be traced back to a period anterior to the fourth century. This town has suffered much from the plague at different periods, particularly in the years 1348 and 1547. It has likewise sustained frequent plundering and depredations, on account of the attachment of its inhabitants to the cause of royalty. The town extends about a mile in length, and consists chiefly of one principal street, running in a gradual descent from north to south, which is intersected by several smaller streets or lanes from the west. The whole is in general well paved, and many of the houses, having been lately rebuilt in the modern style, give the town an appearance of great neatness. From its situation and exposure to the northern ocean, over which it commands an extensive prospect, it enjoys a most salubrious air, keen, but bracing. On the declivity of the cliff a number of hanging gardens are formed, which are interspersed with alcoves and summer-houses. At the foot of these gardens is a long arrangement of fishing-houses, extending the whole length of the town. Between these and the beach stand the boats (about 40) employed in the herring-fishery, which is the chief support of the town, 70,000 barrels being exported from hence every season. Here are also two light-houses, conveniences for boat-building, and accommodations for bathing. A considerable number of families resort here for the benefit of the salt-water. Besides these sources of wealth to the inhabitants, there is a tolerable mackerel-fishery, which commences in May and continues till the latter end of June, and supplies the adjacent markets, as well as the metropolis. A small china-manufactory, and a ropery, also belong to the town. The church, situated about half a mile west from the town, is a very fine building, in the pointed style of architecture, and consists of a nave with two side-aisles. The principal entrance is by a stately porch, on the south side of which are three niches, the centre one intended for the reception of a statue of St. Margaret, the saint to whom the church is dedicated. The chancel is particularly neat and elegant.



gant. The font, which is very ancient, is ascended by three stone steps, the upper one bearing an inscription, but so much corroded as to be almost unintelligible. It is surrounded by three rows of saints, each row containing twelve figures; and is otherwise finely adorned with carved work. Mr. Whiston, the friend of sir Isaac Newton, and some time professor of mathematics in the university of Cambridge, from which he was expelled for his Arian principles, was long vicar of this church. This town had likewise formerly three chapels of ease, but only one of them now continues to be used. There are meeting-houses here for methodists and presbyterians. A theatre was erected in 1790.

Lowestoff, from its extensive fishery, is a good nursery for seamen; and has given birth to several eminent naval officers. A great sea-fight took place off this town on the 3d of June, 1665, between the British fleet under the duke of York, and the Dutch fleet commanded by admirals Opdam and Van Tromp; in which the latter were defeated, with the loss of eighteen ships taken and fourteen sunk. In this action, admiral sir Thomas Allen, a native of this town, particularly distinguished himself. An opinion prevails, that the bold and decisive manœuvre of breaking the enemy's line has been lately introduced into our naval tactics; but, in Gillingwater's Account of the above famous engagement, he says, "The fight began at three o'clock in the morning, and for some time victory was doubtful; but, about noon, the earl of Sandwich, with the blue squadron, forced himself into the centre of the Dutch fleet, divided it into two parts, and began that confusion which ended in total defeat."

In the year 1744, a battery of six pieces of cannon, 18-pounders, was erected at the south end of the town, for protecting ships in the south roads, and guarding the passage of the Stanford. In the year 1756, a battery was erected on the beach at the north end of the town, and two pieces of cannon brought thither from the south battery. In the year 1782, a new fort was erected at the fourth end of the town, furnished with thirteen pieces of cannon; and another fort was erected at the north end of the town, besides a battery near the Ness. The market-day is Wednesday; fairs, May 12 and October 10. The inhabitants are exempt from serving on juries either at assises or quarter-sessions, by writ 15 Eliz. 1573.

Near Lowestoff stood formerly the village of Newton; but it has been entirely swallowed up by the sea.

Gunton, to the north of Lowestoff, is a small parish, containing only five houses, one of which is the hall or mansion-house, the seat of Gerard Montague, esq. The church is a small plain building, with a round tower, rebuilt by Charles Boyce in 1700, and dedicated to St. Peter; there is a very old architrave for the north door. The whole parish was purchased by the late sir Charles Saunders in 1762.

Blundeston is three miles north-west from Lowestoff, where is a very pleasant house, the residence of the Rev. Norton Nichols, with a beautiful pleasure-ground and fine piece of water; and likewise a neat modern-built house, the residence of Nathaniel Rix, esq.—Benacre-hall, the seat of sir Thomas Gooch, bart. about seven miles distant, between Southwold and Lowestoff.—Burch Castle, about seven miles from Lowestoff, and near Clopton, is the ancient Garionorum of the Romans, and worthy the attention of the antiquary.

Herringfleet-hall is about six miles from Lowestoff. The site of this house, together with a considerable estate, comprehending almost the whole parish of Herringfleet, about half a century ago passed from the Bacon family to Hill Muffendon, esq. who bequeathed it to his elder brother Carteret, who had taken the name of Leathes; from him it descended to John Leathes, esq. his son. There was a priory of black canons founded here by Roger Fitz-Osbert, of Somerly, (the last of that family,) to the honour of St. Mary and St. Olave the king and martyr, in the beginning of the reign of Henry III. Herein

were, about the time of the dissolution, five or six religious, who were endowed with 49l. 11s. 7d. per annum. The site of this house, with great part of the lands, were granted to Henry Jerningham, esq. patron, 26th Jan. 38 Henry VIII. The remains of the priory were chiefly taken down in 1784, but some parts of it are still left. Somerly-hall was the residence of Roger Fitz-Osbert, who founded the priory at Herringfleet. In the reign of queen Elizabeth, the estate, which consisted of the greatest part of the island of Lothingland, was in the possession of sir Henry Jerningham. From the Jerningham family it went to the Wentworths. Sir Thomas Wentworth held the manor about the year 1627, and afterwards sold it to admiral sir Thomas Allen about 1669. The admiral's son, dying a bachelor, gave the estate, &c. to Mr. Richard Anguist, upon condition of his taking the name of Allen, who then became sir Richard Allen; and from this gentleman it descended to the present sir Thomas Allen. In this parish is an exceeding good parsonage-house, rebuilt, at a considerable expense, by the Rev. Mr. Love, the rector.

Corton is a pleasant village about two miles to the north of Lowestoff: it stands on a high cliff that commands an extensive sea-prospect. The property of the parish belongs chiefly to John Ives, esq. The church has been very large, but it is now delapidated, and the chancel converted into a place of public worship, and some years ago rendered very neat by the exertions of the Rev. Francis Bowness, the vicar.—Six miles to the north of Lowestoff is Hobland-hall, a good modern-built house, late the residence and property of the Rev. D. H. Urquhart, an acting magistrate for the county of Suffolk; but now belonging to the family of the Ives's. *Gillingwater's Historical Account*, 1790. *British Directory*, vol. iii.

LOWICK, a village in Northamptonshire, two miles and a half from Thrapston, has a handsome church, with curious stained glass windows. Here is a charity-school for poor boys and girls.—Lord Sackville has a seat, Drayton, half a mile to the westward of Lowick: the situation of Drayton is low, but the house has a good free-stone front; and some judicious alterations have been made by the present lord.

LOWICK CHAPEL, a village in Lancashire, north of Ulverstone.—A village in Northumberland, between Woller and Berwick.

LOWICZ, a town of the duchy of Warsaw, on the Bfura, in which stands a palace belonging to the archbishop of Gnesna. This town lies in a morass; and, besides a cathedral, has three other churches, and some convents. Among the inhabitants are great numbers of artificers; and the fairs held in this town are famous for the variety of goods which are exposed to sale. It is twenty-eight miles north of Rawa, and fifty south-west of Warsaw. Lat. 51. 50. N. lon. 20. E.

LOWIN. See LOWEN, p. 706.

LOWING, *f.* A bellowing; the noise of black cattle.

LOWITZ (George Moritz), professor at Gottingen, and member of the Imperial Academy of Sciences at Petersburg, was born in 1722, at Fürth, near Nuremberg. He was put apprentice to the trade of a goldsmith; and by his expertness in the business he was enabled afterwards to construct and improve mathematical instruments, with the use of which he was well acquainted. He now turned his attention to science, and made a very uncommon progress in mathematics and natural philosophy. In 1748, he distinguished himself by constructing two charts of the solar eclipse which was to take place in the following July. He afterwards observed the eclipse with great accuracy, by a new method of his own invention. Next year he published a chart representing the solar eclipse announced for the 8th of January, 1750, as it would appear to the inhabitants of Petersburg, Rome, Berlin, Nuremberg, Lisbon, &c. During these years he had been employed in the education of young persons; and in 1751 he was appointed professor of mathematics and natural



philosophy in the Egidian seminary at Nuremberg, and was entrusted with the care of the observatory. On his entrance into this new office, he pronounced an oration on the advantages which might be derived from the study of the higher branches of mathematics, which was printed in 1752. He published in the same year an account of various experiments on the properties of the air, which he employed as a guide in his lectures. About this time he removed to Gottingen, and was made professor of practical mathematics, with a salary of four hundred dollars. Having little to do as professor, he filled up his vacant hours in writing papers on various useful subjects; the greater part of these were read before the Royal Society of Gottingen, and they added, in a considerable degree, to his reputation. He was at the same time employed by the Cosmological Society in constructing globes; but, after a time, conceiving his services had not been sufficiently remunerated, he quitted the society with disgust. After this he was appointed, by the Hanoverian government, director of the observatory, an office which he resigned in 1764, together with the professorship; and he now resided at Gottingen as a private individual. He soon found that his means were insufficient for his support: his affairs became embarrassed, and his situation would probably have been forlorn, had not the Academy of Sciences at Petersburg invited him into Russia for the purpose of observing the transit of Venus, which was to take place in the year 1769. In a short time after this he was appointed a member of the Academy of Sciences in the astronomical department; and he was ordered to repair to Surjev, a small town on the river Ural, a few miles from the Caspian Sea, the place destined for observing this curious phenomenon. This mission he accomplished in the completest manner, and published an account of it in the year 1770. He then proceeded, in the month of September, by the Caspian Sea, to Astracan; and, having determined the geographical position of that city, he repaired to some other places for the like purposes. He was next engaged in surveys for a new canal, which he continued, at different periods, till the month of August, 1774, when the whole undertaking was unfortunately stopped by a sudden and unexpected irruption of some rebel troops. Lowitz, and his friend and assistant, betook themselves to places which they hoped would afford them shelter and security. The latter, after burying his books, instruments, and other property, sought for safety in the fortress of Dmetriefsk, from whence he proceeded to Astracan. Lowitz, with his family, set out for the German colony of Dobrinka; but unfortunately fell into the hands of the rebel chief, who put him to death in the most barbarous manner. His wife and son were suffered to escape after they had been plundered of the best part of their property; but Lowitz's books, papers, and instruments, having been deposited in an unoccupied house, were, by good fortune, preserved. *Gen. Biog.*

LO'WKOW, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Volhynia: ten miles east of Zytomiers.

LO'WLAND, *f.* The country that is low in respect of neighbouring hills; the marsh:

His errand was to draw the *lowland* damps,  
And noisome vapours, from the foggy fens;  
Then breathe the baleful stench with all his force. *Dryd.*

LOWLAND BA'Y, a bay on the north-east coast of New Zealand, west of Highland Point.

LO'WLANDS OF SCOTLAND, a term applied to the southern parts of Scotland, in contradistinction to the Highlands; the country is more level, and the manners of the people more like those of England.

LO'WLILY, *adv.* Humbly; without pride. Meanly; without dignity.

LO'WLINESS, *f.* Humility; freedom from pride.—If with a true Christian *lowliness* of heart, and a devout fervency of soul, we perform them, we shall find, that they

will turn to a greater account to us, than all the warlike preparations in which we trust. *Atterbury.*

*Lowliness* is young ambition's ladder,  
Whereto the climber turns his face. *Shakespeare.*

Meanness; want of dignity; abject depression.—The *lowliness* of my fortune has not brought me to flatter vice; it is my duty to give testimony to virtue. *Dryden.*

LOW'LOWORTH, a village seven miles north-west of Cambridge.

LO'WLY, *adj.* Humble; meek; mild.—Take my yoke upon you, and learn of me; for I am meek and *lowly* in heart. *Matth. xi. 29.*—The heavens are not pure in his sight, and he charges even his angels with folly; with how *lowly* a reverence must we bow down our souls before so excellent a Being, and adore a nature so much superior to our own! *Rogers.*

With cries they fill'd the holy fane;  
Then thus with *lowly* voice Ilioneus began. *Dryden.*

Mean; wanting dignity; not great:  
For from the natal hour distinctive names,  
One common right, the great and *lowly* claims. *Pope.*  
Not lofty; not sublime:

For all who read, and reading not disdain,  
These rural poems, and their *lowly* strain,  
The name of Varus oft inscrib'd shall see. *Dryden.*

LO'WLY, *adv.* Not highly; meanly: without grandeur; without dignity.—I will show myself highly fed, and *lowly* taught; I know my business is but to the court. *Shakespeare.*

'Tis better to be *lowly* born,  
And range with humble livers in content,  
Than to be perk'd up in a glitt'ring grief,  
And wear a golden sorrow. *Shakespeare's Hen. VIII.*

Humbly; meekly; modestly:

Heav'n is for thee too high  
To know what passes there; be *lowly* wise:  
Think only what concerns thee, and thy being. *Milton.*

LO'WLYN, a village in Northumberland, between Lowick and Berwick.

LO'WMAN (Moses), an eminent and learned English dissenting divine, was a native of London, where he was born in the year 1679. Being originally designed for the profession of the law, he received a liberal and learned education; and, in 1697, was entered a student in the Middle Temple. Not long afterwards, however, he gave up all thoughts of following that profession, and determined to qualify himself for the ministerial office among the dissenters. With this view he went to Holland in 1699; and pursued his studies, partly at Utrecht, and partly at Leyden, under the most celebrated professors in philosophy, divinity, oriental learning, and Jewish antiquities; and ably profited by their instructions, as was shown by his future labours. Having commenced the work of the ministry, in the year 1710, he was chosen assistant preacher in a dissenting congregation at Clapham, where he was ordained in 1714; and afterwards he became their pastor. In this connection he continued during the remainder of his life, discharging the duties of his station with constancy and regularity, esteemed and beloved by his flock, and highly respected by all who knew him. Such parts of his time as he was able to devote to study, were most diligently improved by him, till he became furnished with an extraordinary stock of useful knowledge; but he particularly devoted himself to the study of the Scriptures, and of those branches of learning more immediately necessary for their elucidation. In this light he considered Jewish learning and antiquities, of which he became a thorough master. The first evidence which he laid before the public of the success with which he had cultivated this part of knowledge, was in a valuable



valuable treatise published in 1740, entitled, "A Dissertation on the Civil Government of the Hebrews: in which the true Design and Nature of their Government are explained; and the Justice, Wisdom, and Goodness, of the Mosaic Constitutions, are vindicated, in particular, from some late unfair and false Representations of them in the Moral Philosopher," 8vo. In the year 1743, Mr. Lowman published "A Paraphrase and Notes upon the Revelation of St. John," in 4to. which is deservedly held in the highest esteem by the most judicious critics, and considered to exhibit the most unexceptionable scheme for interpreting this dark and enigmatical book. In 1748, our author gave to the world another work on Jewish antiquities, entitled, "A Rational of the Ritual of Hebrew Worship; in which the wise Designs and Usefulness of that Ritual are explained, and vindicated from Objections," 8vo. This piece, as well as the former, reflects great credit on Mr. Lowman's judgment and penetration; and in both, many things will be found, not only curious, but entirely new. The author also acquired much applause by a little tract concerning "The Demonstration of a God, from the Argument *à priori*." We have no recollection of any other of his productions, published during his life, excepting a sermon, entitled, "The Principles of Popery schismatical;" which forms one of a collection of "Sermons against Popery, preached at Salters' Hall, in 1735, by several Ministers," in 2 vols. 8vo.

Some time before his death Mr. Lowman was seized with a painful disorder, under which his sufferings were very great; but he endured them with a fortitude and patience becoming one who had the principles of religion and the prospects of Christianity to support him. He died in 1752, in the seventy-third year of his age. A few years after his death, Dr. Chandler, Dr. Lardner, and another of his friends, revised and published a work intended by himself for the press; in which the same learning, ingenuity, and candour, are observable, as distinguish his other writings. It is entitled, "Three Tracts. I. Remarks upon this Question; Whether the Appearances under the Old Testament were Appearances of the true God himself, or only of some other spiritual Being, representing the true God, and acting in his name? II. An Essay on the *Schechinah*; or, Considerations on the divine Appearances mentioned in the Scriptures. III. Texts of Scripture relating to the *Logos* considered." 1756, 8vo.

LOW'N, *f.* [*liun*, Irish; *loen*, Dut. a stupid drone.] A scoundrel; a rascal. *Not in use.*

King Stephen was a worthy peer,  
His breeches cost him but a crown;  
He thought them sixpence all too dear,  
And therefore call'd the taylor *low'n*.

*Shakespeare.*

LOW'ND, a village in Lincolnshire, north of Stamford.—A village in Suffolk, near the coast, between Lowestoff and Yarmouth.

LOW'NESS, *f.* Contrariety to height; small distance from the ground.—The *lowness* of the bough where the fruit cometh, maketh the fruit greater, and to ripen better; for you shall even see, in apricots upon a wall, the greatest fruits towards the bottom. *Bacon*.—In Gothic cathedrals, the narrowness of the arch makes it rise in height, the *lowness* opens it in breadth. *Addison*.

They know

By th' height, the *lowness*, or the mean, if dearth  
Or foizon follow. *Shakefp. Ant. and Cleopatra.*

Meanness of character or condition, whether mental or external:

Nothing could have subdu'd nature  
To such a *lowness* but his unkind daughter. *Shakefp.*

Now I must

To the young man send humble treaties,  
And palter in the shift of *lowness*, *Shakespeare.*

Want of rank; want of dignity.—The name of servants has of old been reckoned to imply a certain meanness of mind, as well as *lowness* of condition. *South*.—Want of sublimity; contrary to loftiness of stile or sentiment.—His stile is accommodated to his subject, either high or low; if his fault be too much *lowness*, that of Perflus is the hardness of his metaphors. *Dryden*.—Submissiveness.—The people were in such *lowness* of obedience as subjects were like to yield, who had lived almost four-and-twenty years under so politic a king as his father. *Bacon*.—Depression; dejection.—Hence that poverty and *lowness* of spirit to which a kingdom may be subject, as well as a particular person. *Swift*.

LOW'NSBOROUGH, a village in the east riding of Yorkshire; north of Wigton.

LO'WOSITZ, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Leitmeritz. On the 1st of October, 1756, a battle was fought near this place, between the Prussians and the Saxons under the king of Poland, in which the latter were defeated, with the loss of upwards of 6000 men killed and wounded, and 500 prisoners. The Prussians lost about 2000; this was soon after followed by the surrender of the whole of the Saxon army. It is four miles west-south-west of Leitmeritz. Lat. 50. 30. N. lon. 14. 9. E.

LOWOWECH', or NEU'STAT, a town of the duchy of Warlaw: thirty two miles west of Posen.

LOWREY, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Gohud: thirty-six miles east-south-east of Raat.

LOWTA'IAH, a town of Algiers: twenty-seven miles south of Tubnah.

LOW'TH (William), a very learned and eminent English divine and commentator on the Scriptures, was the son of an apothecary, and born in the parish of St. Martin's, Ludgate, in the city of London, in the year 1661. The care of his early education was undertaken by his grandfather, the Rev. Simon Lowth, rector of Tylehurst in Berkshire. Afterwards he was sent to Merchant-Taylor's school in London; where he made such a rapid proficiency, that he was judged to be qualified for the university before he was quite fourteen years of age; and was elected thence into St. John's college, Oxford, in 1675. Here he pursued his studies with the greatest diligence; and acquired the esteem of his superiors and fellow collegians, both by his literary improvement and excellent character. In 1683 he was admitted to the degree of M.A. and proceeded bachelor of divinity in 1688. Four years afterwards he published, "A Vindication of the divine Authority and Inspiration of the Old and New Testament, in answer to a Treatise lately translated out of French, entitled, Five Letters concerning the Inspiration of the Holy Scriptures;" 12mo. These letters were written by the celebrated M. Le Clerc, though published without his name. A second edition of Mr. Lowth's treatise appeared in 1699, "With Amendments, and a new Preface, wherein the Antiquity of the Pentateuch is asserted and vindicated from some late Objections." In the mean time, our author's eminent worth, and his reputation as a scholar, had recommended him to Dr. Mew, bishop of Winchester, and formerly president of St. John's college, who made him his chaplain. By this patron he was promoted to a prebend in the cathedral church of Winchester, in the year 1696; and presented to the rectory of Buriton, with the chapel of Petersfield, in Hampshire, in 1699. The next piece which Mr. Lowth published was an useful little tract, which was very favourably received, and has since gone through several editions: it is entitled, "Directions for the profitable Reading of the Holy Scriptures; together with some Observations for the confirming their divine Authority, and illustrating the Difficulties thereof;" 1708. 12mo. In 1714, he published "Two Sermons preached in the Cathedral Church of Winchester, at the Assizes;" and in the same year, "A Commentary on the Prophet Isaiah," in 4to. This was followed by a Commentary on the Prophet Jeremiah, in 1718,



4to. In the year 1722, some protestant dissenters having built a new meeting-house in the town of Petersfield, Mr. Lowth thought it incumbent upon him to preach a sermon, intended to confirm his parishioners in their communion with the church of England; and, at the request of several of his friends, he was induced to publish it. This discourse was entitled, "The Characters of an Apostolical Church fulfilled in the Church of England; and our Obligations to continue in the Communion of it." The publication of this sermon soon produced "Remarks" on it, in a letter to the author, "in which his Characters of an Apostolical Church are considered; the Dissenters' Right to them is asserted and maintained; their Ministers' Call and Ordination defended; their public Worship vindicated; and Mr. Lowth's Reflections on them and their Assemblies proved to be unjust and groundless." These Remarks were written by Mr. John Norman, a dissenting minister at Portsmouth. Mr. Lowth soon published An Answer to Mr. Norman's Remarks; which that gentleman defended in another pamphlet. To this defence Mr. Lowth made no other reply, than in a private letter to his antagonist; being determined to quit the field of controversy, that he might have leisure for prosecuting his exegetical labours. In 1723, he published his "Commentary on the Prophet Ezekiel;" and in 1726, that on Daniel, and the minor prophets. These truly learned and valuable illustrations of the prophetic writings were afterwards republished together, with additions, in one volume folio, as a continuation of Bishop Patrick's Commentary on the other parts of the Old Testament, in which form they have undergone repeated impressions.

Mr. Lowth's labours appear to have been chiefly confined within his province as a divine. Yet, to acquit himself the better in that character, he had taken an extensive range in his studies. There is scarcely any ancient author, whether Latin or Greek, profane or ecclesiastical, especially the latter, but what he had read with critical accuracy. While reading, it was his custom to make marginal remarks relating to criticism and philology, or to enter his observations in his adversaria; and of his collections in this way, he was upon all occasions extremely communicative. He furnished Dr. Potter, afterwards archbishop of Canterbury, with notes on Clemens Alexandrinus, which were published, with the author's name to each, in the doctor's edition of that father. He communicated to Dr. Hudson remarks on Josephus, of which that editor availed himself, and acknowledged his obligations in the preface to his edition of the Jewish historian. To him Mr. Reading was indebted for numerous annotations, with which he enriched his edition of the Ecclesiastical Historians, published at Cambridge in 1720; and the author of the Bibliotheca Biblica received from him the same kind of assistance, as we are informed in the preface to the last posthumous volume. The learned Dr. Chandler, bishop of Durham, while he was engaged in writing his Defence of Christianity, and his Vindication of the same, maintained a constant correspondence with Mr. Lowth, and consulted him upon many difficulties which occurred in the course of that undertaking. But we should not do justice to Mr. Lowth's character, if we did not add, that the most valuable part of it was what was least apparent to the eyes of the world; the private and retired part, that of the good Christian, and the useful parish-priest. His unaffected piety, his most exemplary life, his zeal and diligence in the discharge of the pastoral functions, his hospitality, and the readiness with which he embraced every opportunity of being serviceable to his parishioners; these were features by which he was eminently distinguished. Mr. Lowth died in 1732, in the seventy-first year of his age.

LOWTH (Robert), son of the preceding, and an ornament to the church of England, of which he was an eminent prelate, was born at Winchester, in the year 1710. He was educated in grammar-learning at the celebrated seminary in that place, founded by William of Wykeham,

in which he acquired an accurate knowledge of the Greek and Roman classics, and made no little progress in oriental literature. While here, his poetical genius discovered itself in the compositions on which he employed himself during his hours of relaxation from his classical pursuits; one of which was a beautiful poem on the Genealogy of Christ, as it is represented on the east window of Winchester-college chapel; and is inserted in Pearch's collection; and another, which appeared in the twenty-third volume of the Gentleman's Magazine, celebrated Catharine Hill, the place where the Winchester scholars are allowed to play on holidays. In his eighteenth year, Mr. Lowth was sent to New College, where he distinguished himself by the assiduity with which he applied to his studies, his uncommon acquisitions in learning, his regular and virtuous conduct, and his amiable manners. Of this institution he was elected a fellow in 1734. In 1737 he proceeded M. A. and in 1741 was elected professor of poetry in the university of Oxford. While discharging the duties of this office, he delivered his excellent selections on Hebrew poetry, which, as we shall see, he afterwards sent to the press. The first preferment which he obtained in the church, was the rectory of Ovington in Hampshire, to which he was presented by bishop Hoadly in the year 1744. In 1748, Mr. Lowth accompanied to Berlin Mr. Legge, afterwards chancellor of the exchequer, who went to that court in a public character; and with whom, from his earliest years, he lived on terms of the most intimate and uninterrupted friendship. In the following year the duke of Devonshire engaged him to attend his sons, lord George and lord Frederic Cavendish in the capacity of tutor, during their travels on the continent; and was so well satisfied with the manner in which he conducted himself in this employment, that he ever afterwards proved the steady friend and patron of our divine. Bishop Hoadly, too, gave fresh proofs of his regard for Mr. Lowth's character and merits, in the year 1750, by appointing him archdeacon of Winchester; and, three years afterwards, by presenting him to the rectory of East Woodhay, in the county of Southampton. In 1752, he married Mary, daughter of Lawrence Jackson, esq. of Christ Church, in that county; with whom he lived in much conjugal felicity, and who proved the mother of seven children, two of whom only survived their father. In 1753, he gave to the public his *De sacra Poesi Hebraeorum Praelectiones Academicæ*, in 4to. of which a new edition, corrected and enlarged, appeared in 1763, in 2 vols. 8vo. The second volume consists of the preface, notes, and additions, to this work, in the Gottingen edition, published under the inspection of the learned and ingenious Michaelis, professor of philosophy in that university, and greatly improved and illustrated by him. Of this work, to which the duties of the author's professorship gave occasion, it would not be easy to speak in too high terms of praise. For, though it is entitled only Lectures on the Hebrew Poetry, it will be found an excellent compendium of all the best rules of taste, and of all the principles of composition, illustrated by the boldest and most exalted specimens of genius (if no higher title be allowed them) which antiquity has transmitted to us; and which have hitherto seldom fallen under the inspection of rational criticism. But these lectures teach us not only taste, but virtue; not only to admire and revere the Scriptures, but to profit by their precepts. The author has penetrated into the very sanctuaries of Hebrew literature; he has investigated, with a degree of precision which few critics have attained, the very nature and character of their composition; by accurately examining, and cautiously comparing, every part of the sacred writings; by a force of genius, which could enter into the very design of the authors; and by a comprehensiveness of mind, which could embrace at a single view a vast series of corresponding passages; he has discovered the manner, the spirit, the idiom, of the original; and has laid down such axioms as cannot fail to facilitate our knowledge and understanding of the scriptures.



scriptures. This character of our author's *Prelections*, against which few competent judges will except, is given by Dr. G. Gregory, to whom the English reader is greatly indebted for a well-executed translation of them, in two volumes 8vo. first published in 1787, with notes selected from Michaelis, or added by himself. Subjoined to the *Prelections* is a *Short Confutation of Bishop Hare's System of Hebrew Metre*; which occasioned a Latin letter to be addressed to Dr. Lowth, by Dr. Thomas Edwards of Cambridge, in defence of that system. Dr. Lowth satisfactorily replied in *A larger Confutation of the bishop's system*, which was published in 1766.

In the year 1754, the university of Oxford honoured our author with the degree of doctor of divinity, conferred by diploma. During the following year, he received from the Cavendish family a distinguished proof of their regard for him, by being nominated first chaplain to the marquis of Hartington, who was appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland. Thither he accompanied that nobleman, who was soon furnished with an opportunity of bestowing high preferment upon him, by a vacancy taking in the see of Limerick. This bishopric was immediately promised to Dr. Lowth; but, as his native country was peculiarly endeared to him by family connections, and the superior advantages which it afforded him for prosecuting his literary pursuits, he endeavoured to negotiate an exchange of that dignity for some English preferment. Very fortunately, Dr. Leslie, a prebendary of Durham, and rector of Sedgfield in that diocese, was at the same time desirous of being transplanted into Ireland. No great difficulty, therefore, occurred, in settling matters between these gentlemen, in a manner that was perfectly conformable to both their wishes; and Dr. Butler, who was then bishop of Durham, collated Dr. Lowth to those preferments in his diocese, with expressions of no little satisfaction at receiving a man of such superior talents into the number of his clergy. In the year 1758, at the visitation of the bishop, Dr. Lowth preached a sermon at Durham, in which, with generous ardour and irresistible force, he pleaded the cause of free enquiry in matters of religion; and cautioned against entertaining suspicions of any proposal for the advancement of religious knowledge, or for the farther illustration of the great scheme of the gospel in general, or the removal of error in any part, in faith, in doctrine, in practice, or in worship. "An opinion," he well observed, "is not therefore, false, because it contradicts received notions; but, whether true or false, let it be submitted to a fair examination; truth must in the end be a gainer by it, and appear with the greater evidence." This sermon has been frequently printed, and merits a place in the collections of all consistent friends of liberty and Christianity. In the same year, Dr. Lowth published in 8vo. his *Life of Wykeham*, bishop of Winchester, and founder of the colleges in which he had received his education. This work is collected from authentic documents; and, besides matters of a more private and local kind, chiefly respecting the two societies above alluded to, will furnish the reader with valuable information concerning the manners, and some of the public transactions, of the period in which Wykeham lived. Our author's "*Short Introduction to English Grammar*," in 8vo. made its first appearance in 1762, and has gone through numerous editions. This valuable piece was originally designed only for domestic use; but its utility in recommending a greater attention to grammatical form and accuracy in our language than had hitherto been observed in it, and the many judicious remarks which occur therein, together with the very favourable reception which it has met with, fully justified its being given to the public, and indeed, have conferred on the author a high degree of reputation as a grammarian.

In the year 1756, a misunderstanding had taken place between Dr. Lowth and Dr. Warburton, the latter of whom took offence at some things advanced in the *Prelections* on the subject of the Book of Job, which he con-

sidered to be aimed at his own peculiar opinions. In consequence of this, a private correspondence took place between them; and, after some explanations, their difference seemed to be amicably composed. But it revived again in 1765, owing to the appearance of "An Appendix concerning the Book of Job," printed at the end of the last volume of a new edition of the second part of "*The Divine Legation*," in which the author employed himself in repelling the supposed attack upon him already mentioned. This challenge brought Dr. Lowth into the field, who published "*A Letter to the Bishop of Gloucester*," on that Appendix; which was followed by "*Remarks upon Dr. Lowth's Letter to the Bishop of Gloucester*;" "*A Letter to Dr. Lowth on his Letter*," &c. by Dr. Brown; "*A Letter to Dr. Brown*," from Dr. Lowth; "*The Epistolary Correspondence between the Bishop of Gloucester and Dr. Lowth*;" and other pieces. This dispute was managed on both sides with a degree of heat and acrimony which reflected disgrace on the parties concerned, in their character as gentlemen and scholars, and was still more dishonourable to them as Christians and Christian ministers.

In the year 1765, Dr. Lowth was admitted a fellow of the Royal Society; and not long afterwards we find that he was chosen a member of the Royal Society at Göttingen. Upon the formation of the new ministry under the auspices of the duke of Cumberland, Dr. Lowth's particular friends had such influence with the men in power, that it was resolved to elevate him to the episcopal bench upon the first vacancy. Accordingly, on the death of bishop Squire, he was promoted to the see of St. David's, in May 1766; and in the month of September, or October, of the same year, he was translated to the bishopric of Oxford. In this situation he continued, diligently and honourably discharging the duties of the episcopal office, till the year 1777: when, upon the death of bishop Terrick, he was translated to the see of London. In the following year, he presented to the public the last of his literary labours, entitled, "*Isaiah; a new Translation; with a preliminary Dissertation, and Notes, critical, philological, and explanatory*;" 4to. For such an undertaking he was eminently qualified, by his critical knowledge of the original language, his peculiar acquaintance with the character and spirit of its poetry, which perpetually occurs in the effusions of this sublime prophet, and by his general erudition, both literary and theological. His design in it, was "not only to give an exact and faithful representation of the words and of the sense of the prophet, by adhering closely to the letter of the text, and treading as nearly as may be in his footsteps; but, moreover, to imitate the air and manner of the author, to express the form and fashion of the composition, and to give the English reader some notion of the peculiar turn and cast of the original." How well he has succeeded, upon the whole, in the elegant and beautiful version which he has given the world, is too well known, and has been too generally acknowledged by the learned in every part of Europe, to require any encomium in our pages. In his translation he has adopted the metrical form; for the choice of which he has assigned very powerful reasons, in his preliminary dissertation. It was not to be expected, however, that his version should be faultless. Among other learned men who undertook to point out some mistakes in it, was the late Michael Dodson, esq. who, among the papers of a small society, instituted for the purpose of promoting the knowledge of the scriptures, and entitled, "*Commentaries and Essays*," &c. furnished new translations of Isaiah li. 13.—lii. 12; and of Isaiah i. —xii. both pieces with notes, containing criticisms on the bishop's version. These pieces he transmitted, as soon as they were printed, to our prelate; who, on the reception of each, expressed himself in very handsome terms, in notes written to Mr. Dodson, of the manner in which he had conducted his strictures; but pleaded his declining health, as the only reason for his not giving these papers the attention which they were otherwise entitled to receive.



ceive from him. The bishop's vindication, however, was afterwards undertaken by his nephew, Dr. Sturges.

In the year 1779, bishop Lowth preached before the king at the chapel-royal, on Ath-Wednesday; and in a note to this sermon, which was afterwards published, he threw out invidious reflections against the opponents to the ministerial system of government, evidently aimed at the celebrated Dr. Price. The courtly adulation, to which these reflections were by many ascribed, gave much pain to several of the bishop's friends, who, from his former writings, had been accustomed to venerate him not only as a most excellent prelate, but as a sound constitutional whig. Dr. Price, however, in a postscript to one of his own sermons, defended himself against this attack with great spirit, and pointedly contrasted the language of the bishop at St. James's with extracts from his visitation-sermon preached at Durham in 1758. (See the preceding page.) On this occasion, likewise, the bishop provoked the remonstrances of Mr. Hayley, in an Elegy on the ancient Greek Model, addressed to the Right Rev. Robert Lowth, Lord Bishop of London. In the year 1781, bishop Lowth was engaged in a law-suit with Louis Disney Ffytche, esq. concerning the legality of general bonds of resignation; which he considered, and not without reason, to be unfavourable to the independence and integrity of the clergy. Mr. Ffytche had presented a clergyman to a living; but the bishop refused to grant him institution, because he had given to his patron a bond of resignation. The cause was fully argued in the court of Common Pleas, the judges of which delivered their unanimous opinion in favour of Mr. Ffytche. In the court of King's Bench, to which the cause was removed by a writ of error, this judgment was unanimously affirmed. The bishop then brought a writ of error into the House of Peers; and, after the cause had been argued, and the opinion of all the judges taken, who, with only one exception, were all clearly and decidedly in favour of Mr. Ffytche, the decisions of the courts of law were unexpectedly reversed by the lords, though by a majority of one only. Fourteen, out of the nineteen who formed this majority, were bishops. Bonds of resignation were certainly liable to very just objections; but, if the law respecting them was wrong, it should have been altered by an act of parliament. For, whether it was quite decent, in a cause between a bishop and a private gentleman, for fourteen bishops and five lay-lords to determine that not to be law which the judges had declared to be law, and which had been universally understood to be law for at least two centuries, may possibly be questioned.

In the direction, however, of his own patronage, the bishop's conduct was highly praiseworthy; for desert was with him the most powerful recommendation to favour; and, whenever it was eminently conspicuous in any individual, no person could be more ready spontaneously to reward it than bishop Lowth. With respect to every other point of episcopal duty, likewise, he conducted himself in a manner which reflected honour on himself and on his station. No prelate, therefore, could have been fixed upon, as more deserving of the highest rank in the English church. Accordingly, on the death of Abp. Cornwallis in 1783, the king made an offer of the see of Canterbury to Dr. Lowth; but he declined it, on account of his advanced age and growing infirmities, which would have rendered the cares and grandeur connected with that high station an oppressive burden. In the latter years of his life he had a very ill state of health, and endured most severe sufferings from that dreadful disorder the stone; which, however, he bore with exemplary fortitude and resignation. He had also experienced some painful strokes of domestic calamity. In the year 1768, he lost his eldest daughter at the age of thirteen, of whom he was passionately fond, and whom he lamented in an exquisitely beautiful and pathetic epitaph, which is inscribed on her tomb. In 1783, his second daughter, as she was presiding

at the tea-table, suddenly expired; and his eldest son, whose proficiency as a scholar had answered his most sanguine hopes, and whose prospect of an honourable establishment in life was most flattering, he had the affliction of seeing prematurely hurried to the grave. To these trials also he submitted without repining, supported by the principles and hopes of a Christian philosopher: but they must have inflicted those wounds on his feelings, which could not but contribute to aid his disorder in undermining his constitution. He died at Fulham in 1787, when he had nearly completed the seventy-seventh year of his age.

Of bishop Lowth's extensive learning, fine taste, firm manly mind, and peculiar qualifications for the station which he filled, we have already taken notice. With these he possessed a temper, which in private and domestic life endeared him in the highest degree to those who were most nearly connected with him, and towards all others produced an habitual complacency, and agreeableness of manners. To these abilities and dispositions were added qualities still more estimable, the virtues of a good man, and of a sincere Christian. Besides the articles mentioned in the preceding narrative, he published several single sermons, preached on particular occasions, and the following poems: 1. *Ad ornatissimam Puellam*, addressed to a lady of the name of Molyneux, and first printed in the Poetical Calendar, vol. xii. and afterwards in Nichols's Select Collection of Miscellany Poems, from a copy corrected by the author. 2. On the Marriage of the Princess Royal with the Prince of Orange, 1734. 3. An Ode to the People of Great Britain, in Imitation of the sixth Ode of the third Book of Horace, 1744. 4. A translation of Prodicus's Choice of Hercules, 1747, which appeared first in Spence's Polymetis, afterwards in Doddsley's Collection of Poems. 5. The Link, a Ballad, to be found in the same collection. 6. On the Death of the Prince of Wales, 1751. 7. On the Death of King George II. and the Inauguration of George III. 1761. 8. On the Marriage of their present Majesties. 9. On the Birth of the Prince of Wales. *Ann. Reg.* 1787 and 1788. *Genl. Mag.* 1787 and 1790.

LOW'THER, a village in Westmoreland, on the river Loder, from whence it is supposed to take its name, is two miles from Penrith. Not far from the river there is a row of pyramidal stones, eight or nine feet high, extending a mile.

Lowther Castle, in this village, the seat of the earl of Lonsdale, we believe is not yet completed. The first stone of this noble edifice was laid on the 29th of December, 1806. The fronts (for there are two) are each of them 340 feet in length, and the breadth of the building 140 feet. Within this area are a number of spacious and magnificent apartments, such as can hardly be paralleled in the kingdom. The grand staircase will exceed any thing of the kind that is to be met with any-where. The expense (including the furniture) was estimated at 300,000*l.* The former house, called Lowther Hall, was burnt down anno 1770. It was in height three stories, and extended 337 feet. It contained a number of stately apartments, corridors, large galleries, a noble library, and a chapel. The windows of the middle story were dressed with pediments, in a handsome manner. The fabric was finished with a balustrade, figures, and vases, and a large pediment at each end, which had a good effect. *Monthly Mag.* Nov. 1811.

LOW'THORP, a village in the east riding of Yorkshire, near Kilham.

LOW'VILLE, a post-town of America, in Oneida county, New York: 550 miles from Washington.

LO'WTON, a township of England, in Lancashire, with 1400 inhabitants: seven miles north of Warrington.

LOWY'A, a town of Hindoostan, in Bahar: fifteen miles south-south-east of Bettiah. Lat. 26. 35. N. lon. 84. 43. E.

LOX'A, or LO'JA, a town of Spain, in the province of Grenada, on the Xenil, containing three parishes, and



four convents, a royal salt-work, and a copper-forge; the environs produce abundance of fruit, legumes, saffron, and olives. In 1486, it was taken from the Moors. It is twenty-seven miles west of Grenada, and sixteen south-south-east of Cordova. Lat. 37. 18. N. lon. 4. 18. W.

LOX'A, or LO'JA, a town of South America, the capital of a jurisdiction of the same name, in the province of Quito, founded, in the year 1546, by Alonso de Mercadillo. Besides two churches, Loja has several convents, a nunnery, a college of Jesuits, and an hospital. In its district are fourteen villages; and within the territory of its jurisdiction is produced the famous specific for intermitting fevers, well known by the name of Cascarella de Loja, or Quinquina. See CINCHONA. The jurisdiction of Loja derives also great advantage from breeding the COCHINEAL; which see. The inhabitants of Loja, known over the whole province by the name of Lojanos, do not exceed 10,000 souls; though formerly, when the city was in its greatest prosperity, they were much more numerous. In this jurisdiction such vast droves of horned cattle and mules are bred, that it supplies the others of this province, and that of Piura in Valles. The carpets also manufactured here are of such remarkable fineness, that they find a ready sale wherever they are sent. The corregidor of Loja is governor of Yaguarfongo, and principal alcalde of the mines of Zaruma; but the post of governor of Yaguarfongo is at present a mere title without any jurisdiction; part of the villages which formed it being lost by the revolt of the Indians, and the others added to the government of Jaen; so that the corregidor of Loja enjoys only those honours intended to preserve the remembrance of that government. The town of Zaruma, in the jurisdiction of which are mines of gold, has presented the corregidor of Loja with the title of its alcalde mayor. It was one of the first towns founded in this province, and at the same time one of the most opulent; but it is at present in a mean condition, owing chiefly to the decay of its mines, on which account most of the Spanish families have retired, some to Cuenca, and others to Loja; so that at present its inhabitants are said not to exceed 6000. The declension of these mines, which is owing to the negligence of those that are concerned in working them, more than to a scarcity of the metal, has been disadvantageous to the whole department of Loja; and consequently diminished the number of its inhabitants. Lat. 4. S. lon. 79. 14. W.

LOX'A, a town of Sweden, in the province of Savolax: 108 miles north of Nyfot.

LOX'A, a rock near the north coast of the island of Cuba. Lat. 23. 13. N. lon. 83. 57. W.

LOXAN', a town of China, of the third rank, in the province of Ho-nan: thirty miles west-north-west of Kou-ang.

LOX'BEER, a parish in the hundred of Tiverton, Devon; four miles north-west of Tiverton.

LOX'FORD, a village in Essex, near Barking.

LOX'HORN, a village near Barnitaple, Devon.

LOX'IA, *f.* [from *λοξος*, Gr. oblique, on account of the crossing of the bill.] The CROSSBILL, GROSBEAK, BULL-FINCH, &c. a genus of birds of the order passeres. Generic characters—Bill strong, thick, convex, rounded at the base; the lower mandible bent in at the edge; nostrils small, and round at the base of the bill; tongue truncate. In the *Loxia*, *Emberiza*, and *Fringilla*, genera, both mandibles are moveable, by which means they are able to snell and break in pieces the seeds they feed upon.

1. *Loxia curvirostra*, the common crossbill. Specific character, mandibles crossing each other; body varying in colour; wings and forked tail brown. This is the most remarkable bird of the whole genus. Both mandibles are hooked, and turned different ways, so that they do not meet in a point. The bill, however, is not uniformly in the same direction; in some individuals the under mandible is twisted to the right, in others to the left, side; a circumstance that has been noticed, to prove that

the variation in the bill is rather owing to certain uses to which it is applied by the bird than to any fixed appointment in nature. This species is found sometimes in Britain, though it is not by any means a constant visitor in these islands. In 1756 and 1757, great numbers were seen in the neighbourhood of London. It inhabits more generally the northern countries of Europe, especially some parts of Germany, Switzerland, Russia, Sweden, &c. where it is permanent the whole year. Birds of this species migrate, from unknown causes, into other countries; not regularly, but in the course of several years. They inhabit the pine-forests, and feed upon the cones; for the scaling of which their bills are admirably formed. This bird is observed to hold the cone in one claw, like the parrot; and to have all the actions of that bird, when kept in a cage. It is said to make its nest in the very highest parts of the fir-trees, fastening it to the branch with the resinous matter which exudes from the trees. Mr. Latham says, "I have never heard of its breeding in England, but know one instance of its being shot at large in the middle of summer." I have been told that they have done great damage in orchards, by tearing the apples to pieces for the sake of the seeds, the only part they delight in. Many are taken with a bird-call and bird-lime, and others by a horse-hair noose fixed to a long fishing-rod; for so intent are they on picking out the seeds of the cone, that they will suffer themselves to be taken by the noose being put over the head." This species is represented on the annexed Plate, at fig. 1.

There are two varieties: the one reddish, head scarlet; the other larger, bill thicker and shorter. The male is red, varied with brown and green, and is said to change its colours thrice a-year; the female is olive-green, mixed with brown. But the crossbill is one of those birds whose colours are the most subject to vary; among a great number we can scarcely find two individuals that are exactly similar; not only are the shades of the plumage different, but the position of the colours change with the season and the age. Edwards, who examined many of them, and sought to mark the limits of variation, paints the male with a rose-colour, and the female with a yellowish green; but in both, the bill, the eyes, the thighs, and the legs, are nearly the same in regard to shape and colours. Gerner tells us that he kept one of these birds, which was blackish in September, and assumed a red colour in October. He adds, that the parts where the red began to appear, were the under-side of the neck, the breast, and the belly; that this red afterwards became yellow, and that winter especially is the season when these changes take place; and that, at different times, it is said they receive a red, yellow, green, and cinereous, cast. The crossbill is quite placid in captivity, and lives long in a cage. In summer, its flesh is said to be good eating. These birds delight only in the dark forests of pines and firs, and seem to dread the effulgence of day. Nor do they yield to the genial influence of the seasons; it is not in spring, but in the depth of winter, that their loves commence. They build as early as January, and their young are grown before the other birds begin to lay. They lay four or five eggs, and hatch only once a-year.

2. *Loxia leucoptera*, the white-winged crossbill. This is a small species, about the size of a goldfinch, and measures only five inches and three quarters in length. The bill is crossed like the preceding, and of a dusky horn-colour; nostrils covered with reflected bristles, of a pale buff-colour; at the base of the bill, from eye to eye, goes a streak of brown; the feathers on the head, neck, back, and under parts, are whitish, deeply margined with crimson; and, as some part of the white appears not fully covered with the crimson, it gives the bird a mottled appearance; the rump is pale crimson; the vent dirty white; the wing is black, marked with a bar of white from the shoulder, passing obliquely backwards, and a second bar, or rather spot, of the same below that, but only in the inner half; the second quills are each of them tipped with white;



white; the tail black; legs brown. Comes from Hudson's Bay and New York.

3. *Loxia coccothraustes*, the grosbeak, or hawfinch. This bird is an inhabitant of the temperate climates; and the species, though rather stationary, is not numerous. Its Latin name, *coccothraustes*, is derived from *κοκκος*, a grain or kernel, and *θραυω*, to break, because it feeds upon cherry-stones. This bird is six inches and three quarters in length. The bill is three quarters of an inch, and not much less in depth at the base; in shape conical, and prodigiously strong; the colour in some is black, in others horn-colour; irides ash-colour; between the bill and the eye, round the nostrils, and on the chin, the feathers are black; the crown of the head rufous chestnut; sides of it the same, but paler; hind part of the neck ash-colour; the back and smaller wing-coverts chestnut, inclining to grey on the rump; the greater wing-coverts grey. The under parts are pale rufous blossom-colour, growing almost white towards the vent; the quills are all black, except some nearest the body of the secondaries, which are brown; the four outer ones seem to be cut off at the tips, and are besides bent at the end, giving an odd appearance; the prime quills have each of them a spot of white about the middle of the inner web; the tail is also black, but the two middle feathers incline to cinereous near the end, and all the outer ones have the end half white on the inner webs and tip; legs pale brown. See the Plate, fig. 2. The female is less bright in colour; the part between the bill and eye is grey instead of black. This may serve for a general description, but the colours vary much: the head in some parts has the top whitish, surrounded with rufous; in others wholly black; the band of the wings in some is almost white, in others grey, and again wholly wanting. Specimens have also been seen with the body wholly black, the breast and belly spotted with rufous, and the upper mandible the longest; and some have been met with which were wholly white, the quills excepted.

This species is ranked among the British birds; but it only visits these kingdoms occasionally, and for the most part in winter, and is never known to breed here. It is more plentiful in France, coming into Burgundy in small flocks about the beginning of April; and soon after makes the nest, which is placed between the bifurcation of the branches of trees, about twelve feet from the ground; it is composed of small dry fibres, intermixed with liverwort, and lined with finer materials. The eggs are of a roundish shape, of a bluish green spotted with olive brown, with a few irregular black markings interspersed. It is also common in Italy, Germany, Sweden, and the west and southern parts of Russia, where the wild fruits grow; in the rest of the empire it is scarce, except beyond Lake Baikal, where they arrive from the south in great plenty, to feed on the berries of a tree, the *Pyrus baccata*, peculiar to that country. From the great strength of its bill, it cracks nuts, the stones of the fruit of the haws, cherries, &c. with the greatest ease: hence the name of *hawfinch*. They feed their young with insects, chrysalids, &c. and, when they are about to be robbed of their family, they make a vigorous defence, and bite fiercely. Though they are granivorous, they also live much upon insects. They must be confined in a separate cage when bred up; for, without seeming at all discomposed, or making the least noise, they kill the weaker birds that are lodged with them. They attack, not by striking with the point of the bill, but by biting out a piece of the flesh. When at liberty, they live upon all sorts of grain, and kernels of fruits, and feed also on fir and pine cones, and on beech-mast, &c. The tongue is fleshy, small, and pointed; the gizzard is very muscular, preceded by a pouch, containing in summer bruised hemp-seeds, green caterpillars almost entire, and very small stones.

4. *Loxia pittacea*, the parrot-billed grosbeak. Size only of the hedge-sparrow: length seven inches; the bill fashioned much like that of a parrot, the upper mandible being elongated and curved at the point, the under one

short; colour of the bill pale, with a dusky tip; the head and part of the neck in the male are yellow; the rest of the plumage a greenish olive brown, palest beneath; the edges of the quills and tail yellowish; the last even at the ends; legs pale brown. The plumage in the female is not unlike that of the male, except the head, which is the same as the other parts of the body, with a mixture of yellowish grey about the sides of the head. Native of the Sandwich islands.

5. *Loxia enucleator*, the pine-grosbeak, or greatest bullfinch: tail black. This is nine inches in length; the bill half an inch long, and dusky; it is stout at the base, and the upper mandible hooked at the tip; the nostrils are covered with recumbent brown feathers; the head, neck, breast, and rump, are of a rose-coloured crimson; the back and smaller wing-coverts black, edged with reddish; the greater wing-coverts the same, tipped with white, forming two bars on the wings; the quills are black; the secondaries have the outer border white, and the primaries grey margins; the belly and vent are ash-coloured; tail forked, and marked as the quills; legs brown. The female is mostly of a greenish brown colour, with here and there a reddish or yellowish tinge. She lays four eggs, and the young are hatched about the middle of June. This species is met with in Scotland, and especially the Highlands, where it breeds and inhabits the pine-forests, feeding on the seeds, like the crossbill. It is also found in all the pine-forests of Siberia, Lapland, and the northern parts of Russia; common about St. Petersburg in autumn, and is caught in great plenty at that time for the use of the table, returning north in spring. They are likewise common to the northern parts of America; appear at Hudson's Bay in May, to which place they are said to come from the south, and are observed to feed on the buds of willow. The southern settlements are inhabited by them throughout the year, but the northern only in the summer season. Our last voyagers met with this bird in Norton Sound; it was also found at Oonalashta.

6. *Loxia naevia*, the freckled grosbeak: head, neck, and upper parts, freckled with black and grey spots; wing-coverts and rump yellow; quill feathers and tail, black. From the Cape of Good Hope.

7. *Loxia macroura*, the long-tailed grosbeak: black. Size of a house-sparrow, but measures more, as the tail is long; the whole length is full seven inches. The general colour of the plumage is black, with a bar of rufous yellow across the back and wing-coverts; the tail is cuneiform, and nearly half the length of the bird; bill and legs dusky. Inhabits Whidah in Africa; and is sometimes met with in Senegal.

8. *Loxia aurea*, the golden-backed grosbeak: black, back golden. Length six inches; bill, head, and neck, deep black; back a rich golden yellow; wing-coverts light brown, spotted with black; breast and belly black; legs bluish. The female is of a dark brown; and it is remarkable that the cocks change their colour twice a-year, and in the winter exactly resemble the hens. It inhabits Benguela in Africa.

9. *Loxia rubicilla*, the Caucasian grosbeak: scarlet spotted with white. Length eight inches. The upper mandible brown, the under whitish; eyes brown. The upper part of the head and body, the fore part of the neck and breast, deep crimson, marked with triangular spots of white; belly and vent pale rose-colour; undulated with whitish; under tail-coverts rose-coloured brown; thighs hoary; base of all the feathers deep ash-colour, giving an undulated appearance throughout; prime coverts and quills brown, edged with rose-colour; tail three inches and a half long, even, of a glossy black, the outer feathers margined with whitish, the rest with rose-colour; legs black. The female differs very little, except in having the colours more dull. This species inhabits the coldest parts of the Caucasian mountains, especially the gravelly hollows; and lives on the sea-buckthorn berries, which grow there plentifully, and is the means of propagating



gating that plant, the seeds passing through them; often fly in vast flocks; the note not unlike that of a bullfinch.

10. *Loxia pyrrhula*, the bullfinch. The name of this bird is from the head appearing too large in proportion to the body. Nature has been liberal in bestowing upon it a beautiful plumage, and a fine voice. The colours become perfect after the first moulting, but the song must be assisted and formed by art. In the state of freedom, the bullfinch has three cries, which are all unpleasant; the first, which is the most common, is a sort of whoop; the second is an air of greater extent, but lower, almost hoarse, and running into a discord; and the third is a feeble stifled cry, which it vents at intervals, exceedingly shrill and broken, but at the same time so soft and delicate, that it scarcely can be heard; it emits this sound much in the same way as a ventriloquist, without any apparent motion of the mouth or throat, only with a sensible action of the abdominal muscles. Such is the song of the bullfinch when left to the education of its parents; but, if man deigns to instruct it methodically, and accustom it to finer, mellower, and more-lengthened, strains, it will listen with singular attention; and the docile bird, whether male or female, without relinquishing its native airs, will imitate exactly, and sometimes surpass, its master. Thus educated, bullfinches will fetch from five to ten guineas each. It also learns to articulate words and phrases, and utters them with so tender an accent, that we might almost suppose it felt their force. The bullfinch is besides susceptible of personal attachment, which is often strong and durable. Some have been known, after escaping from the cage, and living a whole year in the woods, to recognize the voice of the mistress, and return, to forsake her no more. Others have died of melancholy, on being removed from the first object of their attachment. These birds well remember injuries received. Buffon informs us, that a bullfinch, which had been thrown to the ground in its cage by some of the rabble, though it did not appear much affected at the time, fell into convulsions ever after, at the sight of any mean-looking fellow, and expired in one of these fits eight months from the date of its first accident.

The bullfinches spend the summer in the woods or on the mountains; they make their nest in the bushes, five or six feet from the ground, and sometimes lower; this consists of moss, lined with soft materials; and its opening is said to be least exposed to the prevailing wind. The female lays from four to six eggs, of a dirty white and a little bluish, encircled near the large end with a zone, formed by spots of two colours, some of an ill-defined violet, others of a distinct black. She disgorges the food for the young like the gold-finches, the linnets, &c. The male is attentive to his mate; and Linnæus relates, that he sometimes holds out to her a spider in his bill a very long time. The young begin not to whistle till they are able to eat without assistance; and then they seem instinctively benevolent, if what is related be true, that, in a hatch of four, the three elder will feed their puny brother. After the breeding is over, the parents still continue associated through the winter, for they are always seen in pairs; those which remain in the country, leave the woods when the snow falls, and lodge among hedges by the road-sides; those which migrate, depart about November, and return in the month of April. They feed in summer upon all sorts of seeds, insects, and forbs; and in the winter upon juniper-berries, upon the buds of aspen, of alder, of oak, of fruit-trees, of the marsh-willow, &c. whence the name *ebourgeonneaux*, (from *bourgeon*, a bud,) which they sometimes have in France. In that forbidding season, they are heard to whistle; and their song, though somewhat sad, cheers the torpid gloom of nature.

It has been asserted, that the canary, which breeds with so many other species, will never submit to the embrace of the bullfinch; and it is alleged as the reason, that the cock-bullfinch, when in heat, holds his bill open, which frightens the canary. But the marquis de Piolenc paired

a bullfinch with a hen-canary, which had five young ones about the beginning of April; their bill was larger than that of canaries of the same age, and they began to be covered with a blackish down, which seemed to show that they had more of the father than the mother; unfortunately they all died in performing a short journey. What adds more weight to this observation, is, that Frisch gives directions for the experiment: he advises that the cock-bullfinch be the smallest of its kind, and be kept long in the same cage with the hen-canary; he subjoins, that sometimes a whole year elapses before the female will allow the bullfinch to come near, or to eat out of the same tray; which shows that the union is difficult, but not impossible.

It has been observed that the bullfinches jerk their tail briskly upwards and downwards, though not in so remarkable a degree as the wagtails. They live five or six years; their flesh is palatable according to some, and not fit to be eaten according to others, by reason of its bitterness; but this must depend upon the age, season, and food. They are a size larger than the house-sparrow, and weigh about one ounce. The upper part of the head, the ring round the bill, and the origin of the neck, are fine glossy black, which extends more or less forwards and backwards; hence the name of *monk*, or *pope*, which this bird has in many languages, and that of *coally-hood*, given to it by the people in Scotland. The fore-part of the neck, the breast, and the top of the belly, are a beautiful red; the abdomen, and the inferior coverts of the tail and wings, white; the upper part of the neck, the back, and the shoulders, cinereous; the rump white; the superior coverts and the quills of the tail, fine black, verging to violet, a whitish spot on the outermost quills; the quills of the wings blackish cinereous, and deeper the nearer to the body; the last of all red on the outside; the great coverts of the wings of a fine changing black, terminated with reddish light grey; the middle ones cinereous; the small ones blackish ash-colour, edged with reddish; the iris hazel; the bill blackish; and the legs brown. See the Plate, fig. 3. The sides of the head, and the fore part of the neck, the breast, the top of the belly, and almost all that appears red in the male, is vinous ash-colour in the female, and sometimes even the abdomen; nor has it the fine glossy changing black that occurs on the head and other parts of the male. It is in length six inches; the bill five lines, thick, and forked; the alar extent nine inches and one-fourth; the tail two inches and one-third, somewhat forked, (but not always in the females,) consisting of twelve quills; the outer toe joined by its first phalanx to the mid toe; the hind nail stronger and more hooked than the rest.

There are two varieties of the bullfinch: one white, the other black. Schwenckfeld mentions a white bullfinch that was caught near Frischbach, in Silesia, and which had only some black feathers on the back. This is confirmed by Delisle, who says, "There are in Siberia white bullfinches, whose back is somewhat blackish and grey in summer; these birds have a delicate song, much superior to that of European bullfinches." It is probable that the northern climate much contributes to this change of plumage. The Leverian Museum contained a bullfinch entirely of a snowy white.

The black variety includes not only those which are entirely black, but also those which have perceptibly begun to assume that complexion. Those mentioned by Anderson and Salerne were entirely of a jet black; that of Reaumur, noticed by Brisson, was only black over the body. Buffon observed one which assumed a fine glossy black after the first moulting, but which still retained a little red on each side of the neck, and a little grey behind the neck, and on the small superior coverts of the wings; its legs were flesh-coloured; and the inside of its bill red; that of Albin had some red feathers under the belly; the five first quills of the wing edged with white; the iris white; and the legs flesh-coloured. Albin remarks that this bird was exceedingly gentle, like all the bullfinches. It often happens that



this robe of black disappears in moulting, and gives place to the natural colours; but often it renews each time, and remains for several years; such was the case with Reaumur's. This would imply that the change of colour is not the effect of disease. Mr. White, in his Natural History of Selburne in Hampshire, relates an instance of a cock bullfinch turning dingy, and afterwards black.

The bullfinch breeds late in the spring; seldom has young ones before the end of May, or beginning of June; she builds in an orchard, wood, or park, where there are plenty of trees, or on heaths; but her nest is not very common to be found; it is an ordinary mean fabric, made with seemingly little art; she lays four or five eggs, of a bluish colour spotted at the biggest end with large dark-brown and faint-reddish spots. Those who wish to bring up these birds should not take them from the nest too young; let them be well feathered first; at least twelve or fourteen days old; keep them warm and clean; feed them every two hours, from morning until night, giving them little at a time; their meat must be rape-feed soaked in clean water eight or ten hours; then scalded, strained, and bruised, mixt with an equal quantity of white-bread soaked in fair water, boiled with a little milk to a thick consistency; make but a little at a time, and let them have fresh every day, it being apt to sour in two days, and such meat will spoil the birds. When they begin to feed themselves, break them from this soft meat as soon as you can; then give them rape and canary seed, the same as you do the linnet, but more of the former than the latter. If at any time you perceive them out of order, put a blade of saffron in their water; and you may try them with the woodlark's meat, or fine hemp-feed; but keep mostly to rape, with a little canary-feed mixed with it. Often pipe, whistle, or talk, to them, whilst they are young, what they should learn; and they will soon take it; for the bullfinch is by bird-fanciers supposed to excel all other small birds in the softness of his tones and variety of his notes, except the linnet. In domesticity, we should rather say in captivity, his melody seems to be as great a solace to himself as a pleasure to his master. By day, and even when the evening has called for the artificial light of candles, he pursues his melodious exertions; and, if there are any other birds in the apartment, wakes them gently to the pleasing task of singing in concert with him. His notes are upon one of the lowest keys of the gamut of birds.

11. *Loxia cardinalis*, the cardinal grosbeak, or Virginia nightingale; crested; red. Near eight inches in length; bill stout, and of a pale red colour; irides hazel; the head greatly crested, the feathers rising up to a point when erect; round the bill, and on the throat, black; the rest of the plumage fine red; the quills and tail duller than the rest, and brownish within; legs pale red. The female differs from the male, being mostly of a reddish brown. This species is met with in several parts of North America, where it has attained the name of *nightingale*, having a remarkably fine song. In the spring and summer it sits on the tops of the highest trees, singing early in the morning, so loud as almost to pierce the ears; is frequently kept in cages, in which it sings throughout the year. It is fond of maize and buck-wheat; and will get together great hoards of these, often as much as a bushel, which it artfully covers with leaves and small twigs, leaving only a little hole for its entrance into the magazine; it is also fond of bees. It appears the beginning of April in New York and the Jerseys, and frequents the Magnolia swamps during the summer; in autumn departs towards Carolina. It is not gregarious, scarcely ever more than three or four being met with together. From their being familiar birds, attempts have been made to breed them in cages, but without success.

12. *Loxia Carlini*, the Carlinian grosbeak; general colour of the plumage red; chin black; rump, tail, and legs, brown. Found in the islands of the Indian Ocean.

13. *Loxia Indica*, the Indian grosbeak; red, legs yel-

low, bigger than the hawfinch; length eight inches; bill one inch, and yellow; the head is crested; the whole plumage fine red; the base of the bill, and wing-coverts, more dull than the rest; legs yellow; toes long; claws sharp and bent. Native of India.

14. *Loxia Madagascariensis*, the Madagascar grosbeak. Length five inches and a third. Bill dusky; through the eye a streak of black; general colour of the plumage red, but the middle of each feather on the back is black; quills and tail brown, margined with olive-green; legs grey brown. The young birds at first are olive, and do not arrive at the red colour but by degrees. It is called at Madagascar, *foudi lahé mena*. It is also an inhabitant of India.

15. *Loxia Mexicana*, the Mexican grosbeak. Length six inches and three quarters. The whole body is covered with feathers of a blood-red colour; upper tail-coverts blackish, with a mixture of red; quills and tail blackish; the wings reach the middle of the tail. Native of Mexico.

16. *Loxia Brasiliensis*, the Brazilian grosbeak. Length five inches and three quarters. Bill short, thick, and of a flesh-colour; head and chin red; beneath this a ring of white, not quite meeting on the fore part; back and wing-coverts brown; quills and tail black; the coverts and secondaries have pale reddish tips; end of the tail white; the breast, belly, and sides, reddish white, marked with round spots of white, encircled with black; middle of the belly red; rump dusky. Native of Brasil.

17. *Loxia Dominicana*, the Dominican grosbeak. Size of a lark. Upper mandible brown; under pale flesh-colour; eyes bluish; the head, throat, and fore-part of the neck, deep red; hind part of the neck blackish, with a slight mixture of white; wing-coverts, back, rump, upper tail-coverts, and scapulars, grey mixed with a few black spots; sides of the neck, breast, belly, thighs, and vent, whitish; quills black, edged with white; tail black; legs cinereous. Of this species there are two other varieties, one of them crested, and made a separate species by Dr. Turton. They all inhabit Brasil.

18. *Loxia Sibirica*, the Siberian grosbeak. Size of a linnet, but fuller of feathers. Bill a trifle longer than in the bullfinch; round the base the feathers are of a deep purple; head and back of a deep rose-colour, marked with brown, as in the linnet; the under parts paler, and not spotted; the feathers about the head have the tips of a polished white, appearing very vivid in some lights; base of the wings white; coverts the same, with black tips, forming a double oblique bar on the wings; quills edged with white; tail longer than the body; the outer feathers white; the others black, with pale margins. The female and young birds are the colour of a linnet, with a tinge of red on the belly and rump. This inhabits the bushy shrubs about the rivers and torrents of the southern mountains of Siberia, and particularly about the Lake Baikal; is fond of the seeds of the mugworts; is a restless bird, and in winter unites into small flocks, and keeps in the warmer situations among the shrubs.

19. *Loxia Virginica*, the Virginian grosbeak: bill yellow; head red; nape olive brown; hind part of the neck, and under parts, of a fine red; belly yellow; wings, lower part of the back, and tail, olive, except the two middle feathers of the last, which are red. Native of Virginia.

20. *Loxia cristata*, the crested grosbeak. A large species; general colour whitish; forehead crested; the crest, breast, and rump, red; of the female white; tail cinereous; the two middle feathers twice as long as the rest; legs red. Native of Ethiopia.

21. *Loxia erythrocephala*, the paradise grosbeak. Length nearly six inches. Bill flesh-colour; head and chin red; hind part of the neck, back, rump, and wing-coverts, bluish ash-colour; upper tail coverts margined with grey; the under parts white, marbled with curved spots of black on the sides; the wing-coverts tipped with white.



white, forming two bars of the same on the wing; quills and tail deep blue ash, tipped with grey; the legs flesh-colour. Native of Angola.

22. *Loxia maja*, the white-headed grosbeak. Length four inches. Bill grey brown, palest beneath; head and neck dirty white; upper parts of the body, wings, and tail, chestnut brown; belly and vent blackish; second and fourth quills white; legs grey. Inhabits Malacca and China.

23. *Loxia flavicans*, the yellow grosbeak: size of a canary-bird. Bill short and thick, the base going far back on the forehead; head, neck, breast, belly, and vent, yellow; top of the head the same, but paler; back, wings, and tail, greenish yellow; bend of the wing deep yellow; quills and tail margined with yellow; legs pale. Native of Asia.

24. *Loxia Bonariensis*, the marigold grosbeak. Length seven inches. Bill black, short, strong, and convex; the under mandible paler; the nostrils are round, placed at the base, and perforated; the head, and upper part of the neck, blue; the body blackish; the throat, fore part of the neck, and breast, of the colour of a marigold; the belly and vent brimstone-colour; quills and tail blackish, edged with blue; legs red; the middle and outer toe united as far as the first joint; all of them sharp, bent, and channelled. This inhabits Buenos Ayres, where it is rarely seen till September; it frequents cultivated places and gardens; seen in pairs, and apparently very much attached to each other; feeds on grass and on seeds.

25. *Loxia oryzivora*, the rice-bird, or Java grosbeak. Length five inches. Bill stout and red; eye-lids of the same colour; the head and throat black; sides of the head under the eyes white; upper parts of the body, neck, and breast, pale ash-colour; belly and thighs pale rose-colour; the vent and under tail-coverts nearly white; the tail black; legs flesh-coloured. The female has the bill and eye-lids very pale red, and wants the white on the cheeks; but the edge of the wing is white as well as the under tail-coverts. This species is met with at Java and the Cape of Good Hope, where it does much damage to the rice-grounds. It is probably a Chinese bird likewise, as we often meet with it in paper-hangings from that country; and Latham thinks this the more likely, as he has seen it among some Chinese paintings, in which it bore the name of *hung-tzy*.

26. *Loxia flabellifera*, the fan-tailed grosbeak. Length about five inches. Bill stout and dusky; the upper parts of the body reddish-brown, palest on the rump; the under the same, but somewhat paler, and more inclined to red; quills, tail, and legs, dusky. One of these birds had a grey breast and belly. They inhabit Virginia, where they are called *fan-tails*; and continually carry the tail spread in a horizontal direction, as represented on the Plate at fig. 4.

27. *Loxia panicivora*, the white-winged grosbeak. Size of the hawfinch; length seven inches and a quarter; bill half an inch, grey; the eyes black, as is the whole plumage, except a spot of white on the wing-coverts; the legs are ash-coloured. Native of Africa.

28. *Loxia Malacca*, the Malacca grosbeak. Length four inches and a quarter. Bill bluish ash-colour; irides black; head, neck, middle of the belly, thighs, and under tail-coverts, black; breast, and sides of the belly, white; back, wings, and tail, chestnut; legs brown. The female has the thighs chestnut, and the colours are less vivid. Native of Java.

There is a beautiful variety found in China, with the head, throat, and fore part of the neck, black; the rest of the plumage chestnut; bill and legs cinereous. The female has the top of the head, and upper parts, cinereous brown; sides of the head, and under parts, reddish white; quills and tail blackish; legs flesh-colour. These birds are also found in India.

29. *Loxia Molucca*, the Molucca grosbeak. Length four inches. Bill dusky; the fore-part of the head, and

sides and fore-part of the neck, black; hind part of the head, and upper parts, brown; rump, and under parts, from the breast, transversely barred with black and white; the upper tail-coverts, and tail, black; the quills deep brown; legs brown. Inhabits the Molucca Isles.

30. *Loxia punctularia*, the cowry, or punctulated grosbeak. Length four inches and a quarter. Bill dusky; fore-part of the head, and sides, throat, and fore-part of the neck, chestnut; hind part of the head, and rest of the upper parts, rufous brown; the rump feathers edged with grey; breast and sides dusky, marked with cordated white spots; middle of the belly, and vent, white; legs dusky. Inhabits the island of Java.

31. *Loxia undulata*, the undulated grosbeak. Size of the preceding; length six inches. Bill dusky, short, and stout, as in the bullfinch; head, neck, and back, red brown; beneath, from the breast, undulated with dusky; vent yellowish; tail pale reddish ash-colour; legs dusky. Brought from India.

32. *Loxia hordeacea*, the yellow-rumped grosbeak. Size of the *Motacilla alba*, or wagtail. The head, neck, and rump, fulvous; temples white; from thence to the bill, the breast, wings, and tail, black; shoulders, thighs, vent, and margins of the tail-feathers, grey. Native of India.

33. *Loxia sanguinifrons*, the red-billed grosbeak. A small species. Bill thick, bare at the base, and of a deep blood red; forehead black; the head, neck, back, and wings, grey brown; breast, belly, and bend of the wing, yellowish white; quills and tail brown; legs pale red. Inhabits Africa and Asia.

34. *Loxia atrild*, the waxbill. Size of a wren; only four inches and a quarter in length. Bill gibbous at the base, and of a deep red colour; a streak of red passes through the eye, and the middle of the breast and belly is of the same colour; the upper parts of the body are brown, the under reddish grey, crossed with transverse blackish lines; quills and tail brown; crossed with lines of darker brown; legs brown. They inhabit the Canary Islands, Madeira, Senegal, Angola, the Cape of Good Hope, and India. This small species is shown at fig. 5.

There are two other varieties of this bird, which inhabit Benguela, and Senegal, in Africa. In the first variety the rump is red; the under parts inclined to yellow, and have the sides of the rump and wing-coverts spotted with white; the base of the bill bordered with black. One of these was brought from the Ile of France, by M. Sonnerat. Others have the under parts of a pale yellow; neither the bill nor rump red; the legs yellowish, and totally without white spots; perhaps of a different sex. There is also in some birds a tinge of red on the breast, and fore-part of the neck; and the tail somewhat longer in proportion. These are found at the Cape of Good Hope.

The other variety has a white rump; bill red; through the eyes a streak of the same; throat, and sides of the neck, bluish white; the rest of the under-parts of the body, and rump, rose-coloured white, more or less deep; the top of the head, neck, and back, blue, lightest on the head; wings brown; tail blackish; legs red. Inhabits Senegal.

35. *Loxia leucum*, the white-tailed waxbill. Length only three inches. Bill like red sealing-wax; head and wing-coverts cinereous; back of a rich yellow; breast and belly pale yellow; tail white; the two outer feathers black; legs flesh-colour. Inhabits Brazil.

36. *Loxia cyanea*, the azure grosbeak. This is about the size of the hawfinch; and is a native of Angola. The general colour of the plumage is a fine lively azure blue, brightest on the head and breast; the quill-feathers, tail, and legs, black.

37. *Loxia virens*, the blue-shouldered grosbeak. The general colour of this bird is green; but the wing-coverts on the shoulders are blue; the quills and tail black, with greenish margins. Native of Surinam.

38. *Loxia Angolensis*, the Angola grosbeak. Size of



our bullfinch; length five inches. Bill dusky; eyes dark; general colour of the plumage black, except from the breast to the vent, where it is of a dull red, and a spot of white on the middle of the wing near the edge; the ridge of the wing is also white; legs of a purplish flesh-colour. Inhabits Angola.

39. *Loxia ferruginea*, the ferruginous grosbeak. Length six inches. Bill stout, and horn-coloured, one inch long; head and chin dusky brown; back and wing-coverts black, the feathers deeply margined with yellow; breast deep ferruginous; from thence to the vent rusty yellow, very pale at the vent; quills and tail dusky, edged with yellow; legs pale.

40. *Loxia melanura*, the grey-necked grosbeak. Size of the hawfinch. Bill and irides yellow; head black; hind-part of the neck brown, fore-part grey; wing-coverts bluish black; about the middle a spot of white; the second quills black, bordered with white on the inner web; the prime quills black for two-thirds, and white from thence to the end; the rump grey; the tail black; the belly pale rufous; vent white; legs yellow. The female has the head grey, and the quills black, bordered only with white. Inhabits China.

41. *Loxia aurantia*, the orange grosbeak. Length four inches and a half; bill dusky; top of the head black; wings and tail dusky black, edged with orange, and some of the inner quills with white; the rest of the bird fine orange; legs pale red. The female has the whole head, and fore part of the neck, black; the under part of the body white; the rest orange, but less bright; and the quills edged with grey. Inhabits the Isle of Bourbon and the Cape of Good Hope.

42. *Loxia torrida*, the white-billed grosbeak. General colour black; breast and belly chestnut; the two middle tail feathers longest. This was sent from South America by Jacquin, and described from the living bird by Scopoli. That mentioned by Buffon had a white bill, and came from Guiana.

43. *Loxia lineola*, the lined grosbeak. A small species; length  $4\frac{1}{4}$  inches. Bill black; at the base of the upper mandible a spot of white, and a white line from the forehead to the crown; the plumage on the upper parts glossy blue-black; beneath white; the quills black; base of the prime ones white, forming a spot of white on the wing; tail black, bifurcated. Native of Asia.—There is a variety, with the feathers of the lower part of the body curled.

44. *Loxia Hamburgia*, the Hamburg grosbeak. Size of a bullfinch. Bill black; irides yellow; upper part of the head and neck reddish brown, with a purplish tinge; throat brown; fore part of the neck white, across the middle of it a brown band; breast, back, rump, scapulars, and upper tail-coverts, yellowish brown, marked with black; belly, sides, thighs, and vent, white; on the wing-coverts two white bands; quills yellowish brown; tail brown. This is found about Hamburg, running up and down the trees like a creeper or titmouse; and feeds on insects.

45. *Loxia passerina*, the yellow-headed grosbeak. Length five inches three quarters. Bill pale flesh-colour; irides hazel; the upper parts of the body dull brown, spotted with black; beneath pale brown, with spots of dull brown; the fore part of the head, cheeks, and throat, are yellow; behind the eyes a brown band, which passes towards the back; quills and tail blackish; legs brownish horn-colour. Inhabits Mexico; but the name has here been changed, because in the Linnæan System we find two species denominated Mexicana.

46. *Loxia chloris*, the greenfinch: a well-known bird; the general colour yellowish green, paler on the rump and breast, and inclining to white on the belly; the quills are edged with yellow, and the four outer tail-feathers are yellow from the middle to the base; the bill is pale brown, and stout; and the legs flesh-colour. The female inclines more to brown. The greenfinch is very common in

Great Britain, and makes its nest in some low bush or hedge, composed of dry grass, and lined with hair, wool, &c. laying five or six greenish eggs, marked at the larger end with red brown; and is so careful of her charge during incubation, that she is easily taken on the nest. The male takes his turn in sitting. This species soon becomes tame; even old birds are familiar almost as soon as caught; they are apt to grow blind, if exposed to the sun, like the chaffinch; fly in troops in winter; live five or six years; and have been known to breed with the canary-bird. It is also common on the continent of Europe, but not very frequent in Russia, and not at all in Siberia; which gives reason to suppose that it shifts its quarters according to the season. It is found in Cumberland and Scotland; yet in the first it is scarcely ever observed in the winter season; but the last week in March becomes plentiful, and breeds as in other parts of England.

47. *Loxia sinensis*, the Chinese grosbeak. Not unlike the greenfinch. Bill greenish yellow; the head and neck greenish grey; back and wing-coverts light brown; those on the edge of the wing black; the second quills are black within, and grey on the outer edge; the prime quills are yellow half-way from the base, black the rest of their length, tipped with grey; the belly dirty rufous; vent yellow; tail black, tipped with white; legs greenish yellow. Native of China.

48. *Loxia butyracea*, the yellow-fronted grosbeak: forehead yellow; above the eyes a yellow line; temples the same colour; the rest of the plumage green, spotted with brown above, beneath wholly yellow; tail blackish, a little forked, tipped with white. Native of India.

49. *Loxia dominicensis*, the St. Domingo grosbeak. Size of the greenfinch; length five inches and three quarters. Bill reddish; the eyes are placed in a patch of white; the upper parts of the plumage green brown, the edges of the feathers paler; the under parts dull rufous, spotted with brown; lower belly and vent white; quills black; tail and legs dusky brown. Inhabits St. Domingo.

50. *Loxia africana*, the African grosbeak. Length six inches and a third. The upper parts in this bird are greenish brown and grey, mixed, inclining to rufous on the rump; upper wing-coverts rufous; second quills edged with the same; the greater quills, and side feathers of the tail, edged with rufous white, and the outer feather of the last marked with a spot of white; the under parts of the body are white, varied with brown on the breast. This was brought from the Cape of Good Hope by M. Sonnerat. Buffon considers this as a greenfinch; and he calls it *le verdier sans vert*.

51. *Loxia hypoxantha*, the Sumatra grosbeak: yellowish; front and eyebrows pale-yellow; quill and tail feathers black, edged with yellowish. Bill pale; irides rufous; legs pale. Inhabits Sumatra; five inches long.

52. *Loxia canadensis*, the Canada grosbeak: size of a sparrow; length six inches and three quarters. Bill ash-colour, the edges somewhat projecting in the middle; the upper parts of the plumage olive-green; the under paler, inclining to yellow; the feathers round the base of the bill, and the chin, black; legs grey. Inhabits Cayenne, and Canada occasionally.

53. *Loxia sulphurata*, the brimstone-coloured grosbeak. Length five inches and three quarters; bill seven lines long, stout, and of a horn-colour; head, neck, breast, and upper parts of the body, olive green; throat, belly, and vent, yellow; over the eye a yellow streak; quills brown, edged with olive green; tail the same, except the two middle feathers, which are wholly olive green; legs brownish grey. Inhabits the Cape of Good Hope.

54. *Loxia flaviventris*, the yellow-bellied grosbeak: smaller than the preceding, bill the same colour; head, hind part of the neck, and back, olive-green, dashed with brown; rump plain olive-green; under parts of the body full yellow; on each side of the head a band of yellow, which passes over the eye; quills and tail brown, with olive-green edges; the last somewhat forked; legs grey.



The female is less brilliant in colour.—There is a variety of this species, of a much brighter green; and both inhabit the Cape of Good Hope.

55. *Loxia collaris*, the collared grosbeak. Length four inches and a half. Bill black; the forehead bare; the top of the head and upper part of the body, greenish-blue; temples black; under parts and rump rufous white; round the neck a handsome collar of the same; across the breast a mottled black band; wings rufous yellow and black, mixed; tail black; legs pale brown. Inhabits the East Indies.—There is a variety of this same species peculiar to Angola.

56. *Loxia grisea*, the grey grosbeak. Size of the titmouse; length four inches; bill dark brown; neck, and fore part of the head, white; the rest of the body blue grey; legs red. Inhabits Virginia.

57. *Loxia Bengalensis*, the Bengal grosbeak: length five inches and a half. Bill flesh-colour; irides whitish; the top of the head of a golden yellow; the upper parts of the body brown, with paler edges; sides of the head and under parts rufous white; across the breast a broad band, uniting to, and of the same colour with, the upper parts of the body; legs pale yellow. The female is like the male in all things; except that the colours are much less vivid. Native of Bengal.

“This bird,” says Mr William Jones, “is exceedingly common in Hindoostan; he is astonishingly sensible, faithful, and docile; never voluntarily deserting the place where his young are hatched, but not averse, like most other birds, to the society of mankind; and easily taught to perch on the hand of his master. In a state of nature he generally builds his nest on the highest tree he can find; especially on the Palmyra, or on the Indian fig-tree; and he prefers that which happens to overhang a well or a rivulet: he makes it of grass, which he weaves like cloth, and shapes like a bottle, suspending it firmly on the branches; but so as to rock with the wind, and placing it with its entrance downward, to secure it from the birds of prey. His nest usually consists of two or three chambers; and it is popularly believed that he lights them with fire-flies, which he is said to catch alive at night, and confine with moist clay or with cow-dung. That such flies are often found in his nest, where pieces of cow-dung are also stuck, is indubitable; but, as their light could be of little use to him, it seems probable that he only feeds on them. He may be taught with ease to fetch a piece of paper, or any small thing that his master points out to him. It is an attested fact, that, if a ring be dropped into a deep well, and a signal be given to him, he will fly down with amazing celerity, catch the ring before it touches the water, and bring it up to his master with apparent exultation; and it is confidently asserted, that if a house, or any other place, be shown to him once or twice, he will carry a note thither immediately on a proper signal being made. The young Hindoo women at Benares, and in other places, wear very thin plates of gold called *nicas*, slightly fixed, by way of ornament, between their eye-brows; and, when they pass through the streets, it is not uncommon for the youthful libertines, who amuse themselves with training these birds, to give them a signal which they understand, and send them to pluck the pieces of gold from the foreheads of their mistresses, which they bring in triumph to their lovers.”

58. *Loxia Malabarica*, the Malabar grosbeak. Size and shape of a titmouse. Bill black; throat white; body cinereous; quills and tail black; vent whitish. Inhabits the East Indies, Malabar, &c.

59. *Loxia Africa*, the black-bellied grosbeak: head, sides, and coverts of the tail, of a rich yellow, mixed with light brown; chin, breast, and belly, black; wings and tail brownish; bill black. Inhabits Africa.

60. *Loxia Caffra*, the Caffre grosbeak: general plumage velvet black; wing-coverts blood red; quill-feathers brown, edged with white; legs grey; bill brown. Na-

tive of Caffraria, and brought from the Cape of Good Hope.

61. *Loxia totta*, the totty or Hottentot grosbeak. Length four inches. Bill nearly white; forehead greenish brown; the crown of the head, hind part of the neck, and upper wing-coverts, testaceous brown; the under parts of the body brownish white; the quills and tail black, and the feathers of both tipped with white; tail forked at the end; feet black. Found in the Hottentots' country, in the neighbourhood of the Cape of Good Hope, and in India.

62. *Loxia cinerea*, the ash-headed grosbeak: blackish, beneath whitish; head and neck cinereous; tail tipped with white. Bill and legs blue. Inhabits India: very small. This is from Dr. Turton, who calls it *Indica*, having changed the name of *L. Indica* to *L. Boetonensis*.

63. *Loxia Asiatica*, the Asiatic grosbeak. Size of a bullfinch. Bill yellow; head black; plumage on the upper parts of a reddish ash-colour; beneath cinereous; belly pale red; the greater wing-coverts, quills, and tips of the tail, black; the last forked in shape; legs red. Inhabits China, where it is called *lap-tsoy*.

64. *Loxia canora*, the brown-cheeked grosbeak: bill stout, thick, dusky; cheeks brown, surrounded by a border of yellow, reaching beyond the ears, and beginning at the throat; the rest of the head, back, wings, and tail, pale dirty green; breast and belly cinereous; legs whitish. Inhabits Mexico.

65. *Loxia lineata*, the striated grosbeak. Size of a linnet; length four inches. Bill stout, thick, and white; head, neck, breast, small wing-coverts, and tail, black; secondaries, sides the body, and half of the prime quills, striated with black and white; belly and vent white; legs dusky.

66. *Loxia perlata*, the pearl-coloured grosbeak. Size of a wren. Head, and upper parts of the body, black; beneath brown; with an agreeable mixture of black and pearl-colour towards the thighs and tail. Inhabits Whidah in Africa; lives on grain; and has an agreeable note.

67. *Loxia fasciata*, the fasciated grosbeak. Length four inches and a half. Bill bluish grey; crown, hind part of the neck, the back, and smaller wing-coverts, pale brown, marked with semicircular lines of black; cheeks plain brown, bounded beneath with a rich crimson band, under which is a black line; breast and belly pale brown, slightly marked with semicircular lines; quills and tail brown; legs flesh-colour. Inhabits Africa.

68. *Loxia cantans*, the warbling grosbeak. Length four inches. Bill dusky; plumage on the upper parts brown, marked with narrow dusky lines; belly white; tail deep brown; legs bluish. Inhabits Africa; and said to sing well.

69. *Loxia melanocephala*, the Gambia grosbeak. Length six inches and a quarter. Bill cinereous; irides black; head, throat, and fore-part of the neck, black; rest of the body yellow, mixed with green; legs bluish ash-colour. Native of Gambia in Africa.

70. *Loxia erythromelas*, the black-headed grosbeak. Length nine inches. Bill very stout, one inch long, and black; at the middle of the edge of the upper mandible a sharp process, and a notch on the under one partly corresponding with it; the base white; head and throat black; general colour of the plumage deep crimson, inclining to pink on the under parts; quills and tail of a dusky red; legs brown. The female has the head and throat black; the upper part of the body greenish orange, with a mixture of red; sides of the neck of a deep orange red, quills olive-green, with the outer edges rufous. Inhabits Cayenne.

71. *Loxia coronata*, the crowned grosbeak. Larger than our bullfinch. Bill white, half an inch long; on the head is a full black crest; the upper parts of the body, wings, and tail, are scarlet; the under blue; on the middle of the fore-part of the neck a black spot. Inhabits America.

72. *Loxia cana*, the cinereous grosbeak. Size of a lin-



net. Bill ash-colour; base of the under mandible surrounded with white; eyes blackish; plumage on the upper parts deep ash-colour, growing paler towards the rump; beneath pale bluish ash-colour; greater quills white at the base, and blackish at the ends; tail blackish, margined with pale ash-colour; legs flesh-colour. Native of Asia.

73. *Loxia Philippina*, the Philippine grosbeak. Length five inches and a quarter. Bill brown; round the base and sides of the head, under the eyes, and the chin, of the same colour; the top of the head is yellow; the hind part of the neck and back, and scapulars, the same; the middle of the feathers brown; the lower part of the back brown, with white margins; fore-part of the neck and breast yellow, from thence to the vent yellowish-white; wing-coverts brown, edged with white; the quills brown, with pale rufous edges; tail as the quills; legs yellowish. The female has the upper parts brown, margined with rufous; under pale rufous; quills and tail margined with pale rufous.

These inhabit the Philippine islands, and are noted for making a most curious nest, in form of a long cylinder, swelling out into a globose form in the middle. This is composed of the fine fibres of leaves, &c. fastened by the upper part of the extreme branch of a tree. The entrance is from beneath; and, after ascending the cylinder as far as the globular cavity, the true nest is placed on one side of it; where this little architect lays her eggs, and hatches her brood in perfect security. This species is represented on the annexed Plate, at fig. 6. and its nest, which is similar to that made by the penfilis, and several of the smaller species, is shown at fig. 7.

There is also a variety of this bird, found in Abyssinia, with the tail and quill feathers greenish-brown, edged with yellow. This makes a nest somewhat like the former, of a spiral shape, not unlike that of a nautilus. It suspends it, like the other, on the extreme twig of some tree, chiefly one that hangs over some still water; and always turns the opening towards that quarter from whence least rain may be expected.

74. *Loxia Abyssinica*, the Abyssinian grosbeak: yellowish; crown, temples, throat, and breast, black; shoulders blackish; quill and tail feathers brown, edged with yellow. Inhabits Abyssinia; size of the hawkfinch. This bird also makes a curious nest: it is of a pyramidal shape, suspended from the ends of branches, like the others: the opening is on one side, facing the east, the cavity separated in the middle by a partition, up which the bird rises perpendicularly about half way, when, descending, the nest is within the cavity on one side. By this means the brood is defended from snakes, squirrels, monkeys, and other mischievous animals, besides being secure from the westerly rains, which in that country sometimes continue for six months together.

75. *Loxia penfilis*, the penfile grosbeak. Size of the sparrow. Bill black; irides yellow; the head, throat, and fore-part of the neck, of the last colour; from the nostrils springs a dull green stripe, which passes through the eye and beyond it, where it is broader; the hind part of the head and neck, the back, rump, and wing-coverts, the same; the quills black, edged with green; the belly deep grey; the vent of a rufous red; tail and legs black. This species is found at Madagascar, and fabricates a nest of a curious construction, composed of straw and reeds interwoven in the shape of a bag, opening beneath. It is fastened to a twig of some tree; mostly to those growing on the borders of streams. On one side of this, within, is the true nest. The bird does not form a new nest every year, but fastens a new one to the end of the last; and often as far as five in number, one hanging from another. These build in society, like rooks; they have three young at each hatch.

A bird similar to this is mentioned in Kämpfer's History of Japan, which makes the nest, near Siam, on a tree, with narrow leaves and spreading branches, the size of an apple-tree; the nest in the shape of a purse, with a long neck,

made of dry grass and other materials, and suspended at the end of the branches; the opening always to the north-west. The historian says he counted fifty on one tree only; and describes the bird itself as being like a canary-bird in colour, but as chirping like a sparrow.

76. *Loxia socia*; the sociable grosbeak: rufous brown, beneath yellowish; frontlet black; tail short. This species inhabits the interior parts of the Cape of Good Hope; they live together in vast tribes under one common roof, containing several nests, which are built on a large species of mimosa; this, from its size, its ample head, and strong wide spreading branches, is well calculated to admit and support their dwellings. The tallness and smoothness of its trunk are also a perfect defence against the invasions of the serpent and monkey tribes. In one tree, described by a very intelligent traveller, Mr. Paterfon, there were several hundred nests under one general roof. It is described as a roof, because it resembles that of a thatched house, and projects over the entrance of the nest below in a singular manner. "The industry of these birds," says this author, "seems almost equal to that of the bee. Throughout the day they seem to be busily employed in carrying a fine species of grass, which is the principal material they use for the purpose of erecting this extraordinary work, as well as for additions and repairs. Though my short stay in the country was not sufficient to satisfy me by ocular proof that they added to their nest as they annually increased in numbers; still, from the many trees which I have seen borne down by the weight, and others which I have observed with their boughs completely covered over, it would appear that this is really the case. When the tree, which is the support of this aerial city, is obliged to give way to the increase of weight, it is obvious that they are no longer protected, and are under the necessity of building in other trees. One of these deserted nests I had the curiosity to break down, to inform myself of the internal structure of it; and found it equally ingenious with that of the external. There are many entrances, each of which forms a regular street, with nests on both sides, at about two inches distance from each other. The grass with which they build is called the Boshman's grass, and I believe the seed of it to be their principal food; though, on examining their nests, I found the wings and legs of different insects. From every appearance, the nest which I dissected had been inhabited for many years, and some parts of it were much more complete than others. This, therefore, I conceive to amount nearly to a proof that the animals added to it at different times, as they found necessary from the increase of the family, or rather of the nation or community."

77. *Loxia striata*, the striated grosbeak. Not much bigger than a wren; length three inches two thirds. Bill dusky; head, and upper part of the body, brown, with a dash of paler rufous brown down each shaft; throat, and fore-part of the neck, blackish; from the breast to the vent white; quills and tail blackish brown; legs blackish. Found in the Isle of Bourbon.

78. *Loxia Zeylonica*, the Ceylon grosbeak: ferruginous-brown, beneath purple, waved with black; front and rump bluish. Bill and legs reddish-brown; hind-head, back, and long quill-feathers, brown; tail rusty-brown tipped with white; wing-coverts slightly edged and tipped with white, those nearest the back with bluish-ash; vent white. Female, head, neck, and body beneath, bright ferruginous; wings brown; tail beneath ash-colour. Inhabits Ceylon.

79. *Loxia Ludoviciana*, the red-breasted grosbeak. Length six inches and three quarters. Bill like that of a bullfinch; head, upper parts of the body, and half of the tail, black; breast, and under wing-coverts, light-purple; belly, thighs, vent, and rump, white, varied on the belly with purple spots; on the wings are three white marks; the lower half of the three outer tail-feathers is white, and the inner web at the tip of the fourth of the same colour; legs brown. Native of Louisiana.



80. *Loxia maculata*, the spotted grosbeak. Size of the yellow-hammer. Bill pale, with a dusky tip; the plumage on the upper parts dusky; every feather, except the greater coverts and quills, spotted at the end with white; the under parts marked with dusky streaks; over the eye is a pale streak; the outer tail-feathers have the outer webs white almost to the tip, and a white spot on the inner web near the tip; both quills and tail are fringed on the outer web with dusky white; legs pale brown. Native of North America.

81. *Loxia obscura*, the dusky grosbeak: head, neck, and back, dusky, edged with pale brown; wing-coverts dusky, crossed with two bars of white; quills green; middle of the throat white; sides of the breast, and sides of the belly, white, spotted with brown. Found at New York, in the month of June.

82. *Loxia Hudsonica*, the Hudson's-Bay grosbeak: brown; belly white; sides spotted with brown; wing-coverts with two red bands. Short strong bill and legs brown; feathers of the back and rump, secondary quill and tail feathers, edged with pale rufous; tail a little forked. Inhabits Hudson's Bay; five inches long.

83. *Loxia Capensis*, the Cape grosbeak. Size of a chaffinch: length six inches and a quarter. Bill very stout, and of a dusky colour; the head, neck, upper part of the back, and under parts of the body, and tail, are of a deep black; the feathers of the head short, like plush or velvet; the shoulders of the wings, and lower part of the back and rump, of a fine deep yellow; the rest of the wings reddish brown, edged with grey; the greater quills with yellow; the feathers round the knee are pale brown; the legs dusky. Inhabits the coasts of Coromandel; and is also frequently brought from the Cape of Hope. Buffon has, by mistake, made two species of this bird.

84. *Loxia nigra*, the black grosbeak. Size of a canary-bird; length five inches and a quarter. Bill black, stout, and deeply notched in the middle of the upper mandible; plumage black, except a little white on the fore-part of the wing, and base of the two first quills; legs black. Native of Mexico.

85. *Loxia crassirostris*, the thick-billed grosbeak. Size of a bullfinch; length five inches three quarters. The bill is of a large size, and deeper than it is long, being three quarters of an inch from the base on the forehead to that of the under jaw; the base of the upper mandible passes backward some way on the forehead; about one third from the tip is a deep notch, the colour of the bill a pale yellow; the plumage is wholly black, except the bottoms of the quills, which are white, forming a spot on the wing; tail two inches long; base of the middle feathers white; legs whitish.

86. *Loxia regulus*, the crimson-crested grosbeak: black; wings with a white spot; hind-head with a crimson crest-like band. Bill very thick and strong.

87. *Loxia Americana*, the American grosbeak. Size of the smallest titmouse; length not four inches. Bill black; the plumage on the upper parts black; beneath white, except a band of black across the breast, above which the white passes in a narrow crescent almost round the neck; on the wings are two bands of white; tail rounded, and black; legs brown. This is in the British Museum; and came from America.

88. *Loxia cerulea*, the blue grosbeak. Size of the bullfinch; length six inches. Bill half an inch, stout, brown; the base furrounded with black feathers, which reach on each side as far as the eye; the whole plumage besides is of a deep blue, except the quills and tail, which are brown, with a mixture of green; and across the wing-coverts a band of red; legs dusky. There are two other varieties of this bird; one wholly blue, inhabiting Brazil; the other blue and black, from Angola. The female is brown, with a very little mixture of blue.

89. *Loxia orix*, the grenadier grosbeak. Size of a chaffinch. The forehead, sides of the head, and chin, are black; breast and belly the same; wings brown, with

pale edges; the rest of the body of a beautiful red colour; round the knee pale brown; legs pale. These are inhabitants of St. Helena, and are also in plenty at the Cape of Good Hope, frequenting watery places where reeds grow, among which they make the nest. The appearance of these birds among the green reeds has a wonderful effect; for, from the brightness of their colours, they appear like so many scarlet lilies.

90. *Loxia erythrina*, the red-capped grosbeak. Size of the greenfinch, but the head smaller; length near five inches. Bill horn-colour; between that and the eyes cinereous grey; head, neck, and throat, red; lower part of the neck whitish; nape and back cinereous, with a reddish cast; wing-coverts brown, edged with red; quills brown, margined with luteous; the under parts white, tinged with red on the breast and sides; tail forked; legs brown. The female is wholly of a yellowish ash-colour on the upper parts, marked on the crown with yellowish spots; sides of the head almost white; chin white; on the neck a few obscure brown markings; tail dusky brown, margined with grey. This inhabits the thick woods about the Volga and Samara, where it is called the *red sparrow*; it makes a nest of hay between the branches of trees; is found in small numbers in winter among the flocks of snowflakes; and feeds on the seeds of plants. It is also met with in Siberia, about the river Tomik.

91. *Loxia flamingo*, the flamingo grosbeak. Bill red, furrounded with feathers tipped with black; forehead and space round the eyes white; the rest of the head above fine rose-colour; sides of the head and neck the same, but deeper; fore part of the neck, breast, and belly, pale rose-colour, very much like the flamingo; the third and fourth quills black; the tips of the lower order of wing-coverts dusky, forming a bar of the same on the wing; on the rump a spot of black; the upper surface of the tail pale foot-colour; the rest of the body, viz. back, thighs, under part of the tail, and the rest of the wings, white; legs sanguineous. Brought from Upsal in Sweden.

92. *Loxia violacea*, the purple grosbeak. Size of a sparrow; length five inches three quarters. Bill black; plumage violet black, except the irides, a streak over the eye, the chin, and the vent, which are red; legs dusky grey. The female is brown where the male is black, and the red not so bright. Native of the Bahama islands, Jamaica, and the warmer parts of America.

93. *Loxia grossa*, the white-throated grosbeak. Seven inches and a half in length. Bill very stout and red; general colour of the plumage deep blue; the bill is furrounded with black, which passes downwards before, and covers the fore part of the neck; in the middle of this, on the chin and throat, is a large patch of white; legs dusky-blue colour. The female has less of the white on the chin; and this is not furrounded with black as in the male. The bills in both have a process on each side of the upper mandible, about the middle of the edges; which circumstance is not noticed in Buffon, and is more considerable than in that figured by Brisson. These specimens are in the British Museum; and are said to have come from Surinam, where they are named *corn-biters*.

94. *Loxia minima*, the dwarf grosbeak. Size of a wren. Bill very short and thick; upper parts of the plumage brown; rump and under parts testaceous; prime quills white at the base; secondaries white on the inside, towards the base; tail even; the feathers somewhat sharp at the tip, and of a pale colour. Inhabits Surinam, in South America, and is found in China and the East Indies.

95. *Loxia fusca*, the brown grosbeak. Size of a canary-bird. Bill short and thick, and of a lead-colour; the head and upper parts of the body brown; the under of a pale ash-colour; vent pure white; the quills dusky black; the base of eight of the middle quills white; tail the colour of the quills, with palish ends; legs pale. Inhabits Africa and Bengal.

96. *Loxia guttata*, the New-Holland grosbeak: brown; breast



breast black; bill and rump red; sides of the body black spotted with white. Inhabits New Holland.

97. *Loxia septentrionalis*, the northern grosbeak: wholly black, except a spot of white on the wing. Inhabits the northern parts of Europe.

98. *Loxia minuta*, the minute grosbeak. A small species. Bill stout, thick, short, brown; upper parts of the plumage grey brown; the under parts and the rump ferruginous chestnut; the fourth, fifth, and sixth, quills white at the base; legs brown. Inhabits Surinam and Cayenne. This bird is said to keep paired to its mate the whole year; frequents lands which have lain for some time uncultivated; lives both on fruits and seeds; cries like a sparrow, but sharper; makes a roundish nest, the hollow of which is two inches in diameter, composed of a reddish herb, and placed on the trees which it frequents. The female lays three or four eggs.

99. *Loxia bicolor*, the two-coloured grosbeak. About the size of a wren. Bill short, thick, and whitish; upper parts of the body brown, under parts reddish orange; legs brown. Native of India.—There is a variety of this bird found in China, with the upper parts pale brown; under parts white, inclined to ferruginous on the chin; tail rounded; legs bluish.

100. *Loxia prafina*, the red-rumped grosbeak: olive green, beneath yellowish hoary; rump red; legs yellow; (male.) Olive brown, beneath yellowish hoary; rump pale red; legs yellow; (female.) Male: bill black; tail-feathers black, the two middle ones on the upper surface, and eight on the outer edge red. Female: bill above black, beneath yellowish; wings with yellowish white bands; quill-feathers cinereous, the eight secondary on the anterior edge whitish at the tips; tail-feathers black, tipped with white. Inhabits Java; length five inches.

101. *Loxia tridactyla*, the three-toed grosbeak: feet three-toed. The bill of this species is toothed on the edges; the head, throat, and fore part of the neck, of a beautiful red, which is prolonged in a narrow band quite to the vent; the upper part of the neck, back, and tail, black; the wing-coverts brown edged with white; quills brown, with greenish edges; legs red; the toes three only, two before and one behind. This inhabits Abyssinia; frequents the woods; feeds on the kernels of nuts, which it breaks with ease with its bill; discovered by Mr. Bruce.

LOX'IAS, one of the names of Apollo.

LOX'LEY, a village near Needwood-forest, in Staffordshire.—A village in Surrey, south-east of Godalmin, towards Suffex.—A village in Warwickshire, south-east of Stratford-upon-Avon.

LOXOCARY'A, *f.* in botany. See RESTIO cinerea.

LOXODROM'IC, or LOXODROM'ICAL, *adj.* [from the Gr. λοξος, oblique, and δρομος, a course.] Belonging to oblique sailing.

LOXODROM'ICS, *f.* The art of oblique sailing, the method of sailing on the rhomb-line.

LOXOD'ROMY, *f.* The line which a ship describes in sailing on the same collateral rhomb. The loxodromy, called also the *loxodromic line*, cuts all the meridians in the same angle, called the *loxodromic angle*. This line is a species of the logarithmic spiral, described on the surface of the sphere, having the meridians for its radii.

LOXWOOD CHAPEL AND PARK, in Suffex, on the borders of Surrey, towards Awfold.

LOY, a river of Prussia, which runs into the Curisch Haff nine miles south of Rufs.

LOY'AL, *adj.* [*loy*, Fr. law.] Obedient; true to the prince.—The regard of duty in that most *loyal* nation overcame all other difficulties. *Knolles*.

*Loyal* subjects often seize their prince,  
Yet mean his sacred person not the least offence. *Dryden*.

Faithful in love; true to a lady, or lover:

Hail, wedded love! by thee

Founded in reason *loyal*, just, and pure. *Milton*.

In the manege, a horse is said to be *loyal*, that freely

bends all his force in obeying and performing any manege he is put to; and does not defend himself, or resist, notwithstanding his being ill treated. A *loyal* mouth is an excellent mouth, of the nature of such as we call mouths with a full rest upon the hand.

LOY'ALIST, *f.* One who professes uncommon adherence to his king.—The cedar, by the intigation of the *loyalists*, fell out with the Pomebians. *Howel's Vocal Forest*.

LOY'ALLY, *adv.* With fidelity; with true adherence to a king; with fidelity to a lover:

The circling year I wait, with ampler stores,  
And fitter pomp, to hail my native shores;  
Then by my realms due homage would be paid,  
For wealthy kings are *loyally* obey'd. *Pope's Odyssey*.

LOY'ALNESS, *f.* The same as LOYALTY.

LOY'ALSOCK CREEK, a river of Pennsylvania, which runs into the west branch of the Susquehanna in lat. 41.15. N. lon. 77.1. W.

LOY'ALTY, *f.* Firm and faithful adherence to a prince:

Though *loyalty*, well held, to fools does make  
Our faith mere folly; yet he that can endure  
To follow with allegiance a fall'n lord,  
Does conquer him that did his master conquer. *Shakespeare*  
Fidelity to a lady or lover.—And then end life, when I  
end *loyalty*. *Shakespeare's Mid. Night Dream*.

It has been remarked by those who consider language in connexion with manners and opinions, that, from the shades of difference which words often acquire in passing from a primary tongue to derivative ones, inferences may be deduced concerning the modes of thinking in different countries. *Leale*, *lealta*, in Italian; *loyal*, *loyaulté*, in French; have the signification of *frank*, *sincere*, *faithful*, *honest*; whereas, in English, *loyal* and *loyalty* (evidently derived from the above) are, and have long been, entirely limited to the sense of fidelity and attachment to a king; except that, by a kind of metaphor, our poets have sometimes applied them to the same affections towards a *mistress*: and these are the only meanings assigned by Johnson. Many persons were much surpris'd at the frequent use of the word *loyalty* made by the French in their public addresses when they discarded monarchy; for our newspaper translators, not knowing the true meaning of the term, long rendered it into the literal English. But the sense in which they applied it is by no means modern or republican. Indeed, it is so ancient, that it had begun to be obsolete; and the revolutionists seem to have revived it in order to throw an air of antique plainness and integrity over their proceedings. The motto of one of our old noble families says, *Loyaulté n'a honte*; i. e. "Faithfulness, honesty, incurs no shame." That such is the primitive sense, cannot be doubted. Moliere, in his *Tartuffe*, ironically names a Norman serjeant at inace, *Monfr. Loyal*; upon which one of the characters remarks, *Ce Monfr. Loyal porte un air bien déloyal*; "This Mr. Honest looks much like a knave."

It is easy to conceive how a word implying fidelity in general, should come to be exclusively applied to what might appear the highest and most important exertion of it; but who would have thought that *England* should have been the country in which every idea of faithfulness in public concerns should be sunk in exclusive devotion to the interests of a king? Does not this seem to confirm the doctrine which has been thought to obnoxious, that monarchy is the only essential part of the English constitution? For, were it in reality that mixture of different sovereign powers, or, still more, that radical sovereignty of the people which a certain party has been fond of representing it, the application of the term *loyalty* to attachment to the royal authority alone would be a high degree of incivism, if not a species of treason. In the American contest, though the supremacy of the British parliament was nominally the point at issue, yet the sovereignty of the king was really the object in view; and the terms *loyalists*









*Loye*

*Sculpt.*



LOYOLA.

*London Published as the Act directs June 1781, by G. Jones.*



*loyalist* and *royalist* were used as perfectly synonymous. At the present day, it cannot escape any observer, that *loyalty to royalty* is the great passion of the nation, and is inculcated from the bench and the pulpit as the prime public virtue, and a duty scarcely inferior to piety towards the Supreme Being. This we only mean to remark as a trait of national character; just as Virgil has done with respect to his bees:

*Præterea regem non sic Aegyptus, et ingens  
Lydia, nec populi Parthorum, aut Medus Hydaspes,  
Observant.*

Georg. iv.

Besides, not Egypt, India, Media, more  
With servile awe their idol king adore.

Dryden.

And then Dryden goes on to paint this passion of loyalty in colours which he seems to have derived from the court of Charles II. rather than from Virgil's Georgics:

The king presides, his subjects' toil surveys;  
The servile rout their careful Cæsar praise;  
Him they extol, they worship him alone;  
They crowd his levees and support his throne:  
They raise him on their shoulders with a shout;  
And, when their sovereign's quarrel calls them out,  
His foes to mortal combat they defy,  
And think it honour at his feet to die.

This is somewhat more than *insect-loyalty*; for we do not believe that any creature *without reason* would be capable of so passionate an attachment to a being of its own class, endeared by no friendship, and known by no benefits. The warm devotion attached to a mere name, in which loyalty consists (for it is transferred with the crown, and expects no particular virtues in the wearer), is a refinement of sentiment much beyond the instinctive emotions of common affection. A spaniel may lick the hand that feeds him; but a man only can set up a metaphysical idol, and pay it worship.

After all, considering the matter philologically, it may be difficult to account for this variation in the use of the word *loyalty*. Perhaps, as the French language was introduced among us in company with conquest and a high degree of monarchical power, some of its terms might acquire a more servile meaning than they possessed in their native country. It appears certain that many of our early kings had more of the regal state and authority than their contemporaries of France; and even so late as Henry VIII. and Elizabeth, more exterior homage was paid to royalty in England than (probably) in any other country in Europe. In the person of Elizabeth, the sacred character of majesty was united with the prerogatives of the sex, which, in that age, when the spirit of chivalry was not yet extinct, were of high consideration. Accordingly, she was the object of a most romantic *loyalty*, which she was wise enough to support by great real or affected regard to the welfare of her people. When the contest between monarchy and republicanism commenced under Charles I. the partisans of the first thought they could not go too far in manifesting their alienation from the second; and besides, the sufferings of the king, and his heroic conduct under them, were calculated to excite the warmest emotions in his favour. Loyalty, therefore, was renewed in all its force both as a passion and a principle; and in the breast of a cavalier took place of every public, and almost every private, affection. It required no personal favour for its support; for, as Butler, in a *serious strain*, observes,

*Loyalty* is still the same,

Whether it win or loose the game;  
True as the dial to the sun,  
Although it be not thone upon.

Shakespeare has employed it also to signify the attachment of a servant to his master. Old Adam says to Orlando, in *As you like it*,

I will follow thee

To the last gasp with truth and *loyalty*.

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We shall conclude with just suggesting, that it might, perhaps, be as well to revert to Clarendon's idea of this political virtue; for surely a more orthodox authority, with respect to monarchical principles, need not be sought. He says, speaking of a public character, "He had never any veneration for the court, but only such *loyalty* to the king as the *law* required."—Thus we have at length arrived at the point whence we ought to have set out; namely, at the true derivation of *loyalty*, from *loy*, "the law." *Loyalty*, therefore, in its primary sense, should be taken to signify "faithfulness or firm adherence to the *law*;" and *loyalist* for one who is so adherent. And, as we have *royalist* for one who is particularly devoted to a *king*, why might we not use *royalty*, in a secondary sense, to signify that devotedness, that preference of royalty to loyalty? *Monthly Mag.* Dec. 1800.

LOYANG', a town of China, of the third rank, in the province of Quang-si: twenty-five miles south of Tou-yang.

LOYAT', or LOIAT, a town of France, in the department of the Morbihan; four miles north of Ploermel, and seven east of Josselin.

LOY'DERS, a town of Prussia, in Oberland: eight miles south of Liebitatt.

LOY'ES, a town of France, in the department of the Ain: two miles north-east of Meximieux, and six south-west of Amberieu.

LOY'HA, a small island on the east side of the gulf of Bothnia. Lat. 65. 6. N. lon. 25. E.

LOY'OLA, a village of Spain, in the province of Guipuscoa, which once belonged to the family of the celebrated Ignatius, founder of the order of Jesuits, near Apeytia.

LOY'OLA, a town of South America, in the audience of Quito: fifty miles south of Loxa.

LOY'OLA (Ignatius de), founder of the order of the Jesuits, and a saint in the Romish calendar, was descended from a noble Spanish family, and born in the year 1491, at the castle of Loyola in the province of Guipuscoa, whence he took his surname, by which he is most commonly known. At an early age he was sent to the court of Ferdinand and Isabella, where he was appointed page to the king, who was pleased with his liveliness and activity, and distinguished him by marks of favour. But the indolence of a courtier's life soon became disgusting to young Loyola; and the accounts he received of the distinction acquired by his brothers, who served in the army of Naples, fired him with the love of glory, and turned the bent of his inclination towards the military profession. Having communicated his wishes to the duke de Najara, a grandee of Spain, who was his relation, that nobleman, who was himself a soldier, and reckoned one of the most accomplished cavaliers of his time, cherished the martial spirit of Loyola. With the greatest care, he himself taught him his exercises. Under the instructions of so good a master, Ignatius was soon prepared for entering the army, where he passed through different degrees of military rank, and discovered on all occasions great courage, and a strong attachment to the service, both while he was in a subordinate station and after he became a commander. His morals, which had been corrupted at court, were not reformed in the army, where he addicted himself to the licentiousness too prevalent in the military life; but at the same time he was a good officer, possessed a high sense of honour, was frank, disinterested, and generous, and was greatly beloved by the soldiers. When, in the year 1521, the citadel of Pampeluna was besieged by the French, his influence and exhortations encouraged the garrison to hold out to the last extremity, though weak and ill furnished with provisions; and when the enemy, after having made a breach with their artillery, mounted to the assault, he gallantly met them sword in hand, and repulsed them with great slaughter, till he was disabled by a severe wound in his left leg, and by a cannon-shot which in the same moment broke his right. Disheartened



at his fall, the garrison immediately surrendered at discretion; and the French used their victory with moderation. Out of respect for the valour which Loyola had displayed, they hastened to his assistance, and carried him to the quarters of their general, where his broken leg was set; and, as soon as he was in a fit state for being removed, they sent him in a litter to his native place, which was at no great distance from Pampeluna. During the progress of a lingering cure, he happened to have no other amusement than what he found in reading the lives of the saints; the effect of which on his mind, naturally enthusiastic, but ambitious and daring, was to inspire him with a desire of emulating the glory of the most celebrated among them, particularly of St. Dominic and St. Francis. See *JESUIT*, vol. x. p. 785. From this time he resolved to renounce the vanities of the world; to visit the Holy Land, and to devote himself to an austere religious life. In pursuance of this resolution, as soon as he was cured he undertook a pilgrimage to our Lady of Montserrat, to hang up his arms near her altar. Being arrived at Montserrat, he adopted a new method of consecrating himself to the service of the Virgin, borrowed from the practice in ancient chivalry of knights-errant watching their arms all night, before the day of their admission into the order. On this occasion, he stripped off his clothes, which he gave to a poor man, put on a coarse garment of sackcloth, girded himself with a cord, from which was suspended a gourd for carrying water, put a matted shoe on one foot which had not yet recovered the injury produced by his wounds, leaving the other naked and his head exposed to the violence of the weather, and substituting in the place of his lance a plain crab-tree staff. Thus equipped, he presented himself before the altar of the Virgin, hung his sword and other arms on a pillar near the altar, and watched all night, sometimes kneeling and sometimes standing, devoting himself as a champion to the service of the Virgin and of Jesus. Early on the morning, after he had gone through this ceremony, Loyola departed on foot for Manresa, three leagues from Montserrat, where he intended going through a course of penance, by way of preparation for his expedition to the Holy Land. Here he staid about a year, living chiefly with the poor of the hospital, begging his bread from door to door; occasionally retiring to a cavern in a mountain near Manresa; and for a short time inhabiting a cell in the Dominican convent. This time he spent in the most rigorous mortifications of every kind; not indulging himself with any other food but bread and water, excepting a few herbs on Sundays; fasting six days in the week; wearing a coarse hair-cloth next his skin; whipping himself three times a-day; spending seven hours every day in vocal prayer; suffering his hair and nails to grow, till he became so squalid a figure, that the boys hooted at him and pelted him whenever he made his appearance abroad; lying only on the bare ground, and permitting himself very little sleep; and enduring numerous spiritual conflicts, during which, like other superstitious and melancholy enthusiasts, he was more than once tempted to put an end to his life. At length, having persuaded himself that he had obtained a complete victory over the devil by these penances, and that God had given him a special call to convert sinners from their wickedness, he moderated his austerities; rendered his person less repulsive, by cleansing himself from his filth, and wearing a decent habit of coarse cloth; and commenced his labours of spiritual exhortation, both in private families and in public places. At Manresa also he wrote his book of Spiritual Exercises; but whether it was his own composition, or stolen from the works of others, as some Benedictines have maintained, we leave to the consideration of those readers who may deem it a subject deserving of enquiry, whom Bayle has furnished with the evidence on both sides the question. Intent, however, on his visit to Palestine, Loyola departed from Manresa in the year 1523, and embarked on-board a vessel at Barcelona,

from which he landed in five days at Gaeta. Being now in Italy, he proceeded without delay to Rome, that he might receive the pope's blessing; and, having arrived at that city on Palm-Sunday, his holiness Adrian VI. gave him his benediction, and his leave to pursue his pilgrimage to Jerusalem. From Rome he travelled on foot, begging his bread from day to day, till he arrived at Venice. Here he procured a passage to the east, and after a voyage of about six weeks arrived at Joppa on the last day of August, and at Jerusalem on the fourth of September. After visiting the scenes of our Saviour's principal transactions in that city and the surrounding country, and going through the exercises usually performed by pilgrims, Loyola formed the design of remaining in Palestine, for the purpose of devoting himself to the conversion of the inhabitants of the east. This design he communicated to the father guardian of the Franciscans, who referred him to the father provincial. That father, well knowing the danger to which an attempt at carrying such a design into execution would expose not only Loyola himself but all the Christians at Jerusalem, exercised the authority with which he was invested by a papal bull, and obliged our pilgrim to return to Europe. During his voyage on-board a vessel bound to Venice, while reflecting on the great object which he had principally at heart, that of employing himself in the work of converting sinners, he became fully sensible of his lamentable deficiency in the learning and knowledge requisite for such an undertaking. He therefore determined, though he was now about thirty-three years of age, to go through a course of studies, commencing with grammar-learning; and, as he was acquainted with the master of the public school at Barcelona, and trusted that he should be able to find the means of subsistence there, he determined to repair as speedily as possible to that city. He had therefore no sooner landed at Venice, than he proceeded without delay to Genoa, where he obtained a passage by sea to Barcelona. Here he first began to learn the rudiments of grammar, in the year 1524; and when, after much difficulty and labour, he had made so much progress as to be able to understand a Latin author, he began to read the *Enchiridion Militis Christiani* of Erasmus. But that book, in which a purity of style is united with the most sage rules of Christian morality, did not suit the fanatical taste of Loyola, who relinquished it for the study of Thomas à Kempis. Erasmus's work, he said, was like so much ice, which abated the fervour of his devotion, and cooled the fire of divine love in him; on which account he took an aversion to it, and would never read any of that author's writings, nor suffer his disciples to read them. In two years time, Loyola was judged to have made such a progress in grammar-learning, as to be qualified for entering on academic studies; and, in 1526, he went to the university of Alcalá de Henares. Here he passed through his courses of philosophy and divinity, but with little success, because, as father Maffei relates in his life, he was in too much haste, and observed no method or regularity in his studies; rendering his mind confused by attending several confessors every day, and attempting at the same time to become acquainted with rhetoric, logic, metaphysics, natural philosophy, and, above all, scholastic divinity. Besides, he was diverted from his studies by the very considerable portion of his time which he devoted to spiritual exercises and contemplations, to the service of the sick at the hospitals, to his begging excursions, and to the pious instructions and exhortations which he delivered to the people.

Loyola had now associated himself with four companions, who imitated his course of life, and went clothed, like him, in brown woollen habits. An account of their extraordinary manner of living, and of the crowds who followed to hear their exhortations, being brought to Toledo, the jealousy of the inquisitors was awakened, who instituted enquiries relative to Loyola's doctrine and behaviour;



haviour; and, having found that there was no reason for suspecting him of heresy, they referred all other matters to the discretion of the grand vicar of Alcalá. This dignity, in the first instance, only prohibited them from distinguishing themselves by their dress from the other scholars of the university. But soon afterwards, Loyola having been accused of instigating a woman of quality and her daughter to undertake a long pilgrimage bare-foot, as beggars, he was committed to prison for giving them such indiscreet advice. Hither he was followed by a great concourse of people who came to hear him. The return of the ladies, and their declaration that Loyola, so far from instigating, had dissuaded them from their pilgrimage, induced the grand-vicar to give him his liberty; but with a prohibition against continuing his exhortations to the people, till he had studied divinity four years. To this constraint Loyola was determined not to submit; and therefore removed to the university of Salamanca, where he pursued his practice of exhorting in private and public, and drew after him numerous auditors. This conduct excited the jealousy of the Dominican monks, on whose complaint against him, for intruding into the province of the clergy when he was only a simple laic, he was a second time committed to prison; and, when liberated, it was under a similar prohibitory sentence against his practice of exhortation with that pronounced at Alcalá. Mortified with being thus repeatedly silenced, he determined to quit his native country, and to repair to Paris, which was at that time the most celebrated university in Europe.

Loyola arrived at Paris in the beginning of the year 1528, with a firm resolution to pursue his studies with the utmost vigour; but his poverty, which reduced him to the necessity of lodging in the hospital of St. James, and begging his bread about the city, proved a great obstacle to his proficiency for some time. Afterwards he received assistance from some Spaniards in Flanders and England, which countries he visited during his vacation, and also from his friends at Barcelona; by which means he was enabled to provide for himself in a manner that was more reputable, as well as more favourable to his improvement. He re-commenced the study of the Latin language at Montague-college; went through a course of philosophy in the college of St. Barbara; and studied divinity under the Dominicans. His zeal, however, for instructing others, and for making converts to his practice of spiritual exercises, exposed him to trouble in Paris, as well as in the Spanish universities. Here an accusation was preferred against him before the inquisitor Matthew Ory, that without being licensed he had attempted to preach, and that by his spiritual exercises he seduced young men to neglect their duties at college; and he narrowly escaped the punishment of whipping in St. Barbara's college-hall. But, notwithstanding these checks to his zeal, he formed an association among the scholars of that college, the members of which took a vow to conform to a strict religious discipline, and to engage in a new undertaking for promoting the interests of the catholic faith, particularly by the conversion of infidels. This vow, after they had been confessed and communicated, they solemnly entered into in the church of Montmartre, on the 15th of August, 1534; and they renewed it twice in the same place, and on the same day, with the like ceremonies. Before this, upon finishing his divinity course, Loyola had been admitted to the degree of M. A. in 1532. The number of these associators was in the first instance seven, but they afterwards increased to ten. When all the members had completed their divinity course, they entered into an engagement to go in pilgrimage to Jerusalem; and, as Loyola found it expedient to pay a visit to Spain, for the settlement of some affairs, they agreed to meet him at Venice, at an appointed time, in order to embark for the Holy Land. When in Spain, Loyola went about the country preaching repentance, and drew together a prodigious crowd of auditors.

Among other things, he exclaimed against the fornication of priests, which was almost grown to be no scandal at that time; and by his representations procured severe laws to be enacted against gaming, and the concubinage of the regular clergy. He also recommended rules for the reformation of general manners, which are said to have been followed by good effects on public morals, and the increase of piety. Not forgetful, however, of the engagement with his companions, he took leave of his native country, and went by sea to Genoa; whence he travelled by land to Venice, and met them there in January 1537. They now prepared for their voyage to the east; but, before they embarked, they conceived that they ought to obtain the leave and benediction of the pope. They all of them, therefore, went to Rome, excepting Loyola, who had formerly received the papal license and blessing; and, having readily obtained what they asked of the pope, as well as permission for their being ordained priests, they returned to Venice. During his residence in this city, Loyola, formed an acquaintance with John-Peter Caraffa, afterwards pope by the name of Paul IV. After having been admitted into priests' orders, Loyola and his companions were desirous of proceeding immediately on their pilgrimage, when the breaking-out of war between the Turks and Venetians created an insurmountable obstacle to their undertaking. Thus circumstanced, they resolved to disperse themselves throughout the cities of the Venetian state, for the purpose of promoting a reformation of manners by their preaching and spiritual exercises; and that Loyola and two others should go to Rome, to offer their services to the pope in that employment.

Before the companions separated, they agreed to observe an uniform mode of life, under the following regulations: that they should lodge in hospitals, and subsist only upon alms; that, where several of them were together, they should be superiors by turns, each in his week, left their fervour should carry them too far, were they not to prescribe limits to one another in their penance and labours; that they should preach in public places, and in every other place where they could obtain permission, recommending the beauty and rewards of virtue, and pointing out the deformity and punishments of vice, and this in a simple evangelical manner, without the vain ornaments of eloquence; that they should instruct children in the Christian doctrine, and the principles of right conduct; and that they should receive no money for exercising their functions, but be governed in all their proceedings purely by a view to the glory of God. To these regulations they all consented; and, as it might be expected that they would often be asked questions concerning their denomination, and their institute, Loyola intrusted them to answer, that, having united to combat heresies and vices under the standard of Jesus Christ, they had no other name by which to distinguish themselves than that of "The Company of Jesus." This, it is said, was in consequence of a vision wherewith Loyola was favoured; in which God the Father appeared to him visibly, and desired his son Jesus Christ, who was loaded with a heavy cross, to take a special care both of him and his companions. Christ promised he would not fail, and said to Ignatius, *Ego vobis Romæ propitijs ero*; "I will be propitious to you at Rome." This made them take the name of the Company of Jesus, because the Eternal Father had given them (they say) for companions to his Son, who received them as such. See the annexed Plate.

Loyola arrived at Rome towards the end of the year 1537, and was introduced to pope Paul III. who received him very favourably, and encouraged him to proceed with zeal and vigour in his plan for reformation. Soon afterwards Loyola projected the institution of a new religious order, and summoned his companions to Rome, from the different places in which they were dispersed, that he might consult with them on the subject. After several meetings, they acceded to the plan proposed by him; the outlines of which were, that, to the vows of poverty and chastity, which



which they had already taken, they should add that of obedience; that a superior-general should be elected, to whom they must submit as to God himself; that they should readily and cheerfully undertake the missions to which he might appoint them, living upon alms, if he should so require; that the professed should possess nothing, either in particular or in common; but that in the universities they might have colleges, with revenues and rents for the subsistence of students. This plan Loyola laid before pope Paul III. and applied to him for the confirmation of the new society. The obstacles that intervened, and how they were removed, have been noticed under the article JESUIT, vol. x. p. 785. The papal bull for the establishment of the order, under the name of the Company or Society of Jesus, was granted in the year 1540, limiting the number of the professed to sixty; but, by a second bull in 1543, the society was empowered to extend the number of members without any restriction, and to enact particular statutes, or to alter the original ones, as circumstances might render it expedient. Loyola was created general of the order in the year 1541, and established his head-quarters at Rome, whence his companions were sent on missions into every part of the world.

Besides conducting the government of the society, Loyola employed himself in several occupations, particularly the conversion of the Jews. Some Jews who were baptized he maintained in the house of the Jesuits, and by his solicitations obtained an order from his holiness, that all Jews who became converts to Christianity should be provided for in a house appointed for that purpose. At his request, pope Paul III. enacted that they should preserve all their possessions; unjustly decreeing at the same time, that, if any of them who were well descended should turn Christians contrary to their parents' will, the whole property of the family should devolve to them. Popes Julius III. and Paul IV. afterwards added a new ordinance, namely, that all the synagogues in Italy should be taxed every year in a certain sum, to be applied to the maintenance of the profelytes. Loyola also extended his attention and zeal to the reformation of common prostitutes, and other lewd women. There was at this time in Rome a convent of Magdalenists, into which such dissolute women were admitted as were desirous of leaving their abandoned courses, provided they would oblige themselves to lead a conventual life during the remainder of their days, and take all the vows of the order. This condition Loyola justly conceived to be too severe, and calculated to prevent the good effects which had been expected from the founding of this convent. He therefore founded a new community, for the admission of such single or married women as were willing to renounce criminal pleasures, without bidding adieu to those of an honest and virtuous kind. It was called "The Community of the Grace of the Blessed Virgin," and occupied apartments built in St. Martin's church, to which Loyola conducted several women himself; and, when he was sometimes told, that the labour which he took for the conversion of those prostitutes was all to no purpose, since they were hardened in iniquity, and would return to their bad courses, he replied, that he should think his time well employed, if he could prevent them but one night from offending God. Calumny, we are informed, now levelled all her artillery at him; and the Jesuits in general were accused by their enemies of so many crimes, that the inhabitants of Rome became highly prejudiced against them, and they could scarcely appear in any place without meeting with persons who insulted and cursed them. In these circumstances Loyola petitioned the pope to appoint commissioners, for the purpose of examining these accusations; and by the governor and sub-governor of Rome they were pronounced to be malignant calumnies. Like most other founders of religious orders, Loyola had some female devotees, who assiduously attended him; but he did not permit convents of nuns to be founded who should follow his rule; and, when some females had obtained leave from the pope to

take the same vow with the Jesuits, he found so much inconvenience arising from their spiritual direction, that he applied to his holiness, who was so far influenced by his representations, that he exonerated the order from that perplexing task.

Soon after the accession of pope Julius III. in 1550, having obtained the confirmation of his order anew by that pontiff, Loyola was desirous of resigning his office of general; but the society would not consent to such a measure, and he retained it till his death, which took place in 1556, when he was in the sixty-sixth year of his age. Before that event, he had seen his order spread over the greatest part of the old and new worlds, and in the short space of sixteen years forming twelve large provinces, containing at least an hundred colleges. Loyola was in person of a middle stature, and of an olive complexion, with a bald head, eyes full of fire, a large forehead, and an aquiline nose. He was a little lame in consequence of the wound which he received at Pampeluna, though that defect was scarcely perceivable as he walked. Of fanaticism he had an abundant portion in his composition; and seems to have persuaded himself into a firm belief, that, as he gave out, and his followers afterwards taught, the plan which he formed of the constitution and laws of his society was suggested to him by the immediate inspiration of Heaven. But on him cannot be charged the worldliness and intrigues of the Jesuits. He declared, that, if he had four companions detached from all worldly interests, he would not despair of being able to convert the whole world. (Gent. Mag. i. 152.) In 1609, pope Paul V. beatified him; and, in 1622, he was canonized by Gregory XV. Innocent X. gave orders that he should have an ecclesiastical office said in his honour throughout the world, under the semi-double rite, in 1644; and Clement IX. raised it to the double rite in 1667.

But, whatever might be the honours which were paid to Loyola, the most surprising to which his history engages our attention, is the prodigious influence and power which his order acquired in a few years, both in the old world and in America, notwithstanding the opposition which it met with from his adversaries. In the year 1608, sixty-eight years after their first institution, the number of Jesuits had increased to 10,581. In the year 1710, the order possessed twenty-four *professed* houses; fifty-nine houses of probation; three hundred and forty residences; six hundred and twelve colleges; two hundred missions; one hundred and fifty seminaries and boarding-schools; and consisted of 19,998 persons. Of this formidable body, the constitution, genius, progress, and effects, are highly interesting objects; and under the article JESUIT, before quoted, we thought we had pursued the history of this formidable society to its *final* close. No sooner, however, is Pius VII. restored to power, than he issues a bull, by which the order is formally re-established. The following is an account of this curious transaction. On the 7th of August last, (1814.) the pope celebrated high mass at the altar of St. Ignatius, in the church of Jesus at Rome; and afterwards, ascending a throne, ordered a bull to be read, re-establishing the Order of Jesuits. The motives which his holiness assigns for this act are as singular, as the act itself is important. He had been called upon some thirteen years ago by the emperor Paul of Russia; and king Ferdinand of Naples, (the first professing the Greek faith, and unquestionably out of his mind; the latter acknowledged to be of imbecile understanding), to allow of the establishment of the Jesuits in their dominions; and, having kindly condescended to grant their request, he now distrusts that which their *enlightened* minds esteemed so great a blessing, over the rest of Europe. The bull says, "The catholic world demands, with one unanimous voice, the re-establishment of the Company of Jesus; and we daily receive pressing petitions from the archbishops and bishops to that effect." The bull re-establishes the order of Jesuits by name in the empire of Russia, in the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, the Ecclesiastical States, and all other



other states; constitutes Taddeo Barzozowski, *ad interim*, General of the Company of Jesus; lawfully delegates to him and the other members of the company all suitable and necessary powers, to receive and distribute those who may wish to enter the order among the different colleges, where they shall conform their mode of life to the rules prescribed by St. Ignatius of Loyola. It also declares, that they "may freely and lawfully apply to the education of youth in the principles of the Catholic faith, and to direct colleges and seminaries; likewise hear confessions, preach the word of God, and administer the sacraments in the places of their residence." The most offensive passage is in the conclusion; it presents a clear view of the pope's pretensions: "We ordain, that the present letters be inviolably observed, according to their form and tenour, in all time coming; that they enjoy their full and entire effect; that they shall never be submitted to the judgment or revision of any judge, with whatever power he may be clothed." Again; "Should any one attempt to infringe, or by an audacious temerity oppose, any part of this ordinance, let him know that he will thereby incur the indignation of Almighty God, and of the holy apostles Peter and Paul." Thus the pope, whose firmness was admired even by his persecutors while he was at Fontainebleau, has entirely lost his credit since he has proceeded to re-establish the Jesuits and persecute the Freemasons. The emperor of Germany, however, is not convinced, like the pope, of the necessity of recalling the Jesuits. The holy father made several ineffectual attempts to obtain their re-establishment in the Austrian states. His majesty gave a decided refusal. We trust the king of France will do the same; and, as to Russia, it is to be remembered, that Paul does not reign there at present. In Spain and Portugal, it is most likely the Jesuits will be cordially received: they had always been the chief directors of the Inquisition, now so happily restored by Ferdinand the Beloved.—*Robertson's Hist. of Cha. V. Emilianna's Hist. of the Monastic Orders. Gent. Mag. Apr. 1731. and Sept. 1814.*

LOYUNG', a town of China, of the third rank, in the province of Quang-si: seventeen miles north-east of Lieou-tcheou.

LOZAY', a town of France, in the department of the Lower Charente: six miles north of St. Jean d'Angely, and eighteen east-north-east of Rochefort.

LO'ZE, a river of Lunenburg, which runs into the Elbe at Harburg.

LO'ZE, a river of Congo, which runs into the Atlantic. It is navigable for boats, but there is no harbour at its mouth. Lat. 7. 55. S.

LOZ'ENGE, *f.* [*lofenge*, Fr.] A rhomb.—The best builders resolve upon rectangular squares, as a mean between too few and too many angles; and, through the equal inclination of the sides, they are stronger than the rhomb or *lofenge*. *Wotton's Architecture*.—A form of a medicine made into small pieces, to be held or chewed in the mouth till melted or wasted. A cake of preserved fruit. Both these are so denominated from the original form, which was rhomboidal.

LOZENGE, in heraldry, a four-cornered figure resembling a pane of glass in old casements. Though all heralds agree, that single ladies are to place their arms on lozenges, (see *HERALDRY*, vol. ix. p. 427, 435. and Plate I. XVI. XXXIX. XLVII. CVII.) yet they differ with respect to the causes that gave rise to it. Plutarch says, in the life of Theseus, that in Megara, an ancient town of Greece, the tomb-stones, under which the bodies of the Amazons lay, were shaped after that form; which some conjecture to be the cause why ladies have their arms on lozenges. Petra Sancta will have this shield to represent a cushion, whereupon women used to sit and spin, or do other housewifery. Sir J. Ferne thinks it is formed from the shield called *teffera*, which the Romans, finding unfit for war, did allow to women to place their ensigns

upon, with one of its angles always uppermost. Others say it was the ancient figure of the spindle.

LOZENGE', or LOZ'ENGY, *adj.* See *HERALDRY*, vol. ix. p. 422.

LOZE'RE, a department of France, bounded on the north by the departments of the Cantal and Upper Loire, on the east by the Ardèche, on the south by the Gard, and on the west by the Aveyron and Cantal; about fifty-five miles long; and thirty-three wide. It derives its name from a ridge of mountains, about twelve miles south-east from Mendé. Mendé is the capital.

LOZIO'ZE, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Bielsk: fifty-six miles south-west of Bielsk.

LOZ'SNITZ. See *LOSSNITZ*, p. 674.

LOZ'ZI, a town of the island of Corfica: eleven miles north-west of Corte.

LOZ'ZO, a town of Italy, in the Paduan: eight miles south-south-west of Padua.

LU, a town of France, in the department of Marengo: eight miles south of Casale, and eight west of Alexandria.

LU, a city of China, of the second rank, in Chantong: three hundred miles south-south-east of Pekin. Lat. 35. 36. N. lon. 119. E.

LU, *f.* [see *LOO*, p. 630.] A game at cards:

Ev'n mighty pam, who kings and queens o'erthrew,  
And mow'd down armies in the fights of *lu*. *Pope.*

LU, *f.* in Chinese music, implies a key. Dividing the octave into twelve semitones, they give the name of *lu* to each, numerically.

LU-KI', a city of China, in Hou-quang. Lat. 59. 22. N. lon. 108. 42. E.

LU-KI', a city of China, in the province of Kiang-si. Lat. 27. 43. N. lon. 116. 18. E.

LU-NAN', a fortress of China, in the province of Yunnan. Lat. 24. 31. N. lon. 102. 39. E.

LU'A, a river of the island of Cuba, which runs into the sea twenty-five miles north-east of Cape Cruz.

LU'A, a town of Arabia, in the province of Oman, on the coast: ten miles north of Sohar.

LU'A, in mythology, a Roman divinity mentioned by Livy, lib. viii. and invoked in war: the name is supposed to be derived from *luere*, to expiate.—A goddess at Rome, who presided over things which were purified by lustrations, whence the name, *à luendo*.

LUA'BO, a river of Africa, which branches off from the Zambeze, and runs into the Atlantic in lat. 19. S.

LUA'BO, an island on the west coast of Africa, between the mouths of the rivers Luabo and Zambeze.

LUA'NA POINT, a cape of the island of Jamaica, on the south coast. Lat. 18. 2. N. lon. 77. 51. W.

LUAN'CO, a town of Spain, in Asturia, near the west coast: twenty miles north of Oviedo.

LUAN'ZA, a town of Africa, in the country of Morcaranga. Lat. 17. 15. S. lon. 32. 30. E.

LUAR'CA, a town of Spain, on the north coast, in the province of Asturia: thirty miles north-west of Oviedo.

LU'BAD, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia, on a lake to which it gives name: seven miles south of Burfa.

LU'BAD, a lake of Natolia: twenty-one miles long, and four broad; south of Burfa.

LU'BAN, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Novogrodek: twenty miles south-east of Sluck.

LU'BAN, or LOU'BAN, one of the Philippine Islands, in the Eastern Indian Sea, about twelve miles in circumference; subject to the Spaniards.

LU'BAN. See *LAUBAN*, vol. xii. p. 286.

LUBAR'TOW, a town of Poland, in Volhynia: thirty-six miles west of Berdiczow.

LUBAS'ZYN, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Minsk: fifty-two miles east of Minsk.

LU'BAT, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia: twenty-eight miles west of Burfa.



LUBATCH'OW, a town of Austrian Poland, in Galicia: sixteen miles north of Lemberg, and seventy-five south-south-east of Lublin.

LUB'BARD, *f.* A lazy sturdy fellow:

Yet their wine and their victuals those curmudgeon *lubbards* Lock up from my sight, in cellars and cupboards. *Swift.*

LUB'BERT (Sibrand), a learned Dutch Calvinist divine, was born at Langoworde in Friesland, about the year 1556. After studying polite learning in the college of Bremen, he removed to the university of Wittemberg, where he distinguished himself by his application and proficiency, particularly in his acquaintance with the Hebrew language. Afterwards he went to Geneva, and diligently attended the lectures of Beza, Casaubon, and Francis Portus. From Geneva he went to Newstadt, to which place prince Casimir had removed the professors of the reformed religion. When he was prepared for entering on the ministerial profession, he was invited to undertake the pastoral care by the reformed church at Brussels, and by that of Embden. He accepted of the offer of the latter, and discharged the duties of his post with great fidelity and zeal. In the year 1584, he accepted of an invitation, to remove into Friesland, where he was appointed preacher to the governor and to the deputies of the states of that province, and also professor of divinity in the new university of Franeker. On this occasion he went to Heidelberg, where he was admitted to the degree of doctor of divinity; and then returned to his professorship, which he occupied with reputation for nearly forty years, during which period he was often employed in very important affairs. He was one of the deputies to the synod of Dort, and one of the wisest and most learned men of the anti-remonstrant party in that assembly. In the university, he was a strict observer of the statutes; and frequently refused the rectorship, on account of the remissness in discipline which had been suffered to take place, and which he was fearful he should not be able to controul. A year before his death, however, he was prevailed upon by intreaties and solicitations to accept of that dignity, there being a probability that the authority of the sovereign would support his measures for promoting reformation and order. He died at Franeker in 1625, about the age of sixty-nine. He was the author of several learned and esteemed treatises against Bellarmine, and his second, Gretzer, in the controversies relating to the scriptures, the pope, the church, and the councils. He also published a work against Socinus, entitled *De Christo Salvatore*; and he exerted his pen against Arminius, Vorstius, Grotius, and the other assertors of the cause of the remonstrants. The last work which he published, was A Commentary on the Catechism of Heidelberg. Even Scaliger himself, who scarcely gave any person a good word, acknowledged that he was a learned man. *Bayle.*

LUB'BECKE, or LUTHICKE, a town of Westphalia, in the county of Minden, consisting of about 258 dwelling-houses; and which, ever since the year 1270, when it obtained the privileges of a city, has been environed with ramparts, ditches, and walls. This place enjoys considerable immunities, and in particular the territorial jurisdiction over a considerable district. Its magistracy is possessed of the civil and criminal jurisdiction in the first instance. The chief trade is in yarn and linen, breeding cattle, and brewing beer. The town was wholly destroyed by fire in the years 1368 and 1519, as also almost one half of it in 1705; and in 1734 it likewise sustained great damage by the same dreadful calamity. It is fourteen miles west of Minden.

LUB'BEN, or LU'BNO, a town of Lower Lusatia, in a circle to which it gives name, on the Spree: thirty-six miles south of Berlin, and fifty-four north of Dresden. Lat. 51. 57. N. lon. 13. 45. E.

LUB'BER, *f.* [from *lubber*, said by Junius to signify in Danish *fat*.] A sturdy drone; an idle, fat, bulky, lovel; a booby.—These chase the smaller shoals of fish from the

main sea into the havens, leaping up and down, puffing like a fat *lubber* out of breath. *Carew.*

Venétians do me more uncouthly ride

Than did your *lubber* state mankind bespide. *Dryden.*

LUB'BERLY, *adj.* Lazy and bulky.—I came to Eaton to marry Mrs. Anne Page; and she's a great *lubberly* boy. *Shakespeare.*

LUB'BERLY, *adv.* Awkwardly; clumsily.—Merry Andrew on the low rope copies *lubberly* the same tricks which his master is so dexterously performing on the high. *Dryden.*

LUB' CZ, a town of Russian Lithuania: twenty-five miles north of Novogrodek.

LU'BEC, a city of Germany, situated within the limits of Holstein, on the river Trave, which is a navigable river, and above the city receives the Steckenitz, another navigable stream, by means of which it communicates with the Elbe; and below is the Wackenitz, which is likewise navigable, and issues from the Lake of Ratzeburg. After joining the Sewartau in its progress, this river falls into the Baltic. By means of these several streams, long and flat-bottomed vessels pass from the Baltic along the Trave, the Steckenitz, and the Elbe, into the German Ocean. The town stands on the two sides of a long hill, of a moderate height, the eastern part extending itself, down the declivity towards the Wackenitz, as the western does towards the Trave. Exclusive of walls and towers, it is farther surrounded with strong ramparts, and to these has the addition of wide moats. The streets are for the most part steep, and the houses all of stone, and old fashioned. Ever since the year 1530, Lutheranism has been the established religion of the place. Besides the cathedral of an ancient see, it has also four parochial churches. This city was the head of the Hanse-towns; and in the town-house is a large hall, called *Hanse-saal*, where their deputies used to meet. See HANSEATIC LEAGUE, vol. ix. On the spot where the city now stands, was formerly a town named *Bucu*; on the demolition of which, about the year 1144, Adolphus II. count of Holstein and Schauenburg, laid the first foundations of the celebrated city of Lubec. Its speedy increase, and the resort thither of all the merchants from Bardewick, created such umbrage to Henry the Lion duke of Saxony, that he gave orders that nothing should be sold at this place but provisions. In 1156, Lubec being burnt down, duke Henry, after a long negotiation, prevailed on count Adolphus to give him the town; which having rebuilt, he erected it into a free port; and, in 1158, conferred on it the stadtrecht, or municipal right, which took its rise from Seest, and was then become very famous. This right was confirmed to it, in 1183, by the emperor Frederick I. and, in 1226, by Frederick II. and afterwards by the succeeding emperors. In 1276, the whole city was destroyed by fire, five houses only excepted. In the matricula of the empire, its contingent was 480 florins; and to the chamber of Wetzlar it paid 557 rix-dollars, and 88 kruitzers. Its see was first erected by the emperor Otho I. at Oldenburg, a city of Holstein, in the year 951, for the conversion of the Wends, who inhabited this country, and removed to Lubec in the year 1164. The reformation of the diocese was begun under bishop Henry of Bo-cholt, and, being forwarded by his successor, Detley, of Reventlau, who was promoted to the see in 1535, as also by the succeeding protestant bishop, it was accomplished in 1561. The bishop of Lubec, though a prince of the empire, yet in the college of princes sat neither on the spiritual nor temporal bench, but on a particular one placed crosswise, and laid there purely for him and the bishop of Osnabruck, when a Lutheran. He had also a vote among the princes of the circle of Lower Saxony. The cathedral stands in the imperial city of Lubec, where however, it is invested with no manner of authority. The chapter consists of thirty persons, who, four Roman catholics excepted, are all Lutherans.



At the settling the indemnities at Ratisbon in 1802, it was decreed that the bishopric with its chapter should be secularised in favour of the duke of Oldenburg; reserving only the property within the city, which was to be added to the domain of the city. In the *definitive* treaty of indemnities, Feb. 25, 1803, it was again acknowledged as one of the three cities of the Hanseatic League, (together with Hamburg and Bremen,) with the guarantee of their jurisdiction and *perpetual neutrality*. However, when Bonaparte over-ran the Prussian dominions in 1806, Lubec fell entirely into the hands of the French, and the inhabitants were cruelly plundered, and many of them massacred. On the 1st of January, 1811, Lubec, Bremen, and Hamburg, were formally annexed to the French empire; and Davoust was appointed governor-general of the Hanse-towns and the districts thereto appertaining. In gratitude for these benefits, they sent a deputation to Paris to wait on the emperor, who, being admitted into the imperial presence on Sunday the 17th of March, 1811, Mr. Doorman, as president of the deputation, presented an address, from which we shall extract a few passages.

"Sire; At all times we have been Frenchmen in our hearts, and from preference. If the anarchy which preceded your majesty's reign, relaxed, for a moment, ties of such long standing and so agreeable, we hastened to draw them closer the instant your accession to power re-assured to the world social order; and your new subjects, sire, cannot swear to be more faithful to you than they have shown themselves to be for these ten years past; more devoted to your pleasure, more obedient to your system, nor more disposed to contribute to the accomplishment of your designs, by every effort and sacrifice in their power; and it is a pleasing consolation to the honourable remembrances of our country, to reflect, that our independence could yield only to him to whom every thing has yielded, and that our political existence was to cease only at that epoch when the destinies had determined that the Tiber and the Elbe should flow under the same laws. If your majesty, from that devoted point whence you take a view of human affairs, permit our feebleness to indulge in any degree of pride, we still venture to think that we enter not as a vulgar territory, as an obscure acquisition, into that immense circle of provinces, struck with admiration, and happy in obeying a single master."

We shall, in like manner, give a few passages from the reply of his majesty the Emperor and King.

"Gentlemen, Deputies of the Hanse Towns of Hamburg, Bremen, and Lubec; You formed part of the Germanic empire; your constitution terminated with its existence. Since that time your situation was uncertain. I intended to re-constitute your cities under an independent administration, when the changes produced in the world by the new laws of the British council rendered the project impracticable. It was impossible for me to give you an independent administration, since you could no longer have an independent flag. Your union with the empire is the necessary result of the British laws in 1806 and 1807, and not the effect of any ambitious calculation. In my civil laws you will find a protection, which, in your maritime position, you can no longer find in the political code. That maritime commerce, which constituted your prosperity, cannot henceforth be revived, but in conjunction with the restoration of my maritime power. The rights of nations, the liberty of the seas, and a general peace, must be re-conquered at one and the same time. When I shall have upwards of 100 sail of the line, I shall subjugate England in a few campaigns. The seamen of your coasts, and the materials conveyed to the mouths of your rivers, are necessary to my purpose. France, within her old limits, could not construct a marine in time of war. When her coasts were blockaded, she was compelled to receive the law. Now, from the increase my empire has received within the last six years, I can build, equip, and arm, twenty-five sail of the line yearly, without the slightest delay or obstruction from the existence of a ma-

ritime war. The accounts that have been given me of the good disposition which animates your fellow-citizens have afforded me pleasure; and I hope, in a short time, to have to praise the zeal and bravery of your seamen."

The above extracts will certainly be read with marked attention and curiosity at the present day; and deserve to remain upon record.—Lubec was taken by the allies (Swedes, Russians, and Austrians) on the 5th of December, 1813. Its fate remains to be decided by the Congress at Vienna, which is daily expected to open (Dec. 1814.) for the *definitive* adjustment of that and many other most important interests. Lat. 53. 52. N. lon. 10. 40. E.

LU'BEĆ, or LUBOI, an island in the Eastern Indian Ocean, near the island of Madura. Lat. 5. 45. N. lon. 112. 44. E.

LU'BEN, a town of Silesia, in the principality of Lignitz; the town itself is small, but the suburbs are large: here is a Lutheran college. It is twelve miles north of Lignitz, and eighteen west of Wohlau. Lat. 51. 22. N. lon. 16. 15. E.

LU'BENAU, or LUB'NOW, a town of Lower Lusatia, in the circle of Calau, on a small river which runs into the Spree, the chief place of a barony, with a chateau: fifteen miles south-south-east of Lubben, and fifty north of Dresden. Lat. 51. 53. N. lon. 13. 52. E.

LU'BENAU. See LIEBENAU, vol. xii.

LU'BENTHAL. See LIEBENTHAL, vol. xii.

LU'BERSAC, a town of France, in the department of the Corrze: eight miles west of Uzerche, and twenty-one north-west of Tulle.

LU'BIEN, a town of the duchy of Warsaw: twenty-six miles south-south-west of Posen.

LUBIENIETZ/KI (Stanislaus), a celebrated Polish Unitarian minister, was descended from a noble family, related to the house of Sobieski, and born at Racow in the year 1623. His father, who was minister of that city, educated him with particular care, and not only sent him to the public schools, but took him to the diets of Poland, in order that he might introduce him to the *grandeess*, and instruct him in every thing that was suitable to his birth. Afterwards our young scholar was sent to Thorn, where he continued two years, and joined the two Socinian deputies who were sent to that city in 1644, during a conference which was held on the subject of a re-union of religions, and of which he drew up an account. About the year 1648, he was admitted into the ministry by the synod of Czarcow, and appointed pastor of a church of that name. This situation he was obliged to quit in 1655, upon the irruption of the Swedes into that neighbourhood; and in the following year he retired with his family to Cracow. Here he employed much of his time with the other ministers, in frequent fasting, prayer, and preaching; and for the benefit of the Hungarian Unitarians, who came thither with prince Ragotki, he frequently preached in the Latin language. While he continued at Cracow he was much noticed by the king of Sweden, who did him the honour of admitting him to his table. After that city fell again into the hands of the Poles, in 1657, he followed the Swedish garrison, with two other Unitarians, to supplicate that they and their friends of the same religious persuasion, who had placed themselves under his protection, might be comprehended in the amnesty to be granted at the conclusion of the peace with Poland. This was not granted; and, finding that there was no hope of remaining in safety in his native country, he went to Copenhagen, in 1660, to seek an asylum from the king of Denmark for his persecuted brethren, who had been banished from Poland. He received kind treatment from his majesty, who could do nothing more than promise to connive at their settlement at Altona. Thus circumstanced, he thought it advisable to return to Pomerania, and arrived at Stettin in 1661. Persecution followed him to this place, and he was obliged to remove to Hamburg, where he directed his family to join him in the year 1662; from this city he was driven by the same



same fiend in 1667, and took refuge again at Copenhagen. During this second visit to Denmark, he was led to indulge the hope, that he had at length a prospect of a peaceful settlement; for the magistrates of Fredericburg consented that the Unitarians should reside in their town, and enjoy without molestation the private exercise of their religion. Upon this he removed to that city, and invited his banished brethren to join him; sparing no pains nor cost, to the great injury of his own estate, that he might settle and provide for them there. The enemies of the Unitarians, however, soon pursued them into this hospitable retreat from persecution. As the duke of Holstein-Gottorp, to whose territory Fredericburg belonged, had not given his formal consent to the settlement of the unitarian refugees in that place, he was persuaded to publish an edict, by which they were banished from that city, and from every part of his dominions. In this emergency, Lubienietzki ventured to repair once more to Hamburgh, where the intercession of the king of Denmark with the magistrates induced them for some time to connive at his residence. But the intolerant zeal of the Lutheran ministers would not suffer him to remain long in peace; and, by their incessant solicitations, the magistrates were at last prevailed upon to issue an injunction for his departure from their jurisdiction. He was then sick, but promised to obey them as speedily as possible. Some wicked enemy, however, to make sure of his destruction, contrived that poison should be administered to him in his food, to which two of his daughters, as well as himself, fell a sacrifice, while his wife, who had eaten very sparingly, narrowly escaped the same fate. He died in 1675, about the age of fifty-two, and was buried in the church of Altena, notwithstanding the opposition of the Lutheran clergy, who, like their persecuting prototypes in the church of Rome, were desirous of pursuing him to the grave, and treating what they were pleased to term a heretic's corpse with marks of infamy. Before his death, he had the satisfaction of having obtained for his banished brethren a retreat at Manheim, under the protection of the Elector Palatine, who is styled the most latitudinarian prince at that time in the world, and who is certainly entitled to the honour of being the most tolerant. Lubienietzki wrote a vast number of books, the greater number of which has not been committed to the press. The titles of them may be seen in Sandius's *Bibliotheca Antitrinitariorum*, p. 165, &c. The most considerable of his published works shows him to have been well skilled in astronomy, and is entitled, *Theatrum Cometicum*, &c. in 2 vols. folio, 1667. It is a most elaborate performance, and contains a minute historical account of every single comet which had been seen or recorded from the deluge to the year 1665. At the time of his death, he was engaged in writing a History of the Reformation in Poland; of which all that was found among his papers was printed in Holland in 1685, in 8vo. with an account of the author's life prefixed to it. *Bayle*, *Hutton's Math. Dict.*

LU'BIM, [Hebrew.] A man's name.

LU'BIMS, the descendants of Lubim.

LU'BIN (Augustine), a learned French Augustine monk and able geographer, was born at Paris in the year 1624. He entered at an early age among the religious of the reformed order of St. Augustine; and, applying with great diligence to his studies, distinguished himself by his proficiency, particularly in ancient and modern geography, and in sacred and profane history. His scientific skill was rewarded with the post of geographer to the king. He died in a convent belonging to his order at Paris in 1695, when he was in the seventy-second year of his age. He enriched the republic of letters with several works, which, if they are not recommended by the graces of style, abound in useful and curious researches, and are monuments of the erudition of the author. They consist of, 1. *Martyrologium Romanum, cum Tabulis Geographicis et Notis Historicis*, 4to. 1660. 2. *Tabulæ Sacræ Geogra-*

*phicæ, five Notitia antiqua, medii temporis, et nova, Nominum utriusque Testamenti ad Geographiam pertinentium*, 8vo. 1670, forming a dictionary of all the places mentioned in the Bible. 3. Geographical Tables, drawn up to illustrate the abbé Tallemant's translation of the Lives of Plutarch from the original Greek; 12mo. 1670. 4. A Sequel to the Key of the grand Register of the French Benefices; containing the Names of Abbays, and their Founders, their Situation, &c. 12mo. 1671. 5. An Account of the Abbays in Italy; 4to. in Latin. 6. *Orbis Augustinianus, five Conventuum Ordinis Eremitarum S. Augustini Chorographica et Topographica Descriptio*; with a number of maps and designs engraved by the author; 12mo. 1672. 7. *Index Geographicus, five in Anales Ufferianos Tabulæ et Observationes Geographicæ*; prefixed to an edition of Uther, printed at Paris in 1673, folio. 8. History of Lapland, translated from Scheffer; 4to. 1678. 9. *The Geographical Mercury, or Guide to the Curious in Maps*; 12mo. 1678. which, though a work of value when it was first published, is obviously not adapted to modern times. *Moreri*.

LU'BIN (Eilhard), a theologian and philologist, was born in 1565, at Welterstedt, in the county of Oldenburg, of which place his father was minister. He studied at several German universities, and acquired an exact knowledge of the Greek language, with the branches of science usually taught in those seminaries. He was appointed professor of poetry at Rostock in 1595, and of theology ten years afterwards. He was twice married; and died in 1621. He made himself known by several philological publications, of which were, 1. *Antiquarius, five Priscorum et minus Usitatorum Vocabulorum Brevis Interpretatio*. 2. *Clavis Linguæ Græcæ, five Vocabula Latino-Græca*. 3. Editions of Anacreon, Juvenal, and Persius, with notes. 4. Horace and Juvenal, with a paraphrase. 5. *The Anthologia, with a Latin version*. 6. *Epistolæ veterum Græcorum, Gr. et Lat.* 7. *The Dionysiacs of Nonnus, Gr. and Lat.* 8. Commentaries on the Epistles of St. Paul. 9. *Monotessaron*, being a harmony of the evangelists. His Latin poems are printed in the third volume of the *Deliciæ Poetar. German.* The work, however, by which he obtained most fame in his life, though now forgotten, was a treatise on the origin of evil, entitled, "*Phosphorus, de Prima Causa et Natura Mali, Tractatus Hypermetaphysicus*." The hypothesis he proposed was that of two co-eternal principles, God and Nothing, of which the latter stood in the place of the evil principle of the Manicheans and other theorists. To those who are conversant in the history of metaphysical controversies, it will not appear extraordinary that this unintelligible system had its opponents and defenders. *Bayle*.

LUBINIA, *f.* [so named by Commerçon, in honour of his friend the chevalier de *St. Lubin*, who distinguished himself at the siege of Madras, and was, in the confidence of Hyder Ali.] In botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order lysimachia, *Juss.* The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium in five deep, ovate, rather unequal, inferior, segments, with membranous edges, permanent. Corolla: of one petal, nearly salver-shaped, slightly irregular; tube funnel-shaped, the length of the calyx; limb in five deep obtuse segments, the two lowermost rather the smallest. Stamina: filaments five, awl-shaped, inserted into the lower part of the corolla, equal, the length of the tube; anthers erect, oval, two-lobed. Pistillum: germen superior, almost globular, smooth; style cylindrical, the length of the filaments, permanent; stigma simple, obtuse. Pericarpium: capsule roundish-oval, crowned by the style, with five notches at the top, of one cell, not bursting. Seeds: numerous, roundish, compressed, rough. Receptacle: central, ovate, somewhat compressed, unconnected with the capsule except at the base, from which it separates as the seeds ripen.—*Essential Character*. Corolla salver-shaped, irregular; capsule ovate, not bursting, crowned with



with the style, of one cell; seeds numerous, attached to a central receptacle.

*Lubinia spatulata*, the only known species. The root is said by Ventenat to be biennial, and the flowers to be produced in the beginning of summer. This plant has something of the aspect of *Convolvulus tricolor*, but is firmer, and quite smooth. The woody stem produces a few simple branches, a span long, clothed with numerous, scattered, spatulate, obtuse, entire, rather-fleshy leaves, above an inch long, tapering down into a bordered foot-stalk. Flowers axillary, solitary, on simple stalks, half as long as the leaves; calyx dark brown, dotted with black, white at the edge; corolla yellow, nearly as broad as that of *Lysimachia nemorum*. Capsule when pressed bursting irregularly, sometimes at the sides, sometimes, according to Ventenat, into two or four apparent valves. Lamarck says it has five valves, but he perhaps judged from the notches at the top. The fruit therefore, and the irregular corolla, mark this genus as sufficiently distinct from *Lysimachia*; to which may be added, on the score of habit, its alternate, not opposite or whorled, leaves. Native of the Isle of Bourbon.

LU'BIO. See LUBBEN.

LU'BISCHAW, a town of Prussia, in the province of Pomerelia: eighteen miles south of Dantzic.

LU'BISCHMAT, a town of Prussia, in the palatinate of Culm: five miles east of Thorn.

LUBLENIETZ', or LUBEN'SKY, a town of Silesia, in the principality of Oppeln: forty-two miles north of Beuthen, and twenty-nine east of Oppeln. Lat. 50. 39. N. lon. 18. 42. E.

LUB'LIN, a city of Poland, and capital of a palatinate; part of which is annexed to the new country of Galicia. It is surrounded with a wall and ditch; and a place of good trade, but not very large. It has a castle, built on a high rock, and stands on the little river Bystrzyna, in a very pleasant and fertile country. Here are several churches and convents. Great numbers of Jews live in the suburbs of Lublin, and have a spacious synagogue there. Three annual fairs are held here, and each of them lasts a month; which are frequented by great numbers of German, Greek, Armenian, Arabian, Rutilian, Turkish, and other, traders and merchants. The chief tribunal for Little Poland was held here, besides a provincial diet, and a court of judicature. In the year 1240, Lublin was set on fire by the Tartars; and after that continued for a long time in the possession of the Russians. In 1447, and 1606, this town also suffered greatly by fire; and in 1656 it was laid in ashes by the Swedes. It is 115 miles east-north-east of Cracow, and eighty-five south-east of Warsaw. Lat. 51. 6. N. lon. 22. 45. E.

LUBLY'O, a town and citadel of Hungary: four miles west-north-west of Palotza. Lat. 49. 13. N. lon. 20. 44. E.

LUB'NAIG LOCH, the lowest lake on the river Balvaig, in Perthshire. It is above four miles in length; but is extremely narrow, presenting the same picture with most of the highland lakes, of a sheet of water arrested in a deep ravine, and thrown back by obstacles from the lower extremity. Such is likewise the character of Loch Doine and Loch Voil, which are placed higher up the same river. In the middle of Loch Lubnaig is a tremendous rock, called *Craig-na-Cokeilg*, or the "Rock of the Joint Hunting," from having been the boundary between the estates of two ancient chieftains, who were wont to meet here on sporting days, and to hunt round the rock in common, after which they separated, each turning towards his own property, to denote that he was at the utmost boundary of his possession.

LUBNE'KI, a town of Samogitia: ten miles north of Miedniki.

LUB'NI, a town of Russia, in the government of Kiev, on the Sula: eighty miles east-south-east of Kiev. Lat. 50. N. lon. 32. 54. E.

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LUB'NITZ, a town of Germany, in the principality of Culmbach: two miles north-north-west of Gefres.

LUB'NOW. See LUBENAU.

LU'BOK, commonly called the *Bavian*, or Baboon, an island in the East Indian sea, near the coast of Java; not large, but extremely populous. Seventy or eighty vessels are continually passing to and fro between this island and the coasts of Java and Borneo.

LUBO'LO, a province of Angola, on the banks of the Coanza.

LUBOM'LA, a town of Austrian Poland, in Galicia: thirty-two miles east of Chelm.

LU'BOZ, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Novogrodek: sixteen miles north-east of Novogrodek.

LU'BRIC, *adj.* [*lubricus*, Lat.] Slippery; smooth on the surface:

A throng

Of short thick sobs, whose thund'ring volleys float

And roul themselves over her *lubric* throat

In panting murmurs.

*Crashaw.*

Uncertain; unsteady.—I will deduce him from his cradle through the deep and *lubric* waves of fate, till he is swallowed in the gulf of fatality. *Wotton*.—Wanton; lewd; [from *lubrique*, Fr.]

Why were we hurry'd down

This *lubric* and adul'rate age;

Nay, added fat pollutions of our own,

T' increase the streaming ordures of the stage? *Dryden.*

To LU'BRICATE, *v. a.* To make smooth, or slippery; to smoothe.—The patient is relieved by the mucilaginous and the saponaceous remedies, some of which *lubricate*, and others both *lubricate* and stimulate. *Sharp.*

LU'BRICATING, *f.* The act of making smooth and slippery.

LUBRICIOUS, *adj.* See LUBRICOUS.

LUBRICITY, *f.* Slipperiness; smoothness of surface.

Aptness to glide over any part, or to facilitate motion.—Both the ingredients are of a lubricating nature; the mucilage adds to the *lubricity* of the oil, and the oil preserves the mucilage from inspissation. *Ray on Creation.*

Uncertainty; slipperiness; instability.—A state of tranquillity is never to be attained, but by keeping perpetually in our thoughts the certainty of death, and the *lubricity* of fortune. *L'Esrange*.—Wantonness; lewdness.—From the lechery of these fauns, he thinks that satyr is derived from them, as if wantonness and *lubricity* were essential to that poem, which ought in all to be avoided. *Dryden.*

LU'BRICOUS, *adj.* Slippery; smooth.—The parts of water being voluble and *lubricous* as well as fine, it easily insinuates itself into the tubes of vegetables, and by that means introduces into them the matter it bears along with it. *Woodward's Nat. Hist.*—Uncertain.—The judgment being the leading power, if it be stored with *lubricous* opinions instead of clearly-conceived truths, and peremptorily resolved in them, the practice will be as irregular as the conceptions. *Glanville's Scep sis.*

LUBRIFICATION, *f.* The act of lubricating or smoothing.—The cause is *lubrifaction* and relaxation, as in medicines emollient; such as milk, honey, and mallows. *Bacon.*

LUBRIFICATION, *f.* The act of smoothing.—A twofold liquor is prepared for the insertion and *lubrifaction* of the heads of the bones; an oily one, furnished by the marrow; a mucilaginous, supplied by certain glands seated in the articulations. *Ray on Creation.*

To LU'BRIFY, *v. a.* To smoothe and soften.—Euphorbium fretteth the entrails, therefore must be tempered with something that *lubrifeth* and allayeth its heat and sharpness. *Culpeper.*

LU'BRIN, a town of Spain, in the province of Grenada: five miles west of Vera.

LUBRONG', or TESHOO-LOOMBOO, a town of Thibet,



the residence of the Teshoo Lama, and capital of that part of the country which is immediately subject to his authority; situated in lat. 29. 4. 20. N. lon. 89. 7. E. This is a large monastery, consisting of three or four hundred houses, the habitations of the Gylongs, besides temples, mausoleums, and the palace of the sovereign pontiff; in which are comprehended also the residence of the regent, and the dwellings of all the subordinate officers, both ecclesiastical and civil, belonging to the court. It is included within the hollow face of a high rock, and has a southern aspect. Its buildings are all of stone, none less than two stories high, flat-roofed, and covered with a parapet, rising considerably above the roof, composed of heath and birchwood, inserted between frames of timber, which form a ledge below, and are fashioned above into a cornice, capped with masonry. All the houses have windows; that in the centre projecting beyond the walls, and forming a balcony: they are not closed with shutters, but black mohair curtains. The principal apartment in the upper story has an opening over it, covered with a moveable shed, which serves the purpose of sometimes admitting light and air, and in the winter season occasionally, the grateful warmth of the sun. *Turner's Tibet.*

LUBUNGAN, a town on the north coast of the island of Mindanao.

LUBWACH, a town of Germany, in the bishopric of Bamberg: eight miles north-east of Bamberg.

LUB'Z, or LU'BITZ, a town of the duchy of Mecklenberg: twenty-three miles south-south-west of Guttrow. Lat. 53. 30. N. lon. 12. E.

LUC, a town of Bavaria, on the Nab: six miles north of Pfreimbtt, and twelve east-north-east of Amberg.

LUC, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Pyrenées: six miles north of Oleron, and twelve west of Pau.

LUC, a town of France, in the department of the Lozere: five miles south of Langogne.

LUC EN DIO'IS, a town of France, in the department of the Drôme, on the Drôme: nine miles south of Die.

LUC (Le), a town of France, in the department of the Var: fifteen miles south of Draguignan, and twelve east of Brignolle.

LUC (St.), the chief town of the captainship of Petagues, in the north division of Brasil.

LU'CA, in ancient geography, a city of Etruria, on the river Aufer. Now LUCCA.

LU'CA (John-Baptist de), a learned Neapolitan cardinal, was of humble origin, and born at Venozza, in the Basilicate, about the year 1617. Having been educated to the church, he obtained preferment by dint of merit, and became auditor to pope Innocent XI. By that pontiff he was nominated cardinal in 1681; and died within eighteen months after his elevation to the purple, about the age of sixty-six. He was the author of, 1. *Annotationes ad Concilium Tridentinum.* 2. *Relatio Curia Romanæ*, 4to. 1680, containing a full account of all the congregations, tribunals, jurisdictions, &c. of that court, and much other curious matter. 3. *Il Dottor Volgare*; treating on several legal topics. 4. *A Discourse in Favour of the Italian Language.* 5. An immense compilation of ecclesiastical law, entitled, *Theatrum Justitia et Veritatis*, &c. in twenty-one volumes folio. *Moreri.*

LUCA'LA, a river of Angola, which runs into the Coanza at Massangano.

LUCA'LA, a town of Angola, on a river of the same name: thirty miles north-north-east of Massangano.

LU'CAN. MARCUS ANNÆUS LUCANUS, a celebrated Roman poet, was born at Corduba in Spain, about A. D. 39. His father, Annæus Mela, a Roman knight, was the youngest brother of Seneca the philosopher. His mother, Acilia, was daughter of Acilius Lucanus, an eminent orator. Lucan was brought to Rome at the age of eight months; whence his education could have contributed nothing to a provincial impurity of taste and language which some critics have fancied in him. He was early

committed to the care of the ablest masters in grammar and rhetoric; and he studied philosophy under the stoic Cornutus (also the preceptor of Perseus), from whom he derived the lofty and free strain of sentiment by which he is so much distinguished. He is supposed to have completed his education at Athens. His uncle Seneca, then tutor to the emperor Nero, brought him into public life; and he obtained the office of quaestor before he was of the legal age to exercise it. He was admitted to the college of augurs, and was regarded as one in the favour of his prince, and in the full career of honour and opulence. His union with Polla Argentaria, the daughter of a Roman senator, whose merits have been celebrated by the two poets Statius and Martial, added domestic felicity to his external prosperity. Lucan had at an early age given proofs of poetical talents, and had acquired reputation by several compositions. This circumstance excited the jealousy of Nero, one of whose passions was that of being regarded as the greatest poet and musician of his time. Greedy of public adulation in this favourite point, he recited before a large assembly, at the festival of the Quinquennialia, a piece of his own composing on the story of Niobe. Notwithstanding the plaudits with which it was received, Lucan, who also seems to have felt in no small degree the love of admiration, ventured to recite a poem on the fable of Orpheus, in competition with that of the emperor; and, strange to tell, the judges awarded to him the prize. From this period, Nero looked upon Lucan with all the malignity of a vanquished rival, and made use of his power in forbidding him again to repeat any of his verses in public. To this tyrannical mandate, he added the insult of ridiculing and depreciating his works. When the enormities of this imperial monster had excited a conspiracy against him of several persons of distinction, with Piso, at their head, Lucan took part in it. To the indignation of an injured author, which Tacitus suggests as his motive, may surely be added the virtuous and patriotic feelings of an enthusiast for liberty and his country, who could not but execrate a tyrant and oppressor. He has, indeed, addressed some very adulatory lines to this same tyrant; but they were probably written while he appeared under the mask of a benevolent and well-disposed young prince. The plot was discovered; and Lucan was apprehended among the other conspirators. It must mortify every lover of genius and liberal principles to learn that he failed in the trial, and incurred a stain of baseness which will ever adhere to his name. Tacitus (*Annal.* xv. 55.) expressly affirms that, overcome by a promise of pardon, he accused as an accomplice, among others, his own mother. This direct charge from so weighty an historian, who certainly was not inclined to calumniate the friends of freedom, can scarcely be set aside by the mere surmises which some defenders of Lucan have offered. The circumstance most in his favour, which has been forcibly dwelt upon by Mr. Hayley, in the notes to his Second Epistle on Epic Poetry, is that (according to Tacitus) the mother of Lucan was passed over without either absolution or punishment; whence it may be conjectured that no evidence existed of her having been charged by her son, but popular rumour; for no other person, however distantly implicated in the conspiracy, seems to have escaped without some kind of penalty. If, however, the virtue of Lucan was betrayed by a moment of weakness, his mind recovered its firmness for the concluding scene. Being ordered to die, he chose the same death with his uncle Seneca; and had his veins opened. When he found himself growing cold and faint through loss of blood, he repeated some of his own lines, describing a wounded soldier sinking in a similar manner; and these were the last words he uttered. He died A. D. 65, in the twenty-seventh year of his age.

Of the various poems of Lucan, his *Pharsalia* only has come down to modern times. This is an unfinished piece, relating the causes and events of the civil war between Cæsar and Pompey. Its title to the name of an epic poem



has been disputed by those critics who, from the examples of Homer and Virgil, have maintained that machinery, or the intervention of supernatural agency, is essential to that species of composition. Whatever it be entitled, it certainly ranks among the capital productions of the Latin muse; and will be read and admired as long as the language in which it is written shall endure. It is, indeed, not without great faults, such as harshness and obscurity of style, extravagant descriptions, turgid metaphors, and bombastic sentiments. But these are redeemed by a strain of moral sublimity superior to that of any other ancient, by a noble spirit of freedom, and by frequent instances of genuine poetry, both in the thoughts and expressions. Hence he has had admirers who have placed him at the very head of epic poets; while others have treated him with great severity, and degraded him to the class of rhetoricians and declaimers; for Quintilian, by a frivolous distinction, disputes his title to be classed among the poets; and Scaliger says, with a brutality of language disgraceful only to himself, that he seems rather to *bark* than to *sing*. But these insults may appear amply compensated, when we remember that, in the most polished nations of modern Europe, the most elevated and poetic spirits have been his warmest admirers; that in France he was idolized by Corneille, and in England translated by Rowe. The severest censures on Lucan have proceeded from those who have unfairly compared his language to that of Virgil. But how unjust and absurd is such a comparison! it is comparing an uneven block of porphyry, taken rough from the quarry, to the most beautiful superficies of polished marble. How differently should we think of Virgil as a poet, if we possessed only the verses which he wrote at that period of life when Lucan composed his *Pharsalia*! In the disposition of his subject, in the propriety and elegance of diction, he is undoubtedly far inferior to Virgil: but if we attend to the bold originality of his design, and to the vigour of his sentiments; if we consider the *Pharsalia* as the rapid and uncorrected sketch of a young poet, executed in an age when the spirit of his countrymen was broken, and their taste in literature corrupted; it may justly be esteemed as one of the most noble and most wonderful productions of the human mind.

The *subject* of the *Pharsalia* presents to us the most dreadful picture of the miseries of civil war. It inculcates the same moral as the *Iliad*; but in another point of view, and under a different form. It is more particularly intended to convey this useful lesson to the people, that in domestic contentions they are only the instruments of the great; for the gratification of whose ambition they madly shed their blood, and forge their own fetters. But the subject has two defects. Civil wars, especially when so fierce and violent as those of the Romans, present objects too shocking for the epopee, and give odious and disgusting views of human nature. Gallant and honourable achievements are much more proper themes for the epic muse. But the genius of Lucan seemed to delight in scenes of blood. Not content with those which his plan abundantly furnished, he introduces, by way of episode, a long detail of the proscriptions of Marius and Sylla, which present all the forms of ingenious and systematic cruelty. The other defect of the subject is, that it is too near the times in which the poet lived. This is a circumstance always unfortunate for a poet, as it in a great measure deprives him of the assistance of fiction and imagery, which add a degree of splendour, as well as amusement, to his work. Lucan appears to have submitted to this disadvantage of the subject; with what propriety, has been often considered doubtful. That he himself thought it susceptible of such embellishment is evident, from the circumstance of his having once, though only once, employed it. It is true that the fables of the *Odyssey* would ill agree with the serious conversations of Cato and Brutus; but it was possible for a man of genius and taste to select a species of machinery more suitable to the subject. The gods and the Romans might have been

made to act together in the same stage, as well as the gods and the heroes of Homer. Destiny itself might have interfered in so great a quarrel, during which the safety and repose of the world hung in trembling suspense. That beautiful fiction, unfortunately the only one that is to be found in the *Pharsalia*, of the appearance to Cæsar of his weeping country, on the borders of the Rubicon, sufficiently proves what assistance Lucan might have derived from fable, without injuring the interest of his subject, or the dignity of history.

The *characters* in the *Pharsalia* are not numerous. There are but three distinctly marked, those of Pompey, Cato, and Cæsar; but it is in the exposition of these different characters, in the contrast of their virtues and their vices, that the excellence of Lucan peculiarly displays itself. They are drawn with spirit and energy. Pompey is the nominal hero of the poem; but, whether considered as delineated by the pen of history, or painted by the imagination of the poet, he appears little deserving of this distinction. We seldom discover in him either magnanimity in sentiment, or bravery in action. He is rash, arrogant, and weak. Corrupted by flattery, enervated by prosperity, he seems contentedly to repose under the shade of a mighty name. *Stat magni nominis umbra*. When opposed to the spirit and perseverance of Cæsar, he is eclipsed by the superior abilities of his rival. He is rash in his designs, but cowardly in the execution; and, in the very crisis of his fate, he seems to lose all presence of mind, and, without further struggle, surrenders the world to Cæsar. The simple manners and austere virtues of Cato, however venerable in history, would seem to be little adapted to make any forcible impression in an epic poem. But he is a favourite personage with Lucan, who, in the delineation of his character, appears to rise above himself. It has been remarked, that the most striking passages in the *Pharsalia* for beauty and energy are referred to Cato, either in speeches which he is made to utter, or in descriptions of his behaviour. Such are his nuptials with Marcia, his march over the sands of Africa, and his noble answer to the speech of Labienus on the oracle of Jupiter Ammon.

There are in the *Pharsalia* several very poetical and animated *descriptions*. But the author's chief strength does not lie either in narration or description. His narration is often dry and harsh; his descriptions are often too highly coloured, and sometimes employed on disagreeable objects. His principal merit consists in his *sentiments*, which are always noble and striking, and expressed in that glowing and ardent style that peculiarly distinguishes him. Lucan is the most philosophical and the most public-spirited of the ancient poets. He was the nephew of Seneca, the philosopher; was himself a stoic, and the spirit of that philosophy breathes throughout his poem. We must observe, too, that he is the only ancient epic poet whom the subject of his poem really and deeply interested. He relates no fiction; he was a Roman, and had felt all the cruel consequences of the civil wars of Rome, and of that severe despotism which succeeded the loss of liberty. His high and bold spirit made him enter deeply into the subject, and kindle, on many occasions, the most rational warmth. He abounds, too, in exclamations and apostrophes, which are always well timed, and supported with a vivacity and fire that do him the highest honour.

But it is the fate of Lucan that his beauties can never be mentioned, without suggesting his blemishes. As his principal excellence is a lively and glowing genius, which appears sometimes in his descriptions, and always in his sentiments, his great defect in both is want of moderation. He carries every thing to an extreme. He knows not where to stop. From an effort to aggrandise his object, he becomes tumid and unnatural; and it frequently happens that, where the second line of one of his descriptions is sublime, the third, in which he intended to rise still higher, is perfectly bombast. Lucan lived in an age when the schools of sophists and declaimers had begun to corrupt



corrupt the eloquence and the taste of the Romans. He was, unfortunately, not free from the infection; and too frequently, instead of showing the genius of a poet, he betrays the spirit of a declaimer. It was this defect that probably produced the observation of Quintilian, that Lucan's place was rather among the orators than among the poets: *Oratoribus magis quam poetis annumerandus*. But, if he was not a poet, where is poetry to be found? Upon the whole, it may be collected from the preceding observations, that Lucan was more remarkable for splendour of genius, than for soundness of judgment, or correctness of taste. He had more strength than tenderness; greater force than sweetness. He will not often bear a comparison with Virgil; but, if he wanted the purity and elegance of the Mantuan bard, he will be found to surpass him in the energy and boldness of his sentiments. Taken from the Pharsalia a few uninteresting episodes, and the tediousness of some of its details, and it will exhibit beauties sufficient to justify the assertion that Lucan was not only a poet, but deserves the next place in the epos after Homer and Virgil.

Of the editions of Lucan, the best are, the Variorum, Lugd. B. 8vo. 1669; Oudendorp's, with May's supplement, 4to. 1728; Burman's, 4to. 1740; Bentley's, Strawberry-hill, 4to. 1760. It is remarkable that there is no Delphin edition of this poet of liberty; and that one of the first classics printed under the short-lived French republic was a Lucan in splendid folio by Didot. He has been translated into French verse by Brebeuf, and into English verse by Rowe. *Taciti Annal. Vossii Poet. Lat. Crusius's Latin Poets. Hayley's Essay. Monthly Mag.* vol. xxiv.

LU'CAN, in geography, a village of the county of Dublin, Ireland, pleasantly situated on the banks of the Liffey: six miles and a half west from Dublin.

LU'CAN (Al), a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Aladulia: fifteen miles east of Marasch.

LUCA'NAS, a jurisdiction of the diocese of Guamanga, in the viceroyalty of Peru, commencing about twenty-five or thirty leagues south-west of Guamanga. Its temperature is cool and moderate. It abounds in valuable silver-mines, in which the riches of Peru chiefly consist; and by these means it becomes the centre of a very extensive commerce; great numbers of merchants resorting hither with their goods, and others for purchasing such provisions as their own respective countries do not afford, for which they give in exchange ingots and pinuas of silver.

LUCA'NI, a people of Italy, descended from the Samnites, or from the Brutii.

LUCA'NIA, a country of Italy, between the Tyrrhene and Sicilian seas, and bounded by Picenum, Pucetia, and the country of the Brutii. The country was famous for its grapes.

LUCA'NUS, *f.* The STAG-BEETLE; in entomology, a genus of coleopterous insects. Generic characters: Antennæ clavate; the club compressed, and divided into short pectinate leaves; jaws projecting beyond the head, so as to resemble horns, toothed; two palpigerous tufts under the lip. These are the largest of British insects; and differ chiefly from the SCARABÆI, or beetles properly so called, in having the jaws considerably elongated, so as to give the appearance of a pair of denticulated horns; while the antennæ terminate in a laterally-flattened tip, divided on the interior side into several lamellæ. There are twenty-nine species.

1. Lucanus alces: jaws exerted, four-toothed at the tip. It inhabits several parts of Asia. The head is large, depressed, black, sinuate on each side; jaws longer than the head, compressed at the tip, and armed with a strong tooth in the middle within.

2. Lucanus giraffa: jaws exerted, depressed, with many different-sized teeth; lip rounded. Inhabits Asia. The jaws are likewise very long; the teeth at both ends larger; thorax with an unequal margin; body black.

3. Lucanus cervus, the stag-beetle, or stag-chaffer;

jaws exerted, forked at the tip; a small branch near the middle within. This is readily distinguished by its superior magnitude, which entitles it to the first rank among the coleopterous tribe, being nearly two inches and a half in extreme length. It is however characterized by another peculiarity no less singular; and that is the large moveable jaws, resembling in form the horns of a stag. These instruments are broad and flat, projecting from the head nearly one third of the animal's length; they have in the middle, towards the inner part, a small branch, and at their extremity are forked. Their similarity in shape to the horns of the stag has struck every naturalist, and has procured for the insect the appellation of the *flying stag*.

The horns are sometimes as red as coral, which gives these animals a very beautiful appearance. The head that supports these romantic horns, is broad, short, and irregular; and the thorax, which intervenes between it and the body, is narrower than either, and margined around. The clytra are very plain, being unadorned with either streaks or lines. The general colour is a deep chestnut, with the thorax and head of a blacker cast; the legs and under-parts are coal-black; and the wings which, except during flight, are concealed under the shells, are large, and of a fine pale yellowish-brown. This remarkable insect is chiefly found in the neighbourhood of oak-trees, delighting in the sweet exudation, or honey-dew, so frequently observed on the leaves. Its larva, which perfectly resembles that of the genuine beetle, is also found in the hollows of oak-trees; residing in the fine vegetable mould usually seen in such cavities, and feeding on the softer parts of the decayed wood. It is of a very considerable size, of a pale yellowish or whitish-brown colour; and, when stretched out at full length, measures nearly four inches. It has been supposed by Roefel, that these larvæ were the *coffi* of the ancient Romans, which, according to Pliny, were in high esteem as an article of luxury. What renders this supposition the more probable is, that the larvæ of a species of *Cerambyx*, as well as of a *Curculio*, are well known to be greatly admired by the inhabitants of the West Indian islands, and are frequently collected at a great expense, as a highly delicate dish, being broiled or fried for that purpose. When arrived at its full size, which, according to some, is hardly sooner than the fifth or sixth year, it forms, by frequently turning itself, and moistening it with its glutinous saliva, a smooth oval hollow in the earth, in which it lies; and afterwards remaining perfectly still for the space of nearly a month, divests itself of its skin, and commences pupa or chrysalis. It is now of a shorter form than before, of a rather deeper colour, and exhibits, in a striking manner, the rudiments of the large extended jaws and broad head, so conspicuous in the perfect insect: the legs are also proportionably larger and longer than in the larva state. The ball of earth, in which this chrysalis is contained, is considerably larger than a hen's egg, and of a rough exterior surface, but perfectly smooth and polished within. The chrysalis lies about three months before it gives birth to the complete insect; which usually emerges in the months of July and August. The time, however, of this insect's growth and appearance in all its states varies much, according to the difference of seasons. It is met with in many parts of England; but is scarce in the neighbourhood of London; and, though the largest of insects to be met with in this part of the world, it is much smaller than those of the same species that are found in woody countries. This creature is strong and vigorous; and its horns, with which it pinches severely, are carefully to be avoided.

The perfect male insect is shown in the act of flying, at fig. 1. of the annexed Plate; and with wings folded at fig. 2. The commonly-supposed female differs so much in appearance from the male, that it has by some authors been considered as a distinct species. It is not only smaller than the former, but totally destitute of the long and large ramified jaws; instead of which it has a pair of very short curved ones, slightly denticulated on their inner side; the head



head is also of considerably smaller diameter than the thorax. In point of colour it resembles the former. Among those who consider it as a distinct species may be numbered the ingenious Mr. Marfham, F.L.S. who, in his *Entomologia Britannica*, assures us that the real female insect extremely resembles the male, but is smaller, and wants the larger denticulation on the inner side of each horn. The generally-suppofed female he distinguishes by the title of *Lucanus inermis*. This is shown at fig. 3 of the same Plate.

4. *Lucanus tridentatus*: jaws depressed, black; thorax three-toothed on each side. Inhabits Oeland. Perhaps a variety of the preceding; and therefore suppressed by Dr. Turton.

5. *Lucanus saiga*: jaws exerted, many-toothed; lip abbreviated, emarginate. Inhabits America. Body depressed, smooth, black; jaws hardly forked at the end.

6. *Lucanus elaphus*: jaws exerted, one-toothed, forked at the tip; lip deflected, conic; hind margin of the head much elevated, emarginate. Female less; the jaws not exerted. Inhabits Virginia.

7. *Lucanus capreolus*: jaws exerted, the middle denticles differently shaped, forked at the tip. This is particularly described by De Geer, who received the specimens from Pennsylvania, where they inhabit the woods. It somewhat resembles the *cervus*, but is less, varying from ten to fourteen lines in length, and the horns are less, nor do they branch out; but are curved, and meet at the tips; as will be evident by inspecting the Plate, fig. 4 for the male, fig. 5 for the female. Colour brown-maroon, shining; thighs yellow; eyes (in the dead insect) light grey; wings light yellow, and transparent, with lines of a darker yellow. The upper lip is not pointed, but rounded at the end; and between the lips is the trunk, which is hairy, and of a gold-yellow colour.

8. *Lucanus dama*: jaws exerted, two-toothed within, as long as the head. Inhabits Virginia. A variety has the jaws entire at the end; thighs ferruginous.

9. *Lucanus femoratus*: jaws exerted, three-toothed; body black; thighs ferruginous. It inhabits Cayenne. The head is plain, almost without lip; thorax more dusky; the fore margin fulvous, ciliate, the hind margin two-toothed each side; scutellum fulvous, silky.

10. *Lucanus bison*: jaws exerted, many-toothed; thorax and shells edged with red. Inhabits America. Edge of the thorax rufous, with a black line.

11. *Lucanus gazella*: jaws two-toothed within; body black; shells edged with testaceous. Inhabits Siam. The jaws are short; head with a small plate before the eyes; hind edge of the thorax notched on each side; shanks angular, grooved.

12. *Lucanus lama*: jaws exerted, three-toothed, shorter than the head; thorax angular. Inhabits India.

13. *Lucanus futuralis*: jaws exerted, three-toothed at the base within; body testaceous, with a dorsal black line. The head is testaceous, with a black margin and dorsal line, which is bifid at the tip; thorax testaceous, with a black dorsal line and spot each side at the base. A small species.

14. *Lucanus carinatus*: depressed; thorax unarmed, shorter than the head, the hinder-angles excavated. Abdomen very short; breast ending behind in an acute angle. Inhabits India.

15. *Lucanus parallelepipedus*: jaws with a lateral elevated tooth within; body depressed. It inhabits Europe. The body of this species is black; the horns much smaller than those of the *cervus*, which in other respects it nearly resembles; and the body is oblong, and of that shape expressed by the Linnæan name. See fig. 6. It frequents the meadow-grounds, about willow-trees; and its habits are therefore probably different from those of the stag-beetle; but very little relating to its economy is known.

16. *Lucanus tenebrioides*: jaws lunate, one-toothed; body black; thorax margined; shells substriate. Inhabits Russia.

17. *Lucanus virefcens*: jaws tridentate; body greenish. Inhabits America.

18. *Lucanus cancrioides*: jaws incurved, with a thick differently-shaped tooth within; shells punctured, slightly downy; thorax a little grooved; shanks ferrate. Inhabits Van Diemen's Land.

19. *Lucanus caraboides*: bluish; jaws lunate; thorax margined. Varies in being greenish, with reddish legs and abdomen. Inhabits Europe. See fig. 7.

20. *Lucanus piceus*: black, smooth, striate; antennæ, abdomen, and legs, pitchy. Inhabits Sweden.

21. *Lucanus Capensis*: exscutellate, black; body depressed; thorax striate. Inhabits the Cape.

22. *Lucanus pilinus*: exscutellate, black; shells with punctured grooves. Found in Chili, South America.

23. *Lucanus tarandus*: scutellate, black, very smooth; jaws exerted, three-toothed at the tip, two-toothed on the inner side. Inhabits Africa.

24. *Lucanus antilope*: jaws exerted, edged on the inner side, the upper margin two-toothed, the lower five-toothed. Body brown, nearly smooth. Found in different parts of Africa.

25. *Lucanus bubalus*: black; jaws bifid; one part projecting, sub-lunate, three-toothed within; the other larger, deflected, arched, entire. Inhabits Georgia.

26. *Lucanus interruptus*: antennæ arched; body black, with a recumbent spine on the crown; thorax and abdomen remote; wings yellow. Inhabits America and the West-India islands, under rotten sugar-canes. This is the *Passalus interruptus* of Fabricius. It varies in size, becoming sometimes two inches long. The antennæ consist of eight articulations, nearly round, exclusive of the first joint, or root; the upper joints increase in thickness, are arched forward, and terminate in three pectinated teeth. On each of the elytra are ten furrows, the three first smooth inside, but rough beneath; the other three are ornamented with round hollow dots. The fore-legs have six little notches, or teeth, on their exterior edges. A representation of the larva and pupa of this species has been given on the ENTOMOLOGY Plate II. fig. 21, 22. vol. vi. p. 840. and the perfect insect (all drawn from nature by Mad. Merian) is delineated on the Plate annexed to this article, at fig. 8.

27. *Lucanus dentatus*: antennæ arched; head many-toothed; thorax punctured at the sides; thorax and abdomen remote. Found in the island of Guadaloupe. This is the *Passalus dentatus* of Fabricius.

28. *Lucanus minutus*: antennæ arched; thorax and abdomen remote, ferruginous; shells testaceous. This is the *Passalus minutus* of Fabricius, and is found in the South-American islands. The body is much depressed, hardly larger than a louse; jaws exerted, short, unarmed, pointed; shells hardly striate.

29. Dr. Shaw mentions a highly-elegant species, that has lately been discovered in New Holland, which differs from the rest in being entirely of a beautiful golden-green colour, with short, sharp-pointed, denticulated, jaws of a brilliant copper colour. The whole length of the insect is rather more than an inch. *Gmelin's Linn. Shaw's Zoology. Barbut. Martyn. De Geer. Merian.*

LUCANUS (Ocellus, or Ucellus). See OCELLUS.

LUCANUS (M. Annæus). See LUCAN.

LUCAR', *J.* Among the Romans, an appellation given to the money expended upon plays and public shows.

LUCAR' DE BARAME'DA (St.) a handsome and considerable town of Spain, with a very good harbour, well defended, in Andalusia. It was once the greatest port in Spain, before the galleons unloaded their treasure at Cadiz. It is seated at the mouth of the river Guadalquivir. Lat. 36. 40. N. lon. 6. 5. W.

LUCAR' DE GUADIANA (St.) a strong town of Spain, in Andalusia, on the confines of Algarve; seated on the river Guadiana, with a little harbour. Lat. 37. 32. N. lon. 5. 59. W.

LUCAR' LA MAJO'R (St.) a small town of Spain, in Andalusia,



Andalusia, with the title of a duchy. It is seated on the river Guadiana in lat. 37. 21. N. lon. 6. 32. W.

LUCARIA, or LUCE'RIA, festivals at Rome, celebrated in a large grove between the Via Salaria and the Tiber, where the Romans hid themselves when besieged by the Gauls.

LUCAS, a surname of men and women.

LUCAS, a celebrated Spanish prelate and writer who flourished in the thirteenth century, became first deacon, and afterwards bishop, of Tuy, a city in Galicia, whence he derived the surname of *Tudensis*. He made several voyages into the East, and other countries, while he was yet a deacon, for the purpose of obtaining information concerning the religion and ceremonies of different nations; and, during a visit to Rome, acquired the esteem of pope Gregory IX. who raised him to the episcopal rank. He was the author of, 1. A treatise against the Albigenes, in three books, first published by John Mariana, at Ingolstadt, in 1612, 4to. and afterwards inserted, with notes by Mariana, Gretzer, and Scot, in the twenty-fifth volume of the *Bibl. Patr.* 2. The Life of St. Isidore of Seville; and he made considerable additions to the Chronicle of St. Isidore, bringing it down to the year 1236. *Cave's Hist. Lit.*

LUCAS (Francis), surnamed *Brugensis*, a learned Flemish divine in the seventeenth century, was a native of Bruges, and educated at Louvain, where he was admitted to the degree of doctor, and made dean of the church of St. Omer's. He died in the year 1619. He was profoundly skilled in the Greek, Hebrew, Syriac, and Chaldee, languages, and was an expert judicious critic. His principal works were, 1. Notations in Sacra Biblia, quibus variantia discrepantibus Loca exemplaribus summo Studio discutuntur, 4to. 1580, of which father Simon gives a particular account, with high commendations. 2. Commentaria in Evangel. 5 vols. folio. *Simon's Crit. Hist.*

LUCAS (Richard), a learned divine of the church of England, was a native of Wales, and born at Presteigne in Radnorshire, in the year 1648. When he had acquired the requisite grammar-learning, he was sent to the university of Oxford, and entered a student at Jesus-college in 1664. He was admitted to the degree of B.A. in 1668; and proceeded M.A. in 1672. Afterwards he entered into holy orders; and was for some time master of the free-school at Abergavenny in Monmouthshire. From that place he removed to London, where his pulpitations were much admired; and he became vicar of St. Stephen's, Coleman-street, and lecturer of St. Olave's, Southwark, in 1683. In 1691, he took his degree of D.D. and was installed prebendary of Westminster in 1696. From his youth his eye-sight had been gradually failing; and about this time he had the misfortune to become totally blind. He died in 1715, about the age of sixty-seven. He was highly esteemed for his piety and learning; and his valuable writings will transmit his name with honour to posterity. The most important of these is his *Enquiry after Happiness*, in two volumes 8vo. which has passed through a great number of editions, and is deservedly held in high estimation. It was composed by the author after he had lost his sight, and was rendered incapable of public services; and it is to be regretted that he did not live to complete his whole design. He was also the author of, 2. *Practical Christianity*, or an Account of the Holiness which the Gospel enjoins, with the Motives to it, 8vo. 8vo. 3. *The Morality of the Gospel*, 8vo. 4. *Christian Thoughts for every Day in the Week*, 8vo. 5. *A Guide to Heaven*, 8vo. 6. *The Duty of Servants*, 8vo. 7. *Sermons*, in 5 vols. 8vo. some of which were published by his son. 8. He translated into Latin the *Whole Duty of Man*, which was printed at London in 1680, 8vo. *Wood's Athen. Oxon. Monthly Mag.* vol. i.

LUCAS (Paul), a celebrated traveller, was born at Rouen in 1664. He felt an early inclination to travel into foreign countries, which he gratified by several tours through the Levant, Egypt, Turkey, and other parts. He brought back a rich treasure of medals and other cu-

riofities for the king's cabinet, who ordered him to draw up an account of his travels, and, in 1714, nominated him one of his antiquaries. The duchess of Burgundy gave him a place in her household, and he married one of his own relations. In 1723, he took another voyage to the Levant by order of Louis XV. whence he brought back several rare manuscripts and medals. After some years of repose, his passion for travelling revived; and in 1736 he visited Spain, which country he had not before seen. He was very well received by the king, who engaged him to arrange his cabinet of medals; but during this employment he was taken ill, and died at Madrid in 1737, at the age of seventy-two. The *Travels of Paul Lucas* form 7 vols. 12mo. His first travels in 1699, with his second in 1704, were printed at Paris in 4 vols. 1712-14; these contain his voyage to the Levant, to Greece, Asia Minor, Macedonia, and Africa. His travels, in 1714, in Turkey, Asia, Syria, Palestine, and Egypt, were published at Rouen, in 3 vols. 1719. It is asserted that these several relations were drawn up and put in order from his journals by different men of letters; the first travels by Baudelot de Dairval; the second by Fourmont; the third by the abbé Banier. They are accounted amusing and instructive, though not without a mixture of fiction. *Moreri.*

LUCAS (Charles), a celebrated Irish patriot. See the article IRELAND, vol. xi. p. 328.

LUCAS (Henry), son of the preceding, was a student at the Middle Temple; and the author of, 1. *Love in Disguise*, an opera, 1776. 2. *The Earl of Somerset*, a tragedy, 1779. 3. *Cælina*, a masque, 1795.

LUCAS VAN LEYDEN. See LEYDEN, vol. xii. p. 566.

LUCAS (St.), a town of Mexico, in the province of Guatimala: twelve miles east of Guatimala.—A small island near the coast of Mexico, in Salinas bay. Lat. 10. 15. N. lon. 85. 22. W.

LUCAU, a town of the duchy of Carinthia, near the Geil: thirteen miles west of Mauten, and thirty-two east of Brixen.

LUCAU, or LUC'CA, a town of Saxony, in the principality of Altenburg: eight miles north-north-west of Altenburg, and thirteen south of Leipzig. Lat. 51. 6. N. lon. 12. 13. E.

LUCAYA ISLANDS. See BAHAMA, vol. ii. p. 622.

LUCAYO, one of the Bahama Islands, twenty miles long, and five broad. Lat. 27. 25. N. lon. 78. W.

LUCAYONE'QUE, one of the Bahama Islands, seventy-five miles long, and five or six wide, but of an irregular form. Lat. 27. N. lon. 77. 30. W.

LUC'CA, a small republic of Italy, on the coast of the Tuscan sea, in lat. 43. 50. N. It is bounded north by the late duchy of Modena; on the south-west by the Mediterranean; and every where else by Etruria. It is computed to be upwards of 35 miles in length, and from 15 to 20 in breadth, and to contain 283 square miles, and within its extent one city, 150 villages, and 120,000 inhabitants, of whom, it is said, that from 20,000 to 30,000 are able, on occasion, to bear arms. The Luccanese are the most industrious people of Italy, and no spot of ground is left uncultivated; the hills being covered with vines, olives, chestnut and mulberry trees, while the meadows near the coast nourish numerous cattle; but the country does not produce corn sufficient for the consumption of its inhabitants. Oil and silk are the chief exports of Lucca; and their motto is LIBERTAS, a goddefs, rarely found in her proper dress. Lucca was anciently a Roman colony; when the Lombards overran Italy, it became tributary to them; afterwards it was annexed to the dominion of the Franks, and from them the emperors of Germany claimed its sovereignty. In the reign of Charles IV. it became an independent state, and has, during three centuries, maintained its liberty, under the protection of some foreign power. In the recent revolutions of Italy, this state adopted a constitution similar to the French; and became a principality, with the addition of Massa Carrara, and Garfagnana. The fate of Lucca, and of all Italy,



Italy, now hangs upon the decisions of the grand Congress just expected to open at Vienna. (Dec. 12, 1814.)

LUC'CA, a city of Italy, and capital of the republic, anciently a Roman colony, the residence of the government, most delightfully situated in a plain, terminating in eminences, and diversified with villages, seats, summer-houses, vineyards, meadows, and corn-fields. Every thing, either for utility or pleasure, is here in great plenty. The city is regularly fortified with eleven bastions. Its circuit is three Italian miles. The houses are handsome, the streets broad and well paved, but most of them irregular. The inhabitants are somewhat above 40,000; and among them great numbers of artificers and manufacturers, who carry on a considerable trade, particularly in silk goods. The state palace is a large building; and includes the arsenal, which has arms for 20,000 men. The bishop held immediately of the pope, and was entitled to the pallium or crucifix, as an archbishop. The cathedral is a Gothic building. In 1799, the French entered this city, and imposed on it a contribution of 2,000,000 livres.

The following extract is from the MSS. of Dr. John Bargrave, son of Dr. B. dean of Canterbury, a great traveller. "I have been often at Lucca, a strong neat little city. The city is very ancient, C. Sempronius retiring hither when Hannibal had rowed him at Trebbia and Piacenza; this being not only a colony, but a municipal city of the Romans, Julius Cæsar wintering here, together with whome Pompey and Crassus made the first triumph in this city. The Volto Santo, that is, Our Saviour's face on a linnen cloath, standeth with magnificence in the cathedrall. In the church St. Fridianis is the tomb of one of our English kings, being one of the Richards, as the epitaph rudely speaketh thus:

*Hic rex Richardus requiescit sceptrifer almus,  
Rex fuit Anglorum, &c.*

When I went one time to Lucca, this epitaph was so covered with the ornaments of the altar, that I could not finde it, neither could they tell vs of any such king buried there whose shewed vs the church; but I, being confident it shold be there, caused some of the obstacles to be removed, and so found out the epitaph which I had formerly reade; and I desired them to take care that that king's memory might not be forgotten amongst them. Dr. John Bargrave, canon of Xt ch. Canterb."

Lassels, in 1670, says, "In the church of St. Frediano, belonging to the canons regulars, in a chappel on the left hand, is the tombe of St. Richard, king of England, who dyed here in his pilgrimage to Rome." Travels, Part I. p. 27.—Misson, who was in Italy about 1688, describes, in the middle of the church of St. Fredian, a flat tomb, inscribed, *Hic iacet corpus Sancti Ricardi, regis Angliæ*; whom he cannot make out; Richard I. being, as he observes, buried at Font Evraud, Richard II. at Westminster, and Richard III. at Leicester; and there was no king of that name under the Heptarchy. *Novv. Voy. d'Italie*.—Mr. Wright, who saw this tomb about 1719-20, says, p. 389, that this Richard, "a king of England unknown to our Chronicles, was father to St. Valburga, to St. Villebald, and St. Vinebald, as some monkish verses there set forth, which he forbears troubling the reader with."

Mr. Breval says (vol. i. p. 140.) "The supposed English king, who lies buried in one of these churches, and has puzzled most of our travellers, is no other than the son of a Kentish Saxon monarch, whom the calamities of his house forced into a monastic state, the *dernier resort*, in that superstitious age, of unfortunate princes. The ignorance of the Lucques themselves in this point has kept travellers in the dark with regard to this pretended king of England, who was no other than the son of Lothaire, king of Kent, joined in the government of that branch of the Heptarchy with his father. Both of them being dispossessed by their cousin Edric, Richard fled over the seas to Mentz, where there was an English bishop, by whose interest he is said to have obtained the crown of Suabia.

He retired from the world at last, and came and ended his days at Lucca, where they show his stone coffin under the great altar at the *Canonici regolari*. This happened in the 8th century." Lothaire usurped the crown of Kent from his nephew Edric, 673, and associated with him this his son Richard; but, after holding it twelve years, being defeated by his nephew assisted by Adelwalch king of Suffex, he died of his wounds 685, and his son fled into Germany, where he married a daughter of Boniface archbishop of Mentz, became king of Suabia, and died and was buried at Lucca. His mother was daughter of Siger, king of Essex, and sister to Offa. *Hasted xxxiv. v. Gent. Mag.* Jan. 1799.—Lucca is thirty-four miles west of Florence, and nineteen north-north-east of Leghorn. Lat. 43. 54. N. lon. 10. 34. E.

LUC'CA, a river of Asia, which rises in Persia, and runs into the Indus about eighteen miles above the conflux with the Chunaub.

LUC'CA, or LUCKAU', a town of Lower Lusatia, in a circle to which it gives name, on the river Preste. It contains four churches, a Latin school, and an hospital. It was surrounded with walls in the twelfth century. It is fifty miles south-east of Frankfort on the Oder, and forty-nine north of Dresden. Lat. 51. 51. N. lon. 13. 40. E.

LUC'CADIVE ISLANDS. See LACCADIVE, vol. xii. p. 27.

LUCCE'IUS, a celebrated historian, asked by Cicero to write a history of his consulship. He favoured the cause of Pompey, but was afterwards pardoned by Julius Cæsar.

LUC'CI, a town of Naples, in Calabria Citra: three miles south of Bisignano.

LUC'COS, a river of Morocco, anciently called *Lixos*, which runs into the Atlantic at Laracha.

LUCE, *f.* [perhaps from *lupus*, Lat.] A pike full grown.—They give the dozen white *lucis* in their coat. *Shakspeare*.

LUCE, a river of Scotland, which runs into the sea, in a large bay, about two miles south of Glenluce.

LUCE, or GLEN'LUCE, a town of Scotland, in the county of Wigton, which owes its rise to an abbey of Cistercians, founded in 1190, called Vallis Lucis. It is situated at the northern extremity of a large bay to which it gives name. It is sixteen miles east of Portpatrick, and eighteen west of Wigton. Lat. 54. 58. N. lon. 4. 17. W.

LUCE, or GLENLUCE BAY, a large bay on the south coast of Scotland extending from the Mull of Galloway to Burrow Head. It is named from the above town of Glenluce. Lat. 54. 50. N. lon. 4. 50. W.

LUCE (St.) a cluster of small islands in the Indian Sea, near the east coast of Madagascar. Lat. 24. 30. S. lon. 47. 40. E.

*Eau de LUCE*, a kind of volatile liquid soap, of a strong penetrating smell. The following instructions will serve for making it: Take four ounces of rectified spirit of wine, and in it dissolve ten or twelve grains of white soap; filtrate this solution, then dissolve it in a dram of rectified oil of amber, and filtrate again: mix as much of this solution with the strongest volatile spirit of sal ammoniac, in a crystal-glass bottle, as, when sufficiently shaken, shall produce a beautiful milky-liquor. If upon its surface be formed a cream, some more of the oily spirit of wine ought to be added.

LUCE'A (East and West), two rivers of Jamaica, which empty themselves into Luca Harbour.

LUCE'A HARBOUR, a bay or harbour on the north side of the island of Jamaica: fourteen miles west of Montego Bay. Lat. 18. 28. N. lon. 78. 9. W.

LUCEL'LE, or LUT'ZEL, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Rhine: two miles west of Lauffen.

LUCENA, a town of Spain, in the province of Cordova; here are ten convents: twenty-nine miles south-east of Cordova, and forty north-west of Grenada. Lat. 37. 32. N. lon. 4. 29. W.

LUCE'NA, a town of Spain, in the province of Valencia: eighteen miles north-east of Segorbe.

LUCE'NA (Joam de), a Portuguese Jesuit, and one of the



the many members of that extraordinary society who have honourably distinguished themselves. He was born at Trancofo in 1550, and entered the order in the fifteenth year of his age. His talents soon raised him to the rank of a professor in Cardinal Henrique's University of Evora, a distinction which Lucena seems to have merited in the learned age of his country. He is said to have been so excellent or so popular a preacher, that, when he had ended his sermon, it was not unusual for his auditors, with one common and unpremeditated cry, to beseech him to proceed. The work which he left behind him is, in his own language, *Historia da Vida do Padre S. Francisco de Xavier, e do que fizeram na India os mais Religiozos da Companhia de Jesu*; the History of the Life of St. Francisco de Xavier, and of what the other Religious of the Company of Jesus have done in India. It was published at Lisbon in 1600, the year of his death. An Italian version appeared at Rome in 1613, and a Spanish one at Seville in 1619. It was re-edited at Lisbon in 1788, by Bento Joze de Souza Farinha, of the Royal Academy, and regius professor of philosophy, to whom his countrymen are indebted for accurate re-éditions of many old and valuable works. Lucena's history ends with the death of Xavier in 1552. After the fall of the Portuguese empire in India, the villany of the Dutch in Japan, and the folly of the Dominicans in China, a work which records the progress of Christianity in the east is read with diminished interest. The style of the book is praised by those who can best appreciate it; it contains much to edify a catholic, and some valuable information for more reasonable readers. The author was a good man, *multis virtutibus doctrinaque merito carus omnibus ac venerabilis*. He died at St. Roques, Lisbon, in his fifty-first year. *R. S. in Gen. Biog.*

LUCENAY-LES-AÏX, a town of France, in the department of the Nievre: nine miles south of Decize.

LUCENAY L'ÈVEQUE, a town of France, in the department of the Saône: seven miles north of Autun, and ten west-south-west of Arnay le Duc. Lat. 47. 5. N. lon. 4. 20. E.

LUCENT, *adj.* [*lucens*, Lat.] Shining; bright; splendid: I meant the day-star should not brighter rise,  
Nor lend like influence from his *lucent* seat. *Ben Jonson.*

LUCEN'TUM, in ancient geography, a town of Spain. Now ALICANT.

LU'CERA, a town of Naples, in Calabria Citra: seven miles south of Cofenza.

LU'CERA, or LUCERA DELLI PAGA'NI, a city of Naples, and capital of the province of Capitanata; containing four churches, and nine monasteries; the see of a bishop, suffragan of Benevento. The jurisdiction of the province is held here: it is small, but populous, and has a manufacture of cloth. It is 62 miles north-east of Naples, and 130 east of Rome. Lat. 41. 28. N. lon. 15. 16. E.

LU'CERES, *f.* A body of horse composed of Roman knights, first established by Romulus and Tatius. It received its name either from *Lucumo*, an Etrurian who assisted the Romans against the Sabines, or from *lucus*, a grove where Romulus had erected an asylum, or a place of refuge for all fugitives, slaves, homicides, &c. that he might people his city. The Luceres were some of these men, and they were incorporated with the legions. *Propertius*.

LUCE'RIUS, in mythology, a name given to Jupiter, as *Luceria* was to Juno, as the deities which gave light to the world.

LUCE'RN, *f.* A kind of artificial grass. See MEDICAGO; and the article HUSBANDRY, vol. x. p. 554.

LUCER'NA, a town of France, in the department of the Po, late belonging to Piedmont, in the province of the Four Valleys, to one of which it gives name: five miles south-west of Pinerolo.

LUCERNA'RIA, *f.* The LANTERN-WORM; in helminthology, a genus of vermes mollusca. Generic characters—Body gelatinous, shining, wrinkled, branched; mouth

beneath. There are three species, which inhabit the Northern Seas, and live among the fuci and ulvæ, generally adhering firmly to their habitation, and rarely changing their abode; they feed on polypes, or onisci; the body is commonly headless and eyeless, with granulated tubercles.

1. *Lucernaria quadricornis*, the four-horned lantern-worm: body long, coiled; with four forked arms, tentaculate at the tip. This is an animal consisting of a lump of glistening jelly, without head or eyes; it however protrudes an arm from each of the angles of the body, which is furnished with from thirty to forty tentacula, retractile, and employed in catching its prey, which it turns into an orifice in the centre of its mass of body. The tail is flexuous in the middle, and disposed in numerous plaits and folds, thickened at the base and tapering gradually, obtuse at the tip, and extensile, like the tentaculæ; mouth white with cinereous striæ, and four-toothed. This curious worm is shown in three different positions at fig. 9, 10, and 11, of the preceding Engraving; one of the forked arms at fig. 12, the four-toothed mouth at fig. 13, and one of the tentacula with its globular tip greatly magnified at fig. 14.

2. *Lucernaria phrygia*: body long, papillous, with numerous globeriferous arms deflected into an hemisphere; fixed at the base by a byffus, or mass of filaments. This is found in the Greenland Seas at a considerable depth, and seldom changes its abode. The body varies in shape; is about half an inch long, reddish, with white globules and papillæ; neck erect, exsertile, and beset with numerous exsertile papillæ; arms short, slender, and entangled together.

3. *Lucernaria auricula*: resembling an oil-flask; neck round, the lower extremities dilated and surrounded with eight fasciculi of tentacula. This species is likewise found in the Greenland Seas, adhering very firmly to the largest ulvæ, from which it rarely moves; feeds on onisci, and is about an inch and a half long. Body black or reddish, rarely chestnut-brown with a gold tinge, lubricose, glabrous, the margin surrounded with eight granulate tubercles, resembling so many fasciculi of tentacula containing about sixty in each; these are black tipped with white; mouth white. *Gmelin's Lion. Zool. Dan.*

LUCERNA'TES, *f.* in ecclesiastical history, a term used by the primitive Christians for canticles which they sung in their nocturnal assemblies; probably from these rites being performed by lamp-light.

LUCER'NE, a canton of Switzerland, bounded on the east by the cantons of Zug and Schwitz, on the south by the canton of Unterwalden, and elsewhere by the canton of Berne; about thirty miles long, and in its greatest breadth nearly as much; esteemed the largest and the first in rank among the Catholic cantons, and the third among the whole. The soil is fertile, but unequal: some parts are only fit for pastures and the cultivation of fruit, others are arable, and produce good corn; in other parts are found most of the European productions. The wine of the country is not sufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants; and of this article they purchase, every year, to the amount of 200,000 crowns from France and Baden; salt is procured from France and Bavaria. The exportation of cheese is very considerable. The ordinary food of the husbandman is potatoes, fruit, legumes, bread, and milk. The woodlands are considerable; game would be abundant if there were fewer sportsmen. Chamois, deer, hares, black foxes, badgers, and martens, are the principal wild animals. The southern part is mountainous, but nevertheless without glaciers; the mountains are covered with forests and pastures fit for cattle. Here and there are found some natural curiosities, petrified shells, lac lunæ, some metallic ores, mineral waters, pit-coal, &c. The principal lake is the Waldstätter See, or Lake of Lucerne; the principal river is the Reufs; the principal mountain is Mount Pilate, of which hereafter.

The government of Lucerne was entirely aristocratical,



or rather oligarchical. The sovereign power resided in the council of 100, comprising the senate, or little council. The great council was the nominal sovereign; but the whole power actually resided in the senate, consisting of thirty-six members, who were formed into two divisions, exercising the office by rotation. The administration of the current affairs, the care of the police, the management of the finances, and the whole executive power, resided in the senate, which sat constantly; whereas the sovereign council was assembled only upon important occasions. The senate had cognizance of criminal causes; but in case of capital condemnation the sovereign council was convoked, in order to pronounce the sentence. In civil causes, an appeal lay from the senate to the sovereign council; which, in reality, was a matter of mere form, as it was an appeal from the senators in one court to the same senators in another. The influence of the senate over the sovereign council was absolute; for they constituted above a third of that body, chose their own members, conferred the principal charges of government, and nominated to the ecclesiastical benefices, which were considerable; nearly two-thirds of the revenue of the canton belonging to the clergy. From a view of this constitution, it appears, that, when the spirit of a government is oligarchical, all laws enacted for the purpose of counteracting the power of the nobles are mere ciphers. However, in some instances, the authority of the nobles was controlled; for, in declaring war and peace, forming new alliances, or imposing taxes, the citizens were to be assembled, and to give their consent. We have entered into these particulars, because the ancient government of the cantons will probably be now restored. See HELVETIA, vol. ix. p. 375.—Lucerne being the first in rank and power among the Catholic cantons, was the residence of the pope's nuncio, and all affairs relating to religion were discussed in the annual diet, which assembled in the town, and which was composed of the deputies of those cantons.

Lucerne, though an oligarchical state, manifested, at the time of the French revolution, an aversion from all innovation. The people appeared to be satisfied with their government, and resisted all attempts to effect a change. During the progress of the revolution, Lucerne acted with great spirit, and was inclined to join in defence of her own independence, as well as in support of the Helvetic union. Even after the surrender of Bern and the desertion of Zurich, a numerous body of peasants demanded the re-establishment of the ancient government, and joined the troops of the small cantons to resist the entrance of the French; and the whole canton did not acquiesce without much opposition and bloodshed. At length a corps of French, after a short investment, entered the town of Lucerne, and reduced the people to unconditional submission. Soon after this event, Lucerne became the seat of the new Helvetic government. According to the constitution of the 29th of May, 1801, Lucerne was one of the seventeen departments, or cantons, into which Switzerland was divided: it retained its former extent, and deputed five representatives to the diet.

LUCERNE, the capital of the above-described canton, a small, tolerably-built, walled, trading-town, containing about 3300 inhabitants, and agreeably situated on a plain almost environed by hills, at the efflux of the river Reufs from the lake of Lucerne, and at the north-west extremity of the lake: thirty miles south-west of Zurich, and forty east of Bern. The cathedral and Jesuits' church are the only public buildings worthy of notice; but they are overloaded with rich ornaments, and disgraced by bad paintings. In the cathedral is an organ of fine tone, and extraordinary size; the centre pipe is forty feet long, near three in diameter, and weighs 1100 pounds. The bridges which skirt the town, round the edge of the lake, are the fashionable walks of the place, and remarkable for their length; being covered at the top, and open at the sides, they afford a constant view of the delightful and romantic country; they are decorated with coarse paintings, repre-

senting the histories of the Old Testament, the Battles of the Swiss, and the Dance of Death. In the Wasserthurm-tower, the treasure of the republic is deposited. The arsenal is well furnished with arms. What greatly attracts the notice of most strangers is, a plan in relief of part of the cantons of Lucerne, Zug, and Berne, and the whole of Schweitz, Uri, and Unterwald, executed by general Pfiffer on a large scale. He has completed about sixty square leagues; the plan is twelve feet long, and nine and a half broad; every mountain is accurately measured; and every object distinctly placed. Lucerne is a thoroughfare from Italy by Mount St. Gothard; but it has no manufacture of consequence, and little commerce. Of late, the principles of toleration have been better understood and more widely diffused than they were formerly; and a literary society has been established for the promotion of polite learning. The lake is bounded towards the town of Lucerne by cultivated hills sloping gradually to the water, contrasted on the opposite side by an enormous mass of barren and craggy rocks. Lat. 46. 56. N. lon. 8. 6. E.

Near the town of Lucerne is Mount Pilate, formerly called Mons *Pileatus*, from the Latin word *pilea*, because its top is generally covered with a cloud or cap. This word has been corrupted into Pilatus, whence some have ridiculously contended that Pontius Pilate, after having condemned our Saviour to death, was seized with remorse, made an excursion into Switzerland, and drowned himself in a lake at the top of the mountain. At the elevation of 5000 feet, and in the most perpendicular part of this mountain, near the pasture of Brunlen, is observed, in the middle of a cavern hollowed in a black rock, a colossal statue, which appears to be of white stone. It is the figure of a man, in drapery, leaning one elbow on a pedestal, with one leg crossed over the other; and so regularly formed, that it can scarcely be a lusus nature. This statue is called Dominic by the peasants, who frequently accost it from the only place in which it can be seen; and, when their voices are re-echoed from the cavern, they say, in the simplicity of their hearts, "Dominic has answered us." It is difficult to imagine by whom, or in what manner, this statue could be placed in a situation which has hitherto proved inaccessible to all who have endeavoured to approach it. This is, perhaps, one of the highest mountains in Switzerland, if estimated from its base, and not from the level of the sea; its elevation above the lake being more than 6000 feet. Soon after the French took possession of Lucerne, general Brune erected, with great solemnity, the standard of liberty on the top of Mount Pilate; thus, as Coxe says, conferring on the Swiss the shadow, while he deprived them of the substance, of freedom. *Coxe's Switzerland*, vol. i.

LUCERNE (Lake of), in the Swiss canton of that name, (also called the Vierwaldstatter Sea,) is situated 1320 feet above the level of the sea, according to Pfiffer; 1314, according to De Luc; 1350, according to Trembley; and 1392 feet, according to Wyfs. The river Reufs enters it at Fluelin, and is again emitted near Lucerne. This most romantic of all lakes is surrounded by rocks, consisting partly of lime-stone, partly of the calcareous breccia, called nagelfluhe, and by sand-stone mountains. The line of demarcation between these two formations of rocks runs in a direction from east to west; to the south of this line nothing is seen but lime-stone, and nothing but calcareous breccia and sand-stone in a northern direction. The lake of Lucerne exhibits greater variety and more picturesque scenery than any other of the Swiss lakes. It is seven leagues long in a right line, and three wide about Kuffnacht; but the shape is very irregular. The whole south side is bordered by high mountains; but the north exhibits hills of no great height. The narrow gulf that extends towards the west, is bordered on the west and north-west by Mount Pilate, and on the south by Mount Birgenberg. Stanz Stadt, belonging to the canton of Unterwald, is on this side; and hereabouts the



lake is deepest. Kuffnacht is on the point of the other gulf, which extends towards the east, and is wider than the former. All the country to the west of these gulfs, and part of it to the north of the latter, belongs to the canton of Lucerne; but that which is to the south and north-east is dependent on the canton of Zug. All the mountains on the left shore of the lake belong to the canton of Underwald; those on the right, partly to the canton of Uri, partly to that of Schwytz, partly to the little republic of Gerfau, but principally to the canton of Lucerne.

**LUCERNE, f.** A lamp, or candle; a light in general. *Obsolete.*

**LE'CEY**, a town of France, in the department of the Meurte: three miles north-west of Toul, and thirteen south-south-west of Pont a Mousson.

**LU'CEY**, a town of France, in the department of Mont Blanc, on the Rhône: fifteen miles north-west of Chambery.

**LUCEY LE BOIS**, a town of France, in the department of the Yonne, and chief place of a canton, in the district of Avallon. The place contains 830, and the canton 7886, inhabitants.

**LUCHEU'X**, a town of France, in the department of the Somme: four miles north-east of Doullens, and fifteen south-west of Arras.

**LUCH'NOW HILLS**, a range of mountains in Hindoostan, between the circars of Ruttanpour and Goondwana; the passage over which is called *Luchnow Pass*, and is situated about eight miles west of Kyragur.

**LUCH'O**, a town of Pomerelia: twelve miles south-west of Dantzig.

**LUCH'O**, a town of the principality of Lunenburg, on the Jetze; being situated in a marshy soil, most of the houses are built on piles: fifty-four miles north-east of Zell, and forty east-south-east of Lunenburg. Lat. 52. 58. N. lon. 11. 17. E.

**LUCH'OWICZE**, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Novogrodek: forty miles south-south-east of Novogrodek.

**LU'CHY**, a town of France, in the department of the Oise: nine miles north of Beauvais.

**LU'CIA**, or **LU'CY**, the name of a woman.

**LU'CIA (St.)**, so called from its having been discovered on St. Lucia's day, one of the Charaibe or Caribbee islands in the West-Indies, about twenty-seven miles in length from north to south, and twelve broad. In this island are several hills, two of which are remarkably round and high, and said to have been volcanoes. At the foot of these hills are fine valleys, well-watered, and having a good soil, that produces trees, the timber of which serves the planters of Martinico and Barbadoes for building their houses and windmills. The island also supplies plenty of cocoa and fustic. The air, fanned by the trade-winds, which, by the arrangement of the hills, are admitted into the island, and thus moderating the heat, is reckoned salubrious. The island has several good harbours and bays, which afford commodious anchorage; particularly the Little Carénage, which is accounted the best in all the Caribbees, and which induced the French to prefer it to the other neutral islands. This harbour possesses several advantages, such as its depth, the excellent quality of its bottom, and its convenient careening places. Thirty ships of the line may lie here, sheltered from hurricanes, without the trouble of mooring them. As to the other harbours, the winds are always favourable for going out, and the largest squadron may be in the offing in less than an hour. In the island are nine parishes, eight to the leeward, and only one to the windward. A high road is made round the island, and two others which cross it from east to west, and thus afford an easy conveyance of the commodities of the plantations to the barcades, or landing-places.

After the English had been settled for some time in this island, the Charaibes, instigated by the French, in the year

1638, either killed or drove from the island the English settlers with their governor. When the civil wars broke out in England, a party of French arrived here, under a person named Rouffelan, well provided with stores and ammunition. Rouffelan recommended himself to the Charaibes by marrying one of their women; so that he and his colony carried on an advantageous trade; but, upon his death in 1654, he was succeeded by one La Riviere, who, with his whole colony, was massacred by the Charaibes. It is needless to recount the attempts made by the French, and also by the English in 1672, and at a later period in 1723, to obtain and preserve a settlement in this island. At length, when the English were compelled to relinquish all hopes of obtaining this and other islands by force, St. Vincent, Dominica, Tobago, and St. Lucia, were declared neutral by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748; and those who remained of the ancient proprietors were left in unmolested possession. The treaty of neutrality was no sooner concluded, than both English and French appeared dissatisfied with the arrangement they had made. The English, in particular, discovered, that by acceding to the compromise, they had given up St. Lucia, an island worth all the rest, and to which, it must be owned, they had some colourable pretensions, founded on a treaty entered into with the Charibbean inhabitants in 1664, six hundred of whom attended an armament that was sent thither by lord Willoughby, and actually put the English publicly and formally into possession. By the peace of Paris, February 1763, the three islands of Dominica, St. Vincent, and Tobago, were assigned to Great Britain; and St. Lucia to France in full and perpetual sovereignty; the Charibbes not being once mentioned in the whole transaction, as if no such people existed. From this time, the colony flourished considerably. In the beginning of the year 1772, the number of white people amounted to 2018 souls, men, women, and children; that of the blacks to 663 free men, and 12,795 slaves. The cattle consisted of 928 mules or horses, 2070 head of horned cattle, and 3184 sheep or goats. There were thirty-eight fugar plantations, which occupied 978 pieces of land; 5,595,889 coffee-trees; 1,321,600 cocoa-plants; and 367 plots of cotton. There were 706 dwelling-places. The annual revenue at that time was about 175,000*l.* which, according to the abbé Raynal, must have increased one-eighth yearly for some time. The English took this island in the year 1779, but restored it at the peace in 1783; it was retaken by the English in 1794, restored in 1795, and retaken in 1796; restored at the peace of Amiens; recaptured in 1803; and secured to Great Britain by the treaty of Paris, May 30, 1814.

The soil of St. Lucia is tolerably good, even at the seaside; and is much better the farther we advance into the country. The whole of it is capable of cultivation, except some high and craggy mountains, which bear evident marks of old volcanoes. In one deep valley there are still eight or ten ponds, the water of which boils up in a dreadful manner, and retains some of its heat at the distance of 6000 toises from its reservoirs. The air in the inland parts, like that of all other uninhabited counties, is foul and unwholesome; but grows less noxious as the woods are cleared and the ground laid open. On some parts of the sea-coast, the air is still more unhealthy, on account of some small rivers which spring from the foot of the mountains, and have not sufficient slope to wash down the sands with which the influx of the ocean stops up their mouths, by which means they spread themselves into unwholesome marshes on the neighbouring grounds. Lat. 13. 37. N. lon. 60. 30. W.

**LU'CIA (St.)** a high and mountainous island of Africa, and one of those of Cape Verde, is about nine leagues long, and lies in the latitude of 16. 18. N. according to the English geographers; but, according to all others, it is a degree farther to the northward. On the east-south-east side is a harbour, with a bottom and shore of white sand; but its best road is opposite St. Vincent's to the south-









LUCIAN.

*London. Published as the Act directs. May. 1784. by G. Jones.*



south-west, where there are at least twenty fathoms of water. On the west side there is no water: it abounds with goats, sea and land fowl, tortoises, &c. but whether it hath any inhabitants is not certainly known.

LU'CIA (St.) a town of Sicily, in the valley of Demona; seven miles north of Messina.—Also, a town of the island of Corsica; six miles north-east of Corte.—Also, a town of South America, in the government of Buenos Ayres, on the east side of the river Plata; 140 miles north of Santa Fé.—Also a town of Brasil, in the government of Goyas, on the river Tocantins. Lat. 12. 20. S.—Also, a town of South America, in the government of Buenos Ayres, on the Parana; 110 miles south of Corientes.—Also a town of Peru, in the government of Arequipa; fifty miles south-east of Arequipa.—Also, a town of South America, in the audience of Quito, on the Daulé; thirty-five miles north-north-west of Guayaquil.—Also, a town of Italy, in the Trevisan; twenty miles east-south-east of Treviso.—Also, a river of Africa, which runs into the Indian Sea in lat. 28. S.—Also a river of America, in East Florida, which runs south-east along the east side of the peninsula, and communicates inland with the Indian river.—A bay on the east coast of the island of Borneo. Lat. 4. 16. N. lon. 117. 18. E.

LU'CIAN, a distinguished Greek writer, was a native of Samosata, the capital of Comagene, on the banks of the Euphrates. He was born in the reign of Trajan, of mean parentage; and in his youth was placed with an uncle to learn the art of statuary. Having contracted a disgust for this employment by the bad success of his first attempts, he withdrew from his master, and went to Antioch, where he engaged in literary studies; and afterwards improved himself so much by travelling, that no man now-a-days can distinguish him from a native Athenian. He taught rhetoric in Gaul and other places. In Antioch he was a pleader at the bar. In this profession he took a dislike to noise and lying; and sat down to write dialogues on the folly of mankind. He was about forty years of age when he began to imagine himself wiser than the philosophers of his time, with whose respective lives and opinions he was well enough acquainted to have abundant matter for ridicule. He makes continual allusions to Homer, perhaps thinking himself, like Persius, a wiser man than the writer of an Iliad: "Hoc ridere meum, tam nil, nullâ tibi vendo Iliade." In his old age he was appointed to some place of consequence under the emperor in Egypt, though it is not easy to determine exactly what. He married when somewhat advanced in age; and had a son, who was a favourite with Julian the Apostate: a letter of that emperor to him is still extant: the same talents that recommended the father to Aurelius, appear to have been possessed in some degree by the son. It is most probable that Lucian died about the year 180, at the age of ninety; and it is more likely that he died of the gout than that he was devoured by dogs enraged to find an apostate. The story of his embracing and afterwards renouncing the Christian religion, with that dreadful consequence, seems to have been the invention of some bigot absurd enough to dream of an alliance between truth and falsehood. Zuingerus has disposed of Lucian's body and soul to his heart's content: "Quare et rabiei istius poenas sufficientes in presenti vita dedit, et in futurum hæres æterni ignis una cum Satana erit."

The works of Lucian, of which a large number have reached our times, consist of a variety of pieces, narrative, rhetorical, critical, and satirical, partly in the historical and dialectical form, but principally in that of dialogue. Of these, the most popular, and those which have stamped his character as a writer, are such as are distinguished by a vein of humour employed in ridiculing the heathen mythology, or the sects of philosophers which then divided the schools of Greece. He is accounted the principal master of witty raillery among the ancients; and ranks with Swift and Voltaire among the moderns, though his satire is less delicate and ingenious than theirs. Some of

his keenest strokes against false religion and philosophy are put into the mouth of the Cynics, Diogenes and Menippus. He himself seems to have adopted no particular system, but to have been the general foe of imposture and superstition in all. As the Epicurean sect concurred with him in this respect, he treats it with more favour than the rest. He likewise frequently assumes the strong sense and acuteness of the Socratics. The Christian religion comes in for a share of his ridicule; but he appears to have been acquainted with it only in the garb of mystery and fanaticism. The style of Lucian being more pure than that of his contemporaries, two or three of the most celebrated fathers are reported to have improved themselves in composition by studying his works, and to have turned the artillery of his wit against his own party. Those who are conversant with the fathers may possibly know where this wit is written. Like his brother satirists, he is little restricted by truth and moderation in his sarcasms, and readily admits calumnious reports relative to eminent characters. Some of his pieces offend against decency; but in general he is a friend to morality. He is the only ancient writer who has dared to doubt of the musical abilities of swans. He tells us, with his usual pleasantry, that he tried to ascertain the fact by making a voyage on the coasts of Italy; and that, being arrived at the mouth of the Po, he and his friends had the curiosity to sail up the river, in order to ask the watermen and inhabitants concerning the tragical fate of Phaeton; and to examine the poplars, descendants of his sisters, whom they expected to shed amber instead of tears; as well as to see the swans represent the friends of this unfortunate prince, and hear them sing lamentations and sorrowful hymns, night and day, to his praise, as they used to do, in the character of musicians and favourites of Apollo, before their change. However, these good people, who never had heard of any such metamorphoses, freely confessed, that they had indeed sometimes seen swans in the marshes near the river, and had heard them croak and scream in such a disagreeable manner, that crows and jays would be sirens, compared with them; but that they had never even dreamed of swans singing a single note that was pleasing, or fit to be heard.

The best editions of Lucian's works entire are those of Bourdelot, Paris, folio, 1615; of Grævius, Amst. 2 vols. 8vo. 1687; of Reitzius, Amst. 4 vols. 4to. 1743, and the Bipontine, 10 vols. 8vo. 1789-93. Editions of his select dialogues, and of other detached pieces, are extremely numerous, and much used in schools. Lucian has been translated into French by d'Ablandcourt and others. There is an English translation which bears the name of Dryden, perhaps from a sense of justice to some bookseller, who had paid a sum of money, that it might be called so. The translation by Mr. Francis Hickes appears, by the language, to have been made about the beginning of the 17th century. At least it was before that of Jasper Mayne, done in 1638, and published in 1664. Their translations taken together extend to only a small part of Lucian. Spence, according to lord Dorset, "was so cunning a translator, that a man must read the original to understand the version." These are all the English translations of Lucian that we have seen previous to that of Mr. John Carr, who at first published a selection from the Dialogues in a single volume: this coming to a second edition in the year 1774, he was induced to publish a second volume in 1779, when he again took leave of his readers; a third volume, however, appeared in 1786; and a fourth and fifth, completing the translation, in 1798. *Vossii Hist. Græc. Carr's Preface.*

LU'CIAN, an eminent Christian martyr in the fourth century, according to the most unexceptionable authorities, was a native of Antioch, of which place he became presbyter. From the testimonies of St. Jerome, Eusebius, and Sozomen, it appears that he was a very learned and pious man, of an unblemished and excellent character in all respects, of great eloquence, and particularly well skilled in the knowledge of the Scriptures. He published



an edition of the Septuagint, with corrections suggested by a collation of ancient copies; which version was generally used, in Jerome's time, by the churches from Constantinople to Antioch. Lucian also published an edition of the New Testament, the canon of which appears to have been much the same with that of other Christians. Jerome, however, does not commend these editions, but accuses them of containing readings and interpolations not warranted by good authorities; and he depreciates Lucian's Septuagint in comparison with Origen's, which last he himself followed in his translation of the Old Testament from the Greek. During the persecution of the Christians in the reign of Maximin, Lucian was taken into custody, and conducted to Nicomedia, where the emperor then was. Here, in the presence of the emperor, he was commanded to renounce the Christian faith; which he steadily refused, and delivered an eloquent and able apology for it. Upon this he was sent to prison, where he was put to death; but in what manner we are not precisely informed. In St. Jerome's time there were extant some small treatises of his concerning the faith, and some letters; of which there are no remains now in existence excepting a fragment of one letter preserved in the Paschal Chronicle, if that be genuine. As to the creed or formulary of faith concerning the Trinity, which is sometimes called Lucian's, its claim to genuineness cannot be reconciled with the testimony of antiquity. In "the Acts of Lucian," inserted in the first volume of Bollandus's *Acta Sanctorum*, many additional circumstances are mentioned respecting Lucian, which are either evidently fabulous, or contradictory to the established truth of history; and are therefore undeserving of notice.

LUCIA'NA, a town of Spain, in the country of Seville: eight miles west-north-west of Ecija.

LUCIANA'NO, a town of Etruria: twelve miles west of Cortona.

LUCIANISTS, or LUCANISTS, *f.* A religious sect, so called from Lucianus, or Lucanus, a heretic of the second century, being a disciple of Marcion, whose errors he followed, adding some new ones to them. Epiphanius says, he abandoned Marcion; teaching, that people ought not to marry for fear of enriching the Creator: and yet other authors maintain, that he held this error in common with Marcion, and other Gnostics. He denied the immortality of the soul; asserting it to be material.

There was another sect of Lucianists, who appeared some time after the Arians. They taught that the Father had been a Father always, and that he had the name even before he begot the Son, as having in him the power or faculty of generation; and in this manner they accounted for the eternity of the Son.

LUCIA'NO, a town of Spain, in New Castile: nineteen miles west of Ciudad Real.

LUCIBLE, *adj.* Capable of shining; apt to shine. *Cole.*

LUCID, *adj.* Shining; bright; glittering:

The pearly shell its *lucid* globe unfold,  
And Phœbus warm the rip'ning ore to gold. *Pope.*

Pellucid; transparent.—On the transparent side of a globe, half silver and half of a transparent metal, we saw certain strange figures circularly drawn, and thought we could touch them, till we found our fingers stopped by that *lucid* substance. *Gulliver's Travels.*

On the fertile banks  
Of Abbana and Pharpar, *lucid* streams. *Milton.*

Bright with the radiance of intellect; not darkened with madness.—A few sensual and voluptuous persons may, for a season, eclipse this native light of the soul; but can never so wholly smother and extinguish it, but that, at some *lucid* intervals, it will recover itself again, and shine forth to the conviction of their conscience. *Bentley.*

Some beams of wit on other souls may fall,  
Strike through and make a *lucid* interval;

But Shadwell's genuine night admits no ray,  
His rising fogs prevail upon the day. *Dryden.*

LUCIDA CORO'NÆ, in astronomy, a fixed star of the second magnitude in the Northern Crown. See CORONA BOREALIS.

LUCIDA HY'DRÆ. See COR HYDRÆ, vol. v.

LUCIDA LY'RÆ, a bright star of the first magnitude in the constellation *Lyra*.

LUCID'ITY, or LU'CIDNESS, *f.* Splendour; brightness.

LU'CIDO (St.), a town of Naples, in Calabria Citra: eleven miles west-north-west of Cosenza.

LU'CIENSTEIG (St.), a very narrow pass from the country of the Grisons into Germany. At this place all merchandise and goods pay a toll to the Grisons. It is defended by a fort: three miles north of Meyenfeld.

LU'CIFER, the name of the planet Venus, or morning star. It is called *Lucifer* when appearing in the morning before the sun; but, when it follows it, and appears some time after its setting, it is called *Hesperus*. According to some mythologists, Lucifer was son of Jupiter and Aurora.

LU'CIFER, in the holy Scripture, is taken, 1. for the morning-star; 2. for Jesus Christ, who is the light of the world; 3. for the devil, who by the fathers is often called Lucifer. Zophar says to Job, "If thou art innocent, thou shalt shine forth as the morning-(star)." Job. xi. 17. Isaiah, xiv. 12, &c. speaks of the fall of Lucifer; *How art thou fallen from Heaven, O Lucifer, son of the morning!* In this way several fathers, and other commentators, have explained it; but others are of opinion that it literally refers to the king of Babylon, who fell from his state of glory and elevation, and was cast headlong into hell; i. e. into *hades*, the state of the dead. St. Peter (2 Pet. i. 19.) tells the faithful, that "they have the sure word of prophecy whereunto they do well that take heed, as unto a light that shineth in a dark place, until the day dawn, and the day-star arise in their hearts." This *day-star*, this *light*, set in opposition to the oracles of the preceding prophets, and over which they have so much advantage by its clearness, denotes the Gospel and doctrine of Jesus Christ. Some are of opinion, that Phosphorus and Lucifer signify the sun. The Arabians call Lucifer *Eblis*; and likewise *Azazel*, which is the name of the scape-goat that was driven into the wilderness, loaded with the sins of the Jewish people. They relate, that the angels, having God's order to fall prostrate before Adam immediately after his Creation, all complied, except *Eblis*, who obstinately refused, alleging, that, he and his companions having been derived from the element of fire, which is much purer and more excellent than that of earth, whereof Adam was formed, it was not just that they should be obliged to pay homage to their inferior. Whereupon God said to him, "Be gone from hence; for thou shalt be deprived for ever of my peace, and shalt be cursed to the day of judgment." *Eblis* desired of God that he would grant him respite till the time of the general resurrection; but all the delay he could obtain, was till the sound of the first trumpet; that is to say, forty years after. *Eblis* therefore died according to the Mahometans, but he will hereafter rise with all men, in order to be plunged in flames. I relate all these idle traditions only to shew, that the theology of the eastern people is but a corruption of Christianity. *Cabnet's Dict. of the Bible.*

LU'CIFER, the celebrated bishop of Cagliari, or Calaris as the ancients wrote it, the metropolitan city of the island of Sardinia, flourished in the fourth century. He was one of the deputies sent by pope Liberius to Milan in the year 354, whither the emperor Constantius had summoned a council for the purpose of condemning Athanasius. At that council Lucifer and Eusebius bishops of Vercell adhered most strenuously to the cause of the Alexandrian prelate, whom they defended with undaunted courage. Provoked at their firmness, which few had the  
spirit



spirit or integrity to imitate, the emperor banished them into the East. Lucifer's place of exile was at first at Germanicia, a city in Syria; whence he was afterwards removed to Eleutheropolis in Palestine, where he resided for the longest period. Here he wrote two books in defence of Athanasius and his supporters, against the emperor Constantius, with so much boldness, and even indecent violence, that, as St. Jerome observes, when he wrote them, his mind must have been prepared to suffer martyrdom. These books he not only published, but sent a copy of them to Constantius to be presented to him in his own name. Astonished at his intrepidity, the emperor delivered them to Florentius, grand master of his palace, to send them to Lucifer, that he might either acknowledge or disavow them. Without hesitation the bishop openly declared himself to be the author, and wrote to Florentius that he was ready to suffer death in defence of what he had written and done. But, if he courted the honours of martyrdom, he did not obtain them. About this time Athanasius sent a deacon to him, with a letter of thanks for the service which he had rendered the catholic cause, and requesting a copy of his works, which he either translated himself, or caused to be translated, from the Latin into Greek. On the death of Constantius, Lucifer, who with his fellow-sufferer Eusebius, had been exiled into the upper Thebais, recovered his liberty in common with the other catholic bishops, and came to Antioch, where the Catholics were divided into two parties. Instead of contributing to heal the breach, Lucifer widened it, by joining with the opponents of the bishop Meletius, who, though a Catholic, was ordained by bishops suspected of Arianism, and had communicated with them; and he intemperately ordained Paulinus, a presbyter among the malcontents, to the episcopal office. This step was condemned by his friend Eusebius of Verceil, who had been sent to Antioch by the synod of Alexandria, with the view of re-establishing the peace of that church. But Lucifer, determined to maintain what he had done, indignantly withdrew from the communion of Eusebius; and formed a party, called after him *Luciferians*, who resolved to avoid all commerce or fellowship with those bishops who had declared themselves in favour of the Arians, or acceded to the act of absolution, which the Catholic world in general had passed in favour of those who in the time of Constantius had deserted to the Arians. Lucifer and his followers, it seems, were willing to receive the laity who came over from the Arians, upon renouncing their error; but they would not consent that bishops, who had complied with the Arians, should be received as such. They might, upon their returning to the Catholics, be received as laymen; but they were not any more to officiate in the church. With this resolution Lucifer withdrew into Sardinia, and produced a schism in the church; which spread very widely, but did not obtain numerous adherents, and does not appear to have outlived the current century. Lucifer is supposed to have died in the year 370. His works are written without art and eloquence, with much heat and passion, and in a harsh and barbarous style. Dupin pronounces them to be "nothing but a collection of passages of Scripture, mixed with apostrophes, applications, and reflections." They were collected together, and published at Paris by John Till, bishop of Meaux, in 1568, 2vo. *Fabricii Bibl. Eccl. Cave's Hist. Lit. Lardner's Cred.*

**LUCIFERA**, in mythology, a surname given to Diana, under which title she was invoked by the Greeks in child-bed. She was represented as covered with a large veil, interspersed with stars, bearing a crescent on her head, and holding in her hand a lighted flambeau.

**LUCIFERIAN**, *adj.* [from *Lucifer*.] Belonging to Lucifer; proud; haughty. *Bailey*.

**LUCIFERIAN**, *f.* A religious sect, who adhered to the schism of Lucifer, bishop of Cagliari, who was banished by the emperor Constantius, for having defended the Nigenic doctrine concerning the three persons in the God-VOL. XIII. No. 941.

head. St. Augustine seems to intimate, that they believed the soul, which they considered as of a carnal nature, to be transmitted to the children from their fathers. The Luciferians increased mightily in Gaul, Spain, Egypt, &c. The occasion of the schism was, that Lucifer would not allow any acts he had done to be abolished. There were but two Luciferian bishops, but a great number of priests and deacons. The Luciferians bore a peculiar aversion to the Arians.

**LUCIFEROUS**, *adj.* [*lucifer*, Lat.] Giving light; affording means of discovery.—The experiment is not ignoble; and *luciferous* enough, as showing a new way to produce a volatile salt. *Boyle*.

**LUCIFIC**, *adj.* [*lux* and *facio*, Lat.] Making light; producing light.—When made to converge, and so mixed together; though their *lucific* motion be continued, yet by interfering, that equal motion, which is the colorific, is interrupted. *Grewo*.

**LUCIFUGOUS**, *adj.* [from the Lat. *lux*, light, and *fugo*, to fly.] Shunning the light; flying from the light. *Scott*.

**LUCIG'ENOUS**, *adj.* [from the Lat. *lux*, light, and *gigno*, to beget.] Begotten in the day-time; born in the day-time. *Scott*.

**LUCILIUS** (Caius), a Roman poet, was born at Suessa in the country of the Aurunci, about B. C. 148. He was of a good family, and was great-uncle to Pompey the Great. In the Numantine war he bore arms under Scipio Africanus the Younger, with whom and his friend Lælius he lived upon familiar terms. It is said in the Eusebian Chronicle, that he died at Naples B. C. 103, at the age of forty-six; but this is probably a mistake, since Horace speaks of him as an old man, and Aulus Gellius mentions him as citing the Licinian Law, which was not passed till five or six years after the alleged time of his death. Lucilius rendered himself famous as the first Latin satirist, at least the first of note; and his verses appear to have been extremely popular in Rome. From Horace, who refers to them several times in his own satires, we learn that he imitated the old Greek comedians in marking out by his censure individuals notorious for their vices, though of the highest rank; being (says this poet) *Uni aequus Virtuti, atque ejus amicis*; "To Virtue only and her friends a friend." Horace, however, describes him as harsh and negligent in his verification, hasty, and unwilling to submit to the toil of correctness. He was likewise censured for the frequent mixture of Greek with Latin words. He appears to have been a great egotist, committing (says Horace) "all his secrets to his books, whence the whole life of the old man is displayed, as in a votive tablet." He was a keen and vehement satirist; who, according to the metaphor of Juvenal, pursued the guilty "sword in hand." Of his thirty books of verses only some scattered fragments are come down to modern times. These were published separately, with annotations by Francis Douza, in 4to. Amst. 1593; reprinted at Padua, 1713. The fragments are also given in Mattaire's *Corpus Poetarum. Vossii Poet. Lat.*

**LUCILLA**, a Roman lady, the daughter of Marcus Aurelius, celebrated for the virtues of her youth, her beauty, her debaucheries, and her misfortunes. At the age of sixteen her father sent her to Syria to marry the emperor Verus, who was then employed in a war with the Parthians and Armenians. The conjugal virtues of Lucilla were great at first; but, when she saw Verus plunge himself into debauchery and dissipation, she followed his example, and prostituted herself. At her return to Rome, she saw the incestuous commerce of her husband with her mother, &c. and at last poisoned him. She afterwards married an old but virtuous senator, by order of her father; and was not ashamed soon to gratify the criminal sensualities of her brother Commodus. The coldness and indifference with which Commodus treated her afterwards determined her on revenge; and she, with many illustrious senators, conspired against his life, A. D. 185. The plot was discovered; Lucilla



was banished, and soon after put to death by her brother, in the 38th year of her age.

LUCINA, a goddess, daughter of Jupiter and Juno. As her mother brought her into the world without pain, she became the goddess whom women in labour invoked, and she presided over the birth of children. She receives this name either from *lucus*, or from *lux*, as Ovid explains it:

*Gratia Lucina, dedit hæc tibi nomine lucus;  
Aut quia principium tu, dea, lucis habes.*

Some suppose her to be the same as Diana and Juno, because these two goddesses were also sometimes called Lucina, and presided over the labours of women. She is called *Ilithya* by the Greeks. She had a famous temple at Rome. *Ovid. Fast.*

LUCINISSA, a town of Germany, in the county of Goritz: four miles south of Goritz.

LUCINIUM, *f.* in botany. See AMYRIS.

LUCINO, a river of Naples, which runs into the gulf of Tarento in lat. 39.40. N. lon. 16.50. E.

LU'CIO (St.) a town of Etruria; fourteen miles east-fourth-east of Leghorn.

LUCIPA'RA, or LUSIPARA, a small barren island, in the Eastern Indian Sea, near the south coast of the island of Banca. Lat. 3.14. S. lon. 106.20. E.

LUCITO, a town of Naples, in the county of Molise; eleven miles north-east of Molise.

LU'CIUS, a man's name.

LU'CIUS, a Scripture-name, mentioned Rom. xvi. 21. and styled St. Paul's kinsman, is, say some, the same as Lucius the Cyrenian; but the generality with more reason distinguish them; and others again suppose him and St. Luke to be the same person, which seems very credible. See LUKE.

LU'CIUS OF CYRE'NE, mentioned Acts xiii. 1. was one of the prophets of the Christian church at Antioch. Some believe Lucius to have been one of the seventy. Ufuardus and Ado assert, that the apostles ordained him first bishop of Cyrene. The Latins honour him on the 6th of May.

LU'CIUS I. (Pope), succeeded to the see of Rome upon the death of Cornelius, in the year 252. In this statement Jerom and Eusebius concur; while the latter adds, that he did not preside over the Roman church quite eight months. At present, the day of his ordination and the duration of his episcopate are reckoned uncertain. Bishop Pearson thought it probable, that he was ordained on the twenty-fifth of September, and sat five whole months and ten days, dying on the fourth of March 253; which hypothesis nearly agrees with the conjectures of other modern writers. He was banished from Rome immediately after his ordination, under the reign of Gallus; but he soon returned, to the great joy of his flock, who crowded to meet him. On this occasion St. Cyprian wrote him a letter, congratulating him upon his return from his exile, as he says he had done before upon his ordination and confession. In this letter St. Cyprian observes, that he was perhaps recalled to be immolated in the sight of his flock, that they might be encouraged and animated by his Christian constancy and resolution. In a letter afterwards written to pope Stephen, Cyprian calls Lucius a *martyr*; but the ancient writers are silent on the subject of his death; and perhaps the expression is not to be understood strictly, but would be more properly rendered a *confessor*.

LU'CIUS II. (Pope), formerly called *Gerard de Caccianemici*, was raised to that dignity on the death of Celestine II. in the year 1144. He was a native of Bologna, who embraced the ecclesiastical life among the canons regular of St. Augustine. In the year 1125, pope Honorius II. created him a cardinal, by the title of Cardinal of the holy cross at Jerusalem, and appointed him librarian of the Roman church. By pope Innocent II. he was nominated chancel-

lor of the same. Being made governor of Beneventum by pope Innocent, in 1132, he bravely defended that city against the army of Roger king of Sicily. A little before the death of Innocent II. the Romans threw off the papal yoke in temporal matters, restoring the senate, and creating their own magistrates, to whom alone they would yield obedience. This attempt to recover their ancient liberties they persisted in after the election of Lucius, whom they acknowledged for lawful pope, but would not own him for their sovereign. They maintained that it was inconsistent with the profession of the clergy, that they should possess lordships, estates, or temporal dominion; and that they ought to content themselves with such decent subsistence as they might derive from voluntary tithes and oblations. To Lucius, as their bishop, they paid all due respect; but soon after his election, assembling in the capitol, they vested the patrician dignity in one of their own body, and submitted to him as their prince. In these circumstances, finding himself unable to oppose them, Lucius wrote to Conrad king of Germany, imploring his protection in very humble terms. At the same time the Romans also sent letters and an embassy to that prince, to invite him to take possession of the metropolis of the empire, which they had rescued from the slavery under which it had long groaned, and were ready to deliver up to him as their liege lord and sovereign. They likewise entreated him to fix his residence at Rome, and to restore that city, which had been the seat of the empire till it was usurped by the popes, to its ancient splendour. These transactions remind us of some recent events. To their application Conrad paid no regard; but he treated cardinal Guido, the bearer of the pope's letter, with the utmost marks of respect, and expressed great concern at not being in a condition to send his holiness any assistance. Notwithstanding that Lucius was thus deprived of all hope of relief from the king of Germany, yet, being able no longer to brook the haughty behaviour of the senate and their patrician, who treated him as their subject, he determined, with the assistance of his friends in Rome and the neighbourhood, to attempt the recovery of his temporal power. Accordingly, having assembled a body of troops, he put himself at their head, and marched against the Capitol, where the senate was sitting. He met, however, with so vigorous a resistance from the Roman people, that his troops were repulsed; and, while he was endeavouring to encourage them, he received so severe a wound from a stone, that he died a few days afterwards. This event took place in February 1145, after a pontificate of between eleven and twelve months. Ten of his Letters are extant in the tenth vol. of the Collect. Concil. and two in the second volume of Baluze's *Miscellanea*. *Cave's Hist. Lit.* vol. ii

LU'CIUS III. (pope), originally named *Humbaldo Allucingoli*, was a native of Lucca. Having been educated to the church, he first obtained a canonry in the cathedral of that city; and in the year 1142 was created cardinal-priest by Innocent II. Adrian IV. sent him legate into Sicily, where he maintained the interests of the holy see with great zeal and prudence, and on his return was nominated bishop of Ostia. In the year 1177, pope Alexander III. appointed him his legate to the emperor Frederic Barbarossa, where by his negotiations he prepared the way for the reconciliation which took place between the emperor and the pope at Venice, in the same year. About that time we find that he was dean of the sacred college. In the year 1181, upon the death of Alexander III. Humbaldo was chosen his successor in the papacy, and at his consecration took the name of Lucius. At his election, the decree of the Lateran council was put into execution for the first time, which declared the concurrence of two thirds of the electors present sufficient to render an election valid; and he was the first pope who was elected by the cardinals alone, to the exclusion of the people and clergy, who had hitherto taken a part in the choice of a new pope.



pope. Towards the close of the year, a quarrel took place between the pope and the Romans, said to have been occasioned by his refusal to comply with some customs which had been observed by all his predecessors. Provoked at his refusal, the Romans broke out into insurrection, and drove him out of the city, pursuing him from one strong-hold to another, till he retired for safety to Verona. From this place he wrote to the emperor, imploring his protection; who espoused his cause with great zeal, and ordered Christian, archbishop of Mentz, to march at the head of a powerful army to his assistance. This prelate soon reduced all the strong holds in the neighbourhood of Rome, and, encamping at Tusculum, so harassed the Romans by the parties which he daily sent out against them, that they were ready to receive the pope on his own terms, when the death of Christian produced a sudden alteration in the state of affairs. For, on that event, his army immediately dispersed, and the Romans became more determined than before in their opposition to the pope. Lucius, finding himself incapable, for want of money, to raise sufficient forces for reducing them to submission, sent nuncios to all the Christian princes and bishops, to gather contributions in aid of the holy see. He thought it more prudent, however, to make use of the sums which he received in gaining over some of the leading men among the Romans, than in levying troops; and, having succeeded in this object, he ventured to return under their protection to Rome. Not long afterwards, the Romans rose in the insurrection a second time, laying waste the lands of the church, and treating all whom they thought favoured the cause of the pope with the greatest barbarity. Upon this, Lucius, after anathematizing all the accessories to the deeds of rapine and cruelty which had been committed, retired in great haste to Anagni; whence he went into Lombardy, to implore the protection of the emperor, who was then on his march to Italy, for the purpose of holding a council at Verona. To that city the pope repaired in July 1184; and, on the arrival of the emperor, a council was opened on the first of August, at which that prince and his holiness, with the lords and bishops of Lombardy, and other nobles and prelates, attended. In this council the pope preferred his complaints against the Romans, painting in the strongest colours the enormities which they had perpetrated; and they were declared by the whole assembly enemies to the church. To this council may also be traced the origin of the inquisition against heretics. For not only were the Albigenses condemned and anathematized anew, under different names, but all who should admit them into their houses, suffer them in their territories, or afford them any sort of relief. Under the same sentence were included all who held or taught different doctrines from those held and taught by the Roman church. Some grounds of difference, however, arose between the emperor and pope, with respect to subjects which the former had at heart. He warmly espoused the cause of several bishops and other ecclesiastics, who had been suspended from their benefices and functions for adhering to the antipopes during the schism under the pontificate of Alexander III. and who now appeared at the council professing great sorrow for what they had done, and earnestly entreating forgiveness and a reinstatement in their former conditions. At first the pope gave his promise that he would comply with their request; but this he afterwards retracted, alleging that, as they had been deposed in a general council, they ought to be restored in a general council, which he promised to assemble for that purpose at Lyons. This opposition to his wishes gave umbrage to the emperor; as did more particularly the pope's refusal to crown his son Henry, and to give him the title of emperor. To this measure Lucius would by no means give his consent, unless the father resigned his crown; pretending, that it would be as absurd that two emperors should occupy the same throne, as that two popes should sit in the same chair. Another dispute arose between them concerning the elec-

tion of an archbishop of Treves. The electors having been divided among themselves, and made a return of both the candidates, Fulmar and Rudolph; though the former had the majority on his side, the emperor had put the latter in possession of the see. Upon this, Fulmar appealed to the pope, who readily espoused his cause, and the affair was warmly discussed in the council. But the pope, thinking it not prudent to proceed to a direct rupture with the emperor, at so critical a juncture in his own situation, found means to delay the final decision of this business; and, matters being accommodated, the pope once more returned to Rome.

Before the meeting of this council, Lucius had sent legates with letters addressed to the Saracen princes Saladin and his brother Saphadin, who had reduced the Christians in Palestine to the most desperate condition, in order to treat of a peace between them and the Christian princes. These legates were received by the Saracen chiefs with all possible marks of honour; and were dismissed with letters to the pope, written in the most respectful terms, and still extant, in which they declared their readiness to conclude a peace with the Christians, and to agree to a mutual exchange of prisoners upon just and equitable conditions. But this treaty between the pope and the two Saracen princes, if there were sincerity in either or both sides, had not the wished-for success; and we find the pope pressing with great earnestness the Christian princes, in 1184, to send powerful succours to the assistance of their friends and brethren in the Holy Land. But, while Lucius was promoting to the utmost of his power a new crusade, he died at Verona in November 1184, after a pontificate of four years and between two and three months. Though he did not possess a great share of learning, he is commended for prudence, piety, and unblemished manners. Two of his Letters, and a Decree, are inserted in the tenth volume of the *Collect Concil.* Mr. Gibbon, speaking of the second and third Lucius, says, "I cannot forget the sufferings of two pontiffs of the same age, the second and third of the name of Lucius. The former, as he ascended in battle array to assault the Capitol, was struck on the temple by a stone, and expired in a few days. The latter was severely wounded in the persons of his servants: in a civil commotion several of his priests had been made prisoners, and the inhuman Romans, reserving one as a guide for his brethren, put out their eyes, crowned them with ludicrous mitres, mounted them on asses with their faces to the tail, and extorted an oath, that in this wretched condition they should offer themselves as a lesson to the head of the church. *Bower. Gibbon, vol. xii.*

**LUCK**, *f.* [*geluck*, Dut.] Chance; accident; fortune; hap; casual event.—Some such method may be found by human industry or *luck*, by which compound bodies may be resolved into other substances than they are divided into by the fire. *Boyle.*

He forc'd his neck into a noose,  
To show his play at fat and loose;  
And, when he chanc'd t' escape, mistook,  
For art and subtlety, his *luck*.

*Hudibras.*

Fortune, good or bad.—That part of mankind who have had the justice, or the *luck*, to pass, in common opinion, for the wisest, have followed a very different scent. *Temple.*

Glad of such *luck*, the luckless lucky maid  
A long time with that savage people staid,  
To gather breath in many miseries.

*Spenser.*

**LUCKAMPOUR**, a town of Bengal: seventy miles north-west of Midnapour.

**LUCKAU**. See **LUCCA**, p. 739.

**LUCK'ENS**, a town of Sweden, in the province of Dronheim: twenty-five miles south-south-west of Dronheim.

**LUCK'ENWALDE**, a town and principal place of a district or circle, in the duchy of Magdeburg. In the  
year



year 1723, great part of the town was destroyed by fire: fifty miles east of Magdeburg, and eighteen south of Potsdam. Lat. 52. 6. N. lon. 13. 3. E.

LUCK'ERCOOT, a town of Hindoostan, in Guzerat: thirty miles east of Godra.

LUCK'FORD, a village in Dorsetshire, near the river Frome, a little west from Holme, gives name to a river that empties itself into the Frome; forms the western boundaries of the Isle of Purbeck; and divides East Lulworth from Steple and West Tineham.

LUCK'HAM, a village in the parish of Uffecolomb, Devon.

LUCK'IA, a town of Hindoostan, in Oude: forty miles north-east of Gooracpour.

LUCK'IA, a river of Bengal, which runs into the Megna near Naramungue.

LUCK'IDER, a town of Bootan, forty miles north of Beyhar.

LUCKIGAT'CHY, a town of Bengal: ten miles north-east of Kishenagur.

LUCK'ILY, *adv.* Fortunately; by good hap.—It is the pencil thrown *luckily* full upon the horse's mouth, to express the foam, which the painter with all his skill could not form. *Dryden's Dufresnoy*.—It happens *luckily* for the establishment of a new race of kings upon the British throne, that the first of this royal line has all high qualifications. *Addison*.

LUCK'INESS, *f.* Good fortune; good hap; casual happiness.—He who sometimes lights on truth, is in the right but by chance; and I know not whether the *luckiness* of the accident will excuse the irregularity of his proceeding. *Locke*.

LUCK'INGTON, a village to the south-west of Malmesbury, Wilts.

LUCKINPOUR, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Cicacole: twenty-four miles north of Cicacole.—A town of Hindoostan, in Surgooja: ten miles south-west of Surgooja.

LUCKIPOUR, a town of Bengal: forty miles south-east of Calcutta.—A town of Bootan: fifty-five miles south of Tassafudon.—A town of Hindoostan, in Bengal: thirty-five miles south-west of Comillah.—An island in the mouth of the river Ganges, about nine miles in length and two in breadth. Lat. 22. 27. N. lon. 90. 48. E.—A town of Bengal, on an island of the same name: fifty miles south of Dacca.

LUCK'LESS, *adj.* Unfortunate; unhappy.

Glad of such luck, the *luckless* lucky maid  
A long time with that savage people staid,  
To gather breath in many miseries.

*Fairy Queen.*

Never shall my thoughts be base,  
Though *luckless*, yet without disgrace.

*Suckling.*

LUCK'MERSER, a lake of Hindoostan, in Oude, a little to the east of Buckrah.

LUCKMIPOUR, a town of Bengal: thirty-two miles south-south-east of Curruckpour.—A town of Hindoostan, in Bahar: thirty miles east of Bahar.

LUCKNADANG', a town of Goondwana: eighty-eight miles north of Nagpour.

LUCKNOR', a village in Northumberland, on the Wame; west of Sunderland.

LUCKNO'RE, a town of Hindoostan, in Bahar: twenty-eight miles south of Patna. Lat. 25. 8. N. lon. 85. 16. E.

LUCKNOU'TI. See GOUR, vol. viii. p. 752.

LUCK'NOW, a circar of Hindoostan, in Oude, bounded on the north by Kairabad, on the east by Oude circar, on the south by Manickpour, and on the west by Canoge; about seventy-five miles long, and forty-five broad.

LUCK'NOW, a large and populous, but irregular and inelegant, city of Bengal, of late years become capital of the fore-mentioned circar, and of the subah of Oude; situated on the Goonty, which runs on the north side of the town, and is navigable for boats of a common size at all seasons of the year; founded by Latschman, or Lac-

man, and rebuilt by Bikarmadjit, king of Oude. The spot on which the founder resided is preserved in remembrance by a mosque, erected for this purpose by Aurungzebe. This is a very ancient city, and moderately extensive, but meanly built. The walls of the houses are chiefly mud, covered with thatch, and many entirely consist of mats and bamboos. A few houses are built of brick; the streets narrow, crooked, and the worst contrived of any in India. In the dry season the heat, dust, and insects, make them intolerable; in the wet season they are scarcely passable. Yet this was a great city in the time of Abulfazel; how small has been the improvement since his days! Most of the old palaces were destroyed by Sujah Dowlah; for, says Mr. Pennant, no son ever lives in the palace of a deceased father, but builds a new one for his own use. This is the cause of so many ruins of magnificent modern foundations. Sujah Dowlah finished his course in 1775. Mr. Hodges, in his Travels, has given a view of the palace of the nabob, begun by Sujah Dowlah, and continued by his successor Atop. It is built on an eminence, and commands a fine view of the Goonty, and the country to the east, a plain of five hundred miles, extending as far as Calcutta. Lucknow is distant from Sionpour, 55 miles; from Sionpour, 92; from Allahabad, 127; from Agimere, 428; from Arcot, 1147; from Bahar, 388; from Cabul, 1118; from Dacca, 790; from Dowlatabad, 728; from Golconda, 794; from Gwalior, 211; from Oude or Fyzabad, the former capital, 85; from Patna, 316; from Seringapatam, 1201; and from Vissapour, 902. Lat. 26. 52. N. lon. 81. 14. E. *Gibson's Geography*, vol. i.

LUCK'O LUCK', or Luz'k, a city of Russian Poland, capital of the palatinate of Volhynia, with a castle, where the bishop of Volhynia resided, and the Jesuits had a college. This city is also the residence of a Russian bishop; and has a provincial diet and court of judicature. In 1752, the greatest part of this city was destroyed by fire. It is 200 miles east-north-east of Cracow, and 176 south-east of Warsaw. Lat. 50. 40. N. lon. 25. 19. E.

LUCK'OMB, a village near Porlock, Somerset.—A village in Dorsetshire, two miles north of West Chelburgh.

LUCKOU'R, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Sohajepour: twenty miles south of Sohajepour.

LUCK'TON, a village in Herefordshire, near Croft Castle.

LUCKUM'RY, a town of Meckley: thirty-five miles west of Munnypour.

LUCK'Y, *adj.* Fortunate; happy by chance:

Perhaps some arm, more *lucky* than the rest,  
May reach his heart, and free the world from bondage,  
*Addison*.

LU'CO, a town of Naples, in Abruzzo Ultra: nine miles south-south-west of Celano.

LUÇON, a town of France, in the department of the Vendée, situated on a canal, about six miles in length, which communicates with the sea. The environs are marshy, and the air is unwholesome. Before the revolution it was the see of a bishop: fifteen miles west of Fontenay le Comte. Lat. 46. 29. N. lon. 1. 4. W.

LUÇON, or Luzon, sometimes called *Manilla*, from its capital, is the largest and most important of the Philippine isles, being more than seven degrees, or near 500 British miles, in length, and about 100 of medial breadth. This island is pervaded in its length by a high chain of mountains towards the east, so that its interior parts are difficult of access; and the examination of it is also restrained by the jealousy of the Spaniards. It is also traversed by the branches of a considerable river, on the banks of which the capital is seated; and its lakes are numerous, the largest of which is the source of the river Manilla. Several volcanoes occur in this island; nor are earthquakes uncommon. Its soil is uncommonly fertile; and its products are gold, copper, and iron. Such is the fertility of the soil, that rice, which in other countries requires



requires much cultivation, grows every-where with little or no attention, and even in the highest mountains without being watered. Of rice they have different kinds, some of which requires four or five months between the sowing and the harvest, and some which is sown and reaped within forty days. Although they have no wheat but that which is imported, the soil is very capable of bearing it, as appeared by an experiment, in which one bushel produced 130. The grass grows, the trees bud, blossom, and bear fruit, all the year, not only in the gardens, but on the mountains. The richest fruits of the West Indies, as well as of the East, are here abundant, and some that are found no where else. Here are forty different sorts of palms, the most excellent cocoas, and callia, the sugar-cane, and cotton of peculiar beauty. In the mountains are wild cinnamon, wild nutmugs, ebony, sandal wood, together with excellent timber for building and shipping. Gold is found upon the mountains in every part of the island, washed out of the earth by the heavy rains; in the mould of their valleys, carried down by their rivulets; and in the sand and mud of their lakes, brooks, and rivers. The Spaniards obtain about 1000 or 1500 pounds weight every year, as a tribute from the inhabitants. All kinds of cattle abound, so that a large fat ox does not cost above four pieces of eight. Civet-cats are also very common, and their civet is highly valuable. Ambergris is also thrown on their coasts in prodigious quantities. The natives, who are of a mild character, are called Tagals, like all those of the Philippines, and seem to be of Malay origin. They are tall and well made, wearing only a kind of shirt, with loose drawers; but the dresses of the women is chiefly a large mantle, and their black and beautiful hair sometimes reaches the ground; their complexion is a deep tawny. Their houses are of bamboo covered with palm-leaves, raised on pillars to the height of eight or ten feet. The chief food is rice, which is often eaten with salted fish.

M. Sonnerat has given some account of the interior part of the country, as far as he was able to penetrate it. At the distance of about a day's journey from the capital, he found himself buried in woods, no habitation nor appearance of cultivation presenting themselves to his view. Some scattered Indians, having their shoulders covered with the skins of wild goats, the rest of the body being naked, with a bow in their hands and arrows on their back, were discovered. Their looks were haggard, and their countenances very unprepossessing. They seemed to be timid, and disposed to flee from the face of man, and even from one another. They have no society; they are solitary wanderers; stopping when night overtakes them, and sleeping in the hollows of trees. They have no families, and they seem to be constrained merely by instinct to sue the females whom chance has thrown in their way. After traversing the wood above-mentioned, M. Sonnerat was led to a large lake, in the middle of which is an island, where some Indian families have taken refuge; here they live by fishing, and preserve their liberty, suffering no one to land on the place which serves them for an asylum. On the east-south-east the lake is bounded by high mountains; the soil is fertile, and there are many fruit-trees; and hence Manilla is supplied with fruit. These mountains are inhabited by a mild set of people, who employ themselves in making mats, cloth, and different works with the *abacca*, a kind of banana which bears no fruit, and of which the filaments are very strong. These people have laws, and punish crimes, the chief, in their estimation, being adultery. On the other side of the mountains, which bound the lake on the east-south-east, are immense plains, traversed by large and deep rivers, which diffuse fertility. Here are a few scattered villages inhabited by men without morals, without virtue, without equity; who fear each other, and, having no protection from laws, trust to the force of arms alone for their safety. In a word, they live in perpetual distrust and dread of one another. Nevertheless, says our traveller, the arts have

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reduced this savage nation, without softening their ferocious manners. Columba was the name of one of the largest villages possessed by this savage tribe; and on the day of his arrival the people had a grand festival, which they celebrated with divers spectacles. Part of these spectacles was the exhibition of a tragedy; and this was preceded by a cock-fight, and by other games, at which large sums were won and lost. Two leagues from Columba, in a village of less extent, was a rivulet whose water was hot and boiling; and yet on the banks of this rivulet were vigorous shrubs; one of these shrubs was an agnus castus, and the two others *apalatus*. The Spanish governor, conceiving that these waters possess some good qualities, has constructed near them several baths. Fish were found swimming in this water, the heat of which was so great, that our author could not bear his hand in it. In the interior of the country, he says, there are many nations which the Spaniards have in vain endeavoured to subdue. No force is sufficient to subjugate them; they fly to a distant asylum, and there it is said they swear an implacable hatred against the oppressors of their country, meditating and preparing means of vengeance. From thence they issue in mean boats; fortified by courage, and animated by hatred, they dare to approach the gates of the capital; and their incursions are a succession of pillages, murders, ravages, and rapes. On leaving the village traversed by the rivulet of hot water, our author took an easterly route, and, after three hours' journey, found himself in an immense plain, which was watered and rendered fertile by a rivulet of clear, light, and wholesome water, that descended from the top of a neighbouring mountain. Large meadows were enamelled with flowers, whose variety of colour and perfume delighted equally the sight and the smell. The inhabitants were friendly and hospitable.

This island is divided into provinces, most of which are under the jurisdiction of the Spaniards. The principal are the Balayan, in which are 2500 tributary Indians; in that of Camarinas is the city of New Caceres, the see of a bishop. Paracale contains 7000 Indians, who pay tribute to Spain; this province abounds in mines of gold and other metals, and of valuable load-stones. In Cagayan are 9000 tributaries; but the richest and most populous province is said to be that of Illocos, whose coast extends upwards of ninety miles. There are several others, such as Pangasian, Bahi, Balacan, &c. Lat. 12. 48. to 18. 48. N. lon. 120. 6. to 124. 10. E.

LUCOS. See LUCOS, p. 739.

LUCOTTA, a small island in the Eastern Indian Sea, near the west coast of Sumatra. Lat. 1. 43. N. lon. 97. 25. E.

LUCRATION, *f.* [*lucrum*, Lat. gain.] The act of gaining. *Scott.*

LUCRATIVE, *adj.* Gainful; profitable; bringing money.—The trade of merchandize, being the most *lucrative*, may bear usury at a good rate: other contracts not so. *Bacon.*

LUCRE, *f.* Gain; profit; pecuniary advantage. In an ill sense:

A soul supreme in each hard instance try'd,  
Above all pain, all anger, and all pride,  
The rage of pow'r, the blast of public breath,  
The lust of lucre, and the dread of death.

*Pope.*

LUCRETIA. The story of Lucretia, whose fate was the immediate cause of the expulsion of the Tarquins, and the change in the form of the Roman government, (A.U.C. 244.) is well known, and has been related by us under the article CHASTITY, vol. iv. p. 122. Some persons have arraigned the prudence of her conduct in that lamentable situation; but Count Verri, in his *Notte Romane al Sepolchro de Scipioni*, (Paris, 1797,) brings forward Pomponius Atticus to arraign even the *virtue* of Lucretia. That nice enquiry is conducted in the following manner: "As a storm suddenly agitates the waves of the sea, so the spectres, who were listening with calm attention, then,



trembling, murmured like the wind in the forest. In the mean time, a female shade appeared, who advanced clothed in a white veil, desirous of drawing attention by her tears and her expressions of grief. She now plunged into the thickest of the crowd, and now appeared out of it, like the moon among the clouds; when the multitude, which she had disturbed, leaving an opening, she remained distinct in the midst, and stopped. Through the transparent veil which descended to her feet, was seen her lovely form, like a rose clothed in morning dew; but suddenly rending it from a new impulse of anger, she discovered the whiteness of her well-formed shoulders and her heaving bosom, upon which, however, with modest repentance, she held with her right-hand the disordered veil, leaving a great part of her figure uncovered. She cast down her weeping eyes; anguish was painted upon her forehead, from which the thick golden hair fell upon her snowy limbs. How the heart is chilled by the sight of beauty in distress! As I looked upon her, I already felt the thrill of soft compassion run through my limbs, when my attention was drawn by a general whisper, which repeated the name of *Lucretia*. Pomponius, not disturbed by the tumult, nor by the fame of so illustrious a woman, approaching her, thus intrepidly continued: "O celebrated consort of Collatinus, do not be offended at my conjectures concerning thee, since they arise, not from hatred to thee, but from love for *truth*. Now thou mayest thyself declare it, after so many ages of uncertain opinion." Then the lady raised her disconsolate countenance, and turned towards him who questioned her her mournful eyes. She panted for breath, she trembled, and anguish seemed to choke her utterance. A mournful silence prevailed in the air: the crowd, waiting in an attitude of astonishment, expected to hear from her some interesting information; such is the attention of the audience when a skilful musician is ready to delight them with his harmonious voice. But the lady remained in that distressful situation, as if unable to speak, or as if doubtful which of the many words that crowded to her lips she should utter or retain. At length, in an humble manner, she bowed her head upon her delicate breast; and, as if overcome with grief, threw herself upon a tomb. All hope of hearing her being now not only deluded, but extinguished, Tullius thus broke silence: "I do not know, my Atticus, why thou now takest pleasure to offend this lady with thy severe words, though, when amongst us, they flowed so mildly from thy lips. Certainly silence and darkness are not the only testimonies of the insults she suffered; but the magnanimous penalty she inflicted on herself is a demonstration of her innocence. Neither her bed nor her thoughts were contaminated by the royal licentiousness; her body only was defiled by it; in which, as being profaned, this chaste spirit disdained afterwards to dwell. See the deep wound in her beauteous bosom, the pure asylum of lovely children. Is not the sword by which it was torn sufficient to destroy calumny?" Atticus answered: "Although it be a bold attempt to dispute with thee, O father of the Roman eloquence, yet we are at length permitted to judge here of human affairs without the confinement of timid opinion; and, as thou defendest, with wonderful art and eloquence, not only the innocent, but the guilty, so here thou speakest decidedly on a very uncertain subject. I freely declare, that her story seems very improbable." Marcus Brutus was grieved at these words, recollecting that Junius Brutus, from whom he was descended, took the yet-reeking dagger from her bosom, and promoted the severe and memorable revenge. But Atticus continued:—"For she was not threatened with death, according to her own account, by a cruel lover, against whom her complaints would have been vain, but in her husband's house, full of slaves and relations, and for the simplicity of those times magnificent. Sextus, it seems, threatened to lay a dead slave by her side, as an ignominious proof of her guilt; yet it is evident that such a crime was difficult to be executed, and easy to be pre-

vented by loud and desperate cries. I am sorry, for the sake of her reputation, that in that hateful trial she should imagine the best way to escape infamy, was to comply with the will of her lover. A surprising docility this, in a pattern of Chastity, to refrain not only from defending herself, but from calling for assistance in that distressing situation! An astonishing determination to contaminate her bed, and then purify it with her own blood! Nor was the royal youth deformed or disagreeable, but handsome and valiant: he was courteously received by her; he sat down with her to the social supper, and was afterwards conducted by the slaves to the hospitable chamber. O thy childish simplicity, that in harbouring that guest, in whose eyes female penetration must have seen the flames of desire, thou didst not fasten thy chamber! Nor hadst thou near thee any maid-servant; so that the midnight traitor, like the most favoured lover, came unopposed to the altar of thy faith, ill-defended by frail virtue!" Here Brutus interrupted: "Why then did she reveal with infamy, what she might have denied with honour, and concealed with grateful impunity? Could there be a more foolish resolution, than to excite a fatal quarrel against the lover? She alone was her own voluntary accuser, and the instigator of vengeance against her perfidious ravisher. Had she yielded unreluctantly to the embraces of the youthful seducer, what madness more improbable, than to accuse herself, to kill herself, while love alone, silent, and satisfied, was privy to the secrets of the night?" Pomponius quietly replied: "Those who lived in those times, know that Sextus was a vain-glorious young man, who, instead of concealing his success in love-intrigues, shamelessly boasted of it. It is also known from history, that he undertook to conquer her virtue for the sake of laughing at Collatinus, who held it up as a model, and invincible. Proud, therefore, of this difficult triumph, he was eager to display it in derision of the credulous husband. When the intoxication of illicit pleasure was removed from the lady's mind, she perceived herself to be on the brink of a precipice, and resolved to die illustrious by a falsehood, rather than live to inevitable and infamous punishment." Then Brutus turned towards her, and said: "Thou, who in life revealedst the secret disgrace, why dost thou not now speak, and at once put thy detractors to silence?" Alas, at this invitation, I saw tears flow from her disconsolate eyes, which wiping away with her veil, she afterwards concealed her features with it entirely, as if to prevent their being suffused with painful blushes; she then sat down in affliction upon the ground, hid her face with both her hands, and rested it on her knees, as overwhelmed with misery. The surrounding shades looked at each other with mutual astonishment at that silence; and Brutus with a compassionate voice, added: "O unhappy, if thou wert innocent, and art not by some unknown fate deprived of speech, whence sufferest thou the new insult of being accused, and art unable to speak freely in thy own defence!" Hearing this, she rose up in distress, and seemed to declare that she was dumb from a celestial decree; on which account Brutus, consoling her, concluded: "If thou wert frail in that night for ever doubtful, thou becamest magnanimous the following day, and mayest boast of having, by thy striking example, founded our liberty." While he went on with soothing words, relating the banishment of the kings, the glorious vengeance, the illustrious events that succeeded, her eyes seemed joyful as she listened to him, and her countenance less melancholy, as the sky is refreshed by the breath of the zephyr. She then disappeared, leaving every mind in the same uncertainty as at first, concerning her reputation. The crowd in the mean time disputed with various opinions, concerning that event, over which was spread the veil of time, and the impenetrable silence of love."

LUCRETILIS, now *Libretti*, a mountain in the country of the Sabines, hanging over a pleasant valley, near which the house and farm of Horace were situate.

LUCRETIVS, TITUS LUCRETIUS CARUS, an eminent Latin



Latin poet, was a Roman, but whether of the ancient Lucretian family is uncertain. According to the Eusebian Chronicle, he was born about B. C. 96. It is probable that he was sent to Athens when young, and there studied philosophy under Zeno the Sidonian, a celebrated Epicurean, and Phædrus. We have no other anecdote of his life than the romantic one, that an amatory philtre being administered to him by his wife, he was rendered insane, and thenceforth had only intervals of reason, during which he composed the poem which has conferred so much celebrity on his name. It is said that he died by his own hand, in the forty-fourth year of his age.

The poem of Lucretius in six books, entitled *De Rerum Natura*, was the first accurate statement of the Epicurean philosophy in the Latin language. It is an example of the great freedom with which opinions contradictory to the established religion were at that time maintained; for no writer has in stronger terms controverted all the popular notions of heathenism, and even those fundamental points in all religion, the existence of a creative power, a providence, and the immortality of the soul. His language and versification partake of the rudeness of an early period of literature; and, in the argumentative parts of his works the poet is frequently scarce discernible. But, where the subject admits of elevated sentiment or descriptive beauty, no poet, at least no Roman poet, has taken a loftier flight, or exhibited more spirit and sublimity. Nor is it only in detached passages that he has displayed the genius of a true poet; the same animated strain is supported almost throughout entire books, when he gets free from the trammels of his system. Virgil studied him closely, and has borrowed much of his diction. The morality of Lucretius is generally pure, although some of his descriptions are gross and licentious. The absurd impiety of his philosophy cannot now be accounted dangerous; and the gravest characters in modern times have not scrupled the office of his editors and commentators.

The best editions of his work are those of Creech, Oxon. 8vo. 1695; of Havercamp, Lugd. B. 2 vol. 4to. 1725; and of Wakefield, Lond. 3 vols. 1796. This last edition had become extremely rare, on account of the fire which destroyed the greater part of the impression. Mr. Good, the translator of the poem into blank verse, and whose work was published in 1805, has therefore given the entire text from Mr. Wakefield's edition, which had been collated and printed with the utmost care by that learned and much-to-be-lamented classical scholar. In the translation just referred to, there are, besides elaborate annotations, a critical account of the principal editions and translations of his author, a history of the poet, a vindication of his character and philosophy from vulgar misrepresentation, and a comparative statement of the rival systems of philosophy that flourished in the time of Lucretius. In this poem the translator imagines he has discovered the inductive method of the illustrious Bacon; part of the sublime physics of sir I. Newton, and various chemical discoveries of our own days, in a surprising degree anticipated, as to their principles and many important results.—The first translation of Lucretius into a living language was, we believe, that of Marolles into French about the middle of the 17th century. At nearly the same period, a version of this poet was attempted by our countryman Evelyn: but, having completed only a sixth part of his task, he abandoned it as too weighty for his powers; and he resigned to Creech the merit of first placing an entire translation of the poem in the hand of the English reader. As a scholar and a poet, Creech was eminently qualified for the undertaking in which he engaged, and yet his success cannot be pronounced to be great. His production betrays everywhere the inaccuracies of a writer who acquiesces in the first suggestions of his mind, and who is more desirous of finishing, than ambitious of finishing well. His pages are at once redundant and defective; and occasionally they discover the conceits of a vitiated taste in the most direct opposition to the simple character and the majestic genius

of the Roman original. On some of the more poetic passages of this author, the great Dryden bestowed the vigour and the harmony of his muse; and his translations in this instance, which are executed with his accustomed superiority of power, leave us only to regret that they are not extended to every part of this illustrious and philosophic bard. Lucretius has been translated very recently by Dr. Busby.

**LUCRIFEROUS**, *adj.* Gainful; profitable.—Silver was afterwards separated from the gold, but in so small a quantity, that the experiment, the cost and pains considered, was not *lucriferous*. *Boyle*.

**LUCRIFIC**, *adj.* Producing gain.

**LUCRIFICABLE**, *adj.* Bringing gain. *Bailey*.

**LUCRINO**, a lake near Naples, anciently celebrated for its green oysters and other fish; it was separated from the sea only by a bank thrown up by the labour of man. In the year 1538, an earthquake formed a mountain near two miles in circumference, and two hundred feet in height; (Lempriere says, four miles round, and 1000 feet high;) with a crater in the middle, consisting of lava, burned stones, scoria, &c. which left no appearance of a lake, but a morass; filled with grass and rushes.

**LU'CROUS**, *adj.* Full of gain. *Bailey*.

**LUCTATION**, *f.* [*luctor*, Lat.] Struggle; effort; contest.

**LUCTIFEROUS**, *adj.* [from the Lat. *luctus*, sorrow, and *fero*, to bring.] Producing sorrow. *Scott*.

**LUCTIFIC**, *adj.* Causing sorrow. *Scott*.

**LUCTISONOUS**, *adj.* Uttering sorrow; making a mournful sound. *Scott*.

**LUC'TUOUS**, *adj.* Sorrowful; full of sorrow. *Scott*.

**To LU'CUBRATE**, *v. a.* [*lucubror*, Lat.] To watch; to study by night.

**LUCUBRATION**, *f.* Study by candle-light; nocturnal study; any thing composed by night.—Thy *lucubrations* have been perused by several of our friends. *Tatler*.

**LUCUBRATORY**, *adj.* Composed by candle-light.—You must have a dish of coffee, and a solitary candle at your side, to write an epistle *lucubratory* to your friends. *Pope*.

**LU'CULENCE**, *f.* [from *luculent*.] Clearness; certainty.

**LU'CULENT**, *adj.* [*luculentus*, Lat.] Clear; transparent; lucid. This word is perhaps not used in this sense by any other writer:

And *luculent* along  
The purer rivers flow.

*Thomson's Winter.*

Certain; evident.—They are, against the obstinate incredulity of the Jews, the most *luculent* testimonies that Christian religion hath. *Hooker*.

**LUCULIAN GAMES**, in antiquity, were annual games decreed by the province of Asia, about the year 70 before Christ, in honour of the exploits of Lucullus.

**LUCULUS** (Lucius Licinus), a Roman commander, who has been celebrated for his luxury, as well as for his military talents, was born about the year 115 before the Christian era. As a military man, he was first noticed with applause in the Marian war; and was, on account of his good conduct, made an edile. He was employed by Sylla in many important concerns, and during the siege of Athens was sent by that commander into Egypt and Lybia, to procure a supply of ships. With respect to king Ptolemy he was unsuccessful; but he pleaded the cause of his employer with more effect in other places, and collected a fleet, with which he gave two defeats to that of Mithridates, and convoyed Sylla's troops from the Thracian Chersonesus. After the peace he was appointed quaestor in Asia, and prætor in Africa, in which offices he rendered himself illustrious by his justice, moderation, and humanity. He was raised to the consulship when he was about forty years of age, and entrusted with the care of the Mithridatic war; his first prowess was conspicuous in rescuing his colleague Cotta, whom the enemy had besieged in Chalcedonia. This was soon followed by a ce-

lebrated



lebrated victory over the forces of Mithridates, on the borders of the Granicus, and by the conquest of all Bithynia. His victories by sea were as great as those by land; and Mithridates was driven with great loss towards Armenia, to the court of Tigranes his father-in-law. His flight was quickly discovered; and Lucullus crossed the Euphrates, and gave battle to the vast army which Tigranes had assembled to support the cause of his son. It is not easy to give entire credit to the account of the numbers said to have been slain on this occasion; but the slaughter must have been prodigious, when Plutarch estimates that no less than 100,000 foot, and 55,000 horse, soldiers lost their lives in this battle; and this at the expense of very few Roman lives. The taking of Tigranocerta, the capital of Armenia, was the consequence of the victory; and Lucullus there obtained the greater part of the royal treasures. This continued success rendered the commander haughty and imperious; and his changed manners were offensive to the soldiers, and displeasing to those who adhered to the cause of Rome. He was accused in the senate with designedly protracting the war for his own emolument; and discontents proceeded so far that he was superseded, first by the consul Glabrio; after which Pompey was sent to succeed him, and to continue the Mithridatic war. His interview with Lucullus began with acts of mutual kindness, and ended in the most determined enmity. Lucullus was however permitted to retire to Rome; and 1600 soldiers, who had shared his fortune and his glories, were allowed to accompany him. At Rome he was coldly received; and he obtained with difficulty a triumph which was claimed by his fame, his successes, and his victories. The spectacle, as might be expected, was splendid; and, besides a large sum conveyed to the treasury, it exhibited registers of much more which he had expended on the public service. His own private fortune was greater than ever before had been possessed by a Roman citizen; and he resolved to enjoy it at his ease, without troubling himself with political concerns. He occasionally, indeed, gave a vote with his friends of the senatorial party, and joined the true republicans in checking the ambition of Pompey; but his efforts were faint, and at length totally ceased. Soon after his return, he divorced his wife Clodia, the sister of the infamous Clodius, and herself scarcely less infamous; and he contracted a new alliance with Servilia, the sister of Cato, whose irregularities of conduct equalled those of her predecessor. In his mode of living he adopted a luxurious profusion scarcely paralleled by a private citizen in any age or country, but under the direction of a refined taste, and not excluding the rational pleasures of literature and cultivated society. At a vast expense, he collected a library more numerous and select than Rome had before possessed, which he threw open to all persons of learning and curiosity. It was particularly the resort of the Greeks who visited Rome, and whom he treated with great hospitality, delighting to converse with them on topics of philosophy, with all the sects of which he was well acquainted. He was himself principally attached to the doctrines of the Old Academy, the defence of which is put into his mouth by Cicero, in a dialogue entitled "Lucullus." His philosophy, however, was expended in words; for no man carried further that personal luxury which all moral systems so much decry. The profusion of his table was constant and perpetual. Some Greek strangers whom he had for several days entertained sumptuously, modestly excusing themselves from further attendance at his board on account of the expense to which they put him, he smiled, and told them, that "part, indeed, of what was provided was for them, but the greater share was for Lucullus." Supping once alone, and finding a scanty fare set before him, he called for his house-steward, and asked the reason of it. The man excused himself, from his knowledge that there was to be no company that evening. "What! (said the master,) did you not know that Lucullus was to sup with Lucullus?" His fame in this point

once induced Cicero and Pompey, by way of putting him to the test, to invite themselves in a free way to sup with him the same evening, on condition that he should give them nothing but what was provided for himself. Lucullus consented, but requested in their presence to give a single order to a servant, and this was, that "supper was to be served in the Apollo." Every eating-room in his domestic arrangement had a stated sum allotted for an entertainment given in it; and the Apollo stood highest. The two illustrious visitors were therefore surprised with a most costly banquet, which appeared as a matter of course. As an instance of that superfluity of wealth in which the owner does not know what he possesses, Horace tells a story of Lucullus, that, being once asked if he could lend a hundred military tunics (chlamydes) for a scenic entertainment, he replied, "Where should I find so many? however, I will see." Soon after, he wrote word that he had at home five thousand of them, and they might have all if they pleased. His magnificence in building was not inferior to his other displays of expensive luxury. He had a superb summer-villa at Tusculum, and a winter-residence in the bay of Naples, at which last were vast excavations in the rock for reservoirs of salt water to keep live sea-fish, the great object of Roman epicurism. His gardens at Rome were upon a scale of regal grandeur, and long subsisted among the principal decorations of that metropolis. It is not extraordinary that one who thus exhausted every source of gratification should in the decline of life fall into a state of mental imbecility. He died at the age of sixty-seven or sixty-eight; and was much regretted by the Roman people, who, doubtless, had tasted the fruits of his munificence. They would willingly have given him an honourable funeral in the Campus Martius, but their offers were rejected, and he was privately buried by his brother at Tusculum. Lucullus may rank among the great men of Rome, both for his civil and military qualifications. He was also estimable in many points of moral character; he was generous, humane, mild, and equitable. He was a perfect master of the Greek and Latin languages, and employed himself sometimes in composing a concise history of the Marsi in Greek hexameters.

**LUCUMA**, *f.* in botany, the Peruvian name of the Linnæan *Achras mammosa*, which Jussieu has separated, under this appellation, as a distinct genus; chiefly, as it appears, on account of the flowers being pentandrous and five-cleft, and the corolla globose rather than bell-shaped. The seeds moreover are round or angular, not of that elliptical compressed form, with the peculiar long scar of attachment, which characterises *ACHRAS*. See that article, vol. i. p. 73.

**LUCUS**, *f.* [Latin.] A wood or grove sacred to a deity; so called *à lucendo*, because a great number of lights were usually burning in honour of the god; a practice common with idolaters, as we learn from Scripture: hence Homer's *αγλαον αλοος*.

**LUCY**, a Christian name of women.

**LUCY**, in geography. See **LUCY**.

**LUCZA**'Y, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Wilna: thirty-six miles south of Braclaw.

**LUCZYN**'CZ, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Braclaw: forty-eight miles west-south-west of Braclaw.

**LUD**, fourth son of Shem, (Gen. x. 22.) peopled, say the generality of ancients and moderns, Lydia, a province of Asia the Less. Arias Montanus places the descendants of Lud where the Tigris and Euphrates meet; and M. Le Clerc, between the rivers Chaboras and Saocoras or Masca. These descendants of Lud, commonly called *Ludim*, must be distinguished from the descendants of Ludim, the son of Mizraim. See **LUDIM**, p. 753.

**LUD**, the name of a place. *Judith* ii. 23.

**LUD**, a British king mentioned in our old chronicles, and said to have reigned about the year of the world 3782. He is reported to have enlarged and walled about *Troynavant*, or New Troy, where he kept his court, and made it his capital. The name of *London* is hence derived from *Lud*'s



*Lud's Town*; and *Ludgate* from his being buried near it; but this is only one among many other derivations of the name of London, which are at least equally probable. See the article LONDON, p. 49, 50, of this volume.

LUDA'IA, a town and district of the island of Java, near the south coast.

LUDAMA'R, a country of Africa, bounded on the north by the Desert, on the east by Bambarra, on the south by Kaarta, and on the west by Jafnoo; it is governed by a Mahometan prince. The country is not fertile; the principal article of trade is salt, which they exchange for slaves, to be disposed of to the Europeans. Benowm is the capital, which lies in lat. 15. 0. N. lon. 6. 50. W. but the whole kingdom extends from lat. 15. to 16. lon. 5. to 8.

The Moors of this, and the other states adjoining the country of the negroes, resemble in their persons the Mulattoes of the West Indies to so great a degree as not easily to be distinguished from them; and in reality, the present generation seems to be a mixed race between the Moors (properly so called) of the north, and the Africans of the south; possessing many of the worst qualities of both nations. By these Moors, Mr. Park was taken captive, and confined for some weeks at Benowm. He states the barrenness of the country to be such, that it furnishes hardly any materials for manufacture; but the inhabitants contrive to weave a strong cloth, with which their tents are covered; the thread is spun by the women from goats' hair, and with the hides of their cattle they furnish saddles, bridles, pouches, and other articles of leather. They can also convert the native iron procured from the negroes into spurs, knives, and pots for boiling their food; but they purchase their fire-arms and other weapons of a similar nature from the Europeans, in exchange for slaves. Their ideas of female perfection are truly singular; since a woman, to have the smallest pretensions to beauty, must be one who requires a slave under each arm to support her as she walks; and a perfect beauty, according to Mr. Park, is a load for a camel. The wealth of the Moors chiefly consists in their numerous herds of cattle; yet the majority of the people spend their days in a state of idleness. The tent of the king is the common place of rendezvous for the indolent, where they appear to enjoy an unlimited liberty of speech; yet in the praise of their sovereign they are wholly unanimous, singing songs to his honour, which never fail to be filled with the grossest adulations. The king sometimes eats out of the same basin with the driver of his camels, and during the heat of the day reposes himself upon the same bed. Cavalry constitute the chief military strength of Ludamar; these are well mounted, and are very expert in attacking by surprise. The horse of every soldier is furnished by himself, as also his military implements, consisting of a large sabre, a double-barrelled gun, a red leather bag for holding his balls, and a powder-bag slung over his shoulder. He has no pay; and his only compensation arises from plunder. They have no intercourse with civilized nations; yet they boast an advantage over the negroes, as they possess, though in a very limited degree, the knowledge of letters. They are esteemed the vainest, proudest, and most bigoted, ferocious, and intolerant, of all the nations of the earth, blending in their character the blind superstition of the negro with the savage cruelty and treachery of the Arab. It was with the utmost difficulty that Mr. Park made his escape from this cruel and inhospitable people.

LUD'BROOK, a village of Devonshire, in the parishes of Errington and Modbury.

LUD'BURGH, a village in Lincolnshire; west of Saltfleet, and near Wyham.

LUD'COMB CHINE, rocks on the east coast of the Isle of Wight, in the English Channel, a little to the north of Dunnofe. Lat. 50. 38. N. lon. 1. 12. W.

LUD'DENHAM, a village in Kent, two miles from Feverham.

LUD'DERTON, a village in the west riding of Yorkshire, north-west of Sherborn.

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LUD'DESDON, a village in Kent, south-east of Haleshead.

LUD'DINGHAUSEN, a town of Germany, in the bishopric of Munster, on the Stever; twelve miles south-west of Munster. Lat. 51. 45. N. lon. 7. 36. E.

LUD'DINGTON, a village in Huntingdonshire, north-west of the Giddings.—A village in Lincolnshire, in Axholm Isle, near Burton on Trent.—A village in Northamptonshire, north-east of Thrapston.—A village in Warwickshire, south-west of Stratford upon Avon.—A village in Wilts, south of Highworth.—A village in the west riding of Yorkshire, north-west of Halifax.

LUD'DITES, *f.* The name assumed by a set of rioters in Nottinghamshire in the year 1811. See the article LONDON, p. 272, 3, of this volume.

LUD'DE, a town of France, in the department of the Sarthe: two and a half poits east of La Flèche, and thirty-two south-west of Paris.

LUD'DENSCHIED, or LUD'ESCHADE, a town of Germany, in the county of Mark, erected into a town in the thirteenth century; the principal trade of the inhabitants is in manufactures of iron. In the year 1723, it was almost wholly destroyed by fire, since which time it has been rebuilt with stone. It is twenty-eight miles north-east of Cologne. Lat. 51. 8. N. lon. 7. 42 E.

LUD'DER, a town of Germany, in the bishopric of Fulda, the seat of a jurisdiction: six miles west-north-west of Fulda.

LUD'DERBACH, a town of Germany, in the county of Henneberg: five miles north of Smalkalden.

LUD'DERSBURG, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Lauenburg, on the south side of the Elbe: five-miles east of Lauenburg.

LUD'ESCENT, *adj.* [*ludo*, Lat. to play.] Playful; beginning to play.

LUD'FORD, a village near Ludlow in Herefordshire.—A village in Lincolnshire, near Market-Raisin, where Roman coins have often been dug up.

LUD'GERSHALL. See LUGGERSHALL.

LUD'GRAVES, a village in Middlesex, near Hadley and Enfield Chase.

LUD'HAM, a village in Norfolk, between Acle and Hickling.

LUDHA'NA, a town of Hindoostan, in the circar of Sirhind, on the Selledge: fifty miles south-east of Sultanpour, and eighteen north-west of Sirhind. Lat. 30. 2. N. lon. 74. 57. E.

LUDHO'A, a town of Sweden, in East Bothnia: thirty-six miles south-east of Brahetad.

LUDI, *f.* in Roman antiquity; public games; plays.

LUD'IA, *f.* [from *ludo*, Lat. to sport. The name was given by Commerfon, as Jussieu informs us, because nature, to use a common expression, sports remarkably in the shape of the leaves; which in the young shrub are minute, with spinous teeth, but in the adult one much larger, and entire.] In botany, a genus of the class polyandria, order monogynia, natural order rosaceæ, *Juss.* The generic characters are—Calyx: perianth inferior, of one leaf, in from four to seven deep, nearly-equal, roundish, spreading, fringed, segments, permanent. Corolla: none. Stamina filaments numerous, thread-shaped, inserted into the receptacle, twice or thrice the length of the calyx; antheræ roundish, of two lobes. Pistillum: germen superior, sessile, ovate; style columnar, scarcely so long as the stamens; stigma obtuse, three or four cleft, more or less deeply. Pericarpium: berry dry, globose, tipped with the permanent style, and standing on the reflexed, deformed, permanent calyx, of one cell. Seeds numerous, somewhat angular.—*Essential Character.* Calyx in several deep segments; corolla none; stigma three or four cleft; berry dry, superior, of one cell, with many seeds.

1. *Ludia heterophylla*: leaves of the adult shrub ovate, coriaceous, shining; of the young one sharply toothed; stigma slightly notched. Gathered by Commerfon in the island of Mauritius, where it is called *bois*



*fans ecorce*, or tree without bark. Lamarck describes and figures the young shrub with small roundish leaves, furnished with strong spinous teeth, somewhat like *Quercus coccifera*, or *Malpigia coccifera*. Jussieu also relates the same. The flowers are axillary, solitary or in pairs, on short thick scarred stalks, with numerous minute imbricated roundish concave bractæas at the base of the stalks; the calyx is green, finely downy; stamens long and slender: style short, erect and thick.

2. *Ludia myrtifolia*: leaves ovate, nearly entire: style somewhat curved; stigma with three notches. Native of the Isle of Bourbon. This is what Jussieu intends when he says the leaves of the increasing shrub are like myrtle or box, and entire; as however the specimens are in flower, Lamarck judged them to be arrived at perfection, and a distinct species from the above; especially as the style is somewhat incurved, and the stigma has only three notches, instead of four. The leaves of the present plant are much smaller, thinner, and generally more pointed, than in the former; but we perceive here and there among them rudiments of teeth, and minute spines, as if they were in a progressive state from one shape to the other. Neither are the differences indicated in the style and stigma very striking or decided. We are therefore most inclined to adopt the opinion of Jussieu, that the present is only the advancing, or first-flowering, state of the above very extraordinary species.

3. *Ludia sessiliflora*: leaves elliptic-lanceolate: stigma deeply three-cleft. Native of the island of Mauritius. It flowered under Jacquin's observation, in the stove at Schoenbrun in June and July, and formed imperfect fruit, which he thought did not agree with Jussieu's character, and which Willdenow has, from his figure, described as being, in this species, a berry of three cells, with solitary seeds. But we presume nothing can be judged from such an abortion. This is a small tree, with drooping subdivided branches. Leaves scattered, stalked, more or less elliptical, but rather irregular in shape, coriaceous, veiny, smooth, and shining, both sides nearly of the same hue. Flowers axillary, solitary; calyx all over very downy.

LU'DIBLE, *adj.* [*ludo*, Lat. to play.] Apt to play.

LUDIB'RIOUS, *adj.* Reproachful, shameful. *Scott.*

LU'DIBUND, *adj.* Full of play. *Scott.*

LU'DICROUS, *adj.* [*ludicer*, Lat.] Burlesque; merry; sportive; exciting laughter.—Plutarch quotes this instance of Homer's judgment, in closing a *ludicrous* scene with decency and instruction. *Broome.*

LU'DICROUSLY, *adv.* Sportively; in burlesque; in a manner that may excite laughter.—Cicero *ludicrously* describes Cato as endeavouring to act in the commonwealth upon the school-paradoxes, which exercised the wits of the junior students in the Stoic philosophy. *Burke.*

LU'DICROUSNESS, *f.* Burlesque; sportiveness; merry cast or manner; ridiculousness.

LUDIF'ICABLE, *adj.* [from the Lat. *ludus*, a play, and *facio*, to make.] Capable of making sports; suited to diversions. *Bailey.*

LUDIF'ICATE, *v. a.* To mock, to deceive, to frustrate. *Bailey.*

LUDIF'ICATION, *f.* The act of mocking, or making sport with another.

LU'DIM, the son of Mizraim. *Gen. x. 13.* Josephus affirmed that the descendants of Ludim had been long extinct, having been destroyed in the Ethiopian wars. The Jerusalem paraphrast translates Ludim, "the inhabitants of the Mareotis, part of Egypt;" but Bochart maintains, that we should read *Mereotis*, or the land of Meroe. The paraphrast Jonathan translates it, "those of the canton of Neut, or Naut, in Egypt;" the Arabic, "the inhabitants of Tenezus, near Pelusium." Ezekiel places the Ludim with Phut and Pharas, or perhaps Pathras. These people were in Egypt. But it is not easy to show exactly where the Ludim dwelt.

LU'DINWORTH, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Saxe-Lauenburg: five miles south-west of Ottendorf.

LUDISER'RUD, a river of Persia, which runs into Magrab at Maru-errud.

LU'DITZ, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Saatz.

LU'DIUS, a celebrated painter, lived in the reign of Augustus Cæsar, and excelled in grand compositions. He was the first who painted the fronts of houses in the streets of Rome; which he beautified with great variety of landscapes, and many other subjects.

LU'DLEY, a village in Suffex, west of Pevensey Marth, or Level.

LUD'LOW, a market-town in the county of Salop. It stands on an eminence at the junction of the rivers Teme and Corve, in a fertile and picturesque district, and commands a variety of beautiful prospects. The ancient British name of this place was *Dinan*, also *Llys Twysfog*, or the Prince's Court. Hence it is supposed to have been the residence of some prince of the country, prior to the subjection of Wales by Edward I. This town extends about a mile in length, and in its broadest part is somewhat more than half a mile in that direction. It was formerly surrounded by a wall, some part of which is still standing, but in a state of great dilapidation. Towers were placed at certain distances; and there were formerly seven gates, of which only one now remains. The streets are mostly wide, and well paved, and lie in a diverging and inclined direction from the highest or central part of the town. The houses, in general, present rather an elegant appearance, and are more regularly disposed than in most inland towns of the same antiquity. Gloves constitute the principal manufacture; besides which, however, there is a considerable trade in the tanning, timber, and cabinet-making, lines. A number of persons are likewise employed in the various branches of mechanism. There are four markets during the week; but the most important one is held on Monday, and is well supplied with every article necessary for the support of man.

Ludlow was incorporated by charter in the reign of Edward IV. The government is now vested in a recorder, two bailiffs, two capital justices, twelve aldermen, twenty-five common councilmen, a town-clerk, a coroner, and several other inferior officers. The election of the bailiffs is usually attended with a degree of magnificence and splendour far surpassing the same ceremony in other towns of similar extent. The quarter-sessions are held here before the recorder and justices of the town, who, in former times, had the power of inflicting capital punishments; but, the recorders of late not being barristers at law, all persons liable to be tried for capital offences are removed by habeas corpus to the county gaol. Here is held weekly, every Tuesday, a court of record of judicature, in which court the recorder and bailiffs sit as judges. Ludlow sends two members to parliament. The right of election is in all the resident common burgesses, as well as the twelve aldermen, and twenty-five common-councilmen. The sons of burgesses of Ludlow, and those that marry the daughters of burgesses, have a right to be made burgesses of the said borough; and every person having a right to be made a burgett of the borough of Ludlow ought to demand such his right by petition, signed by the petitioner, according to the bye-law made in the year 1663, and not otherwise. The number of voters is nearly five hundred. The two bailiffs are the returning officers. Earl Powis is patron of the borough; and the members are his brother and son.

Several of the public buildings of Ludlow are remarkably neat structures. The church, situated in the highest portion of the town, is a very spacious and elegant edifice, in the form of a cross, and seems to have been built in the reigns of Henry VII. and VIII. In the centre rises a lofty square tower, embattled at the top, and very handsomely embellished. This tower adds in no small degree to the beauty of many of the views from the neighbouring country. The principal entrance to the church is under a large hexagonal porch. The nave is divided from



from its aisles by six lofty pointed arches on each side. The choir is of large dimensions, and lighted by five lofty pointed windows on each side, and one at the east end, which occupies the whole breadth, and nearly the whole height, of the choir. This great window is entirely filled with painted glass, representing chiefly the legend of St. Lawrence, the patron-saint of the church. On each side of the choir stands a chantry-chapel. That on the north exhibits some very splendid remnants of painted glass, portraying the story of the ring presented by some pilgrims to Edward the Confessor; which pilgrims, the legend recites were *men* of Ludlow. The whole of this noble church is ceiled with fine oak, and embellished with carving. It is 228 feet in length, and 73 in breadth. In the chancel are many fine monuments of the lords presidents of the council of Wales, who resided in the neighbouring castle. A variety of tombs likewise appear in the church-yard; adjoining to which stands an alms-house, founded in 1486, by Mr. John Hofier, merchant, for aged widows and widowers, and rebuilt by the corporation in 1758. Another alms-house, situated at the bottom of Corve-freet, was founded in the year 1590. The grammar-school, erected by Edward IV. in Mill-freet, is a very excellent institution, where both the ancient and modern languages are taught. Nearly in the centre of the town, at the top of Broad-freet, stands the cross, a handsome stone building, with rooms over it used as a public school. The market-house, in Castle-freet, is a large building; beneath which is an area, serving as a corn-market; and the upper rooms, which are very extensive, are used for corporation-meetings, balls, assemblies, &c. The guild-hall, where the quarter-sessions, &c. are held, is a neat commodious modern structure; and to the west of the church stands a range of buildings, called the College. There is likewise a prison, named Gosalford's Tower.

But the object of greatest interest in Ludlow, and that to which it owes its celebrity and importance, is its castle, which stands on a bold wooded rock at the north-west angle of the town. It was founded, according to the generally-received opinion, by Roger de Montgomery, about the year 1130; though some writers maintain it to be of earlier origin, and with reason, as that person died in 1094. Much, however, was added by others at different periods, particularly by sir Henry Sidney. Robert de Belesme, grandson of the founder, having engaged in rebellion against Henry I. it was seized by that monarch. The castle, now made a princely residence, was greatly augmented in the strength of its fortifications, and supplied with a numerous garrison. In the reign of king Stephen it was besieged in consequence of the governor, Gervas Paganel, having been induced to espouse the cause of the empress Matilda. During this siege, Stephen gave a signal proof of his personal bravery, in rescuing prince Henry of Scotland, who had advanced too near the walls, and had been caught from his horse by a grappling-iron fastened to the end of a rope. In the troublesome reign of Henry III. the ambitious Simon Montfort, earl of Leicester, seized upon this castle, in conjunction with Llewellyn. From this period nothing remarkable happened till the time of Henry VI. when it was held by Richard duke of York, who laid claim to the crown. Having assembled an army of ten thousand men in the Marches, he drew up a declaration of *allegiance to the king*, pretending that this large army was only raised for the security of the public peace. Time, however, disclosed the perfidy of his views; for no sooner was he informed of the defeat of lord Audley at Bloreheath, but he threw off the mask, avowed his pretensions to the throne, and appointed the castle of Ludlow as a place of rendezvous for his adherents. Upon this, the king's forces advanced to Ludford, a vill at a little distance from hence. The king's troops preparing for the attack, the duke's forces began to disband. Sir Andrew Trollop likewise went over to the royal standard with a large body; whereupon the duke and his two sons, with the earl of Warwick and other chiefs,

fled with precipitation. Edward, his eldest son, obtained possession of Ludlow in the course of the war; and upon his accession to the throne repaired it, and made it the court of his son the prince of Wales. Here the latter, after his father's death, was proclaimed king before he removed to London, at the instigation of his uncle, Gloucester, whose barbarous usurpation is not paralleled in the annals of England. Arthur, son to Henry VII. fixed his residence at this castle, and held a court here with vast splendour and magnificence after his marriage with Catharine of Arragon, afterwards the wife of Henry VIII. At this time the court of the marches for the principality of Wales was established here, and continued for many years with much grandeur and solemnity. The power of this court was very extensive, and consisted of a lord-president, as many counsellors as the prince pleased, a secretary, an attorney, a solicitor, and four justices for the counties of Wales. Charles I. when prince of Wales, visited this castle. It was next distinguished by the representation of the celebrated Masque of Comus in 1634, during the presidency of John earl of Bridgewater. This exquisite effusion of Milton's genius was founded on a real incident. The two sons of the earl, and his daughter lady Alice, being on their way from a house belonging to their family in Herefordshire to Ludlow, were benighted in Haywood forest, where the lady was lost for a short time. The adventure being related to the earl on their arrival at the castle, Milton, at the request of his friend Mr. Henry Lawes, who taught music in the family, wrote the masque. Lawes set it to music, and performed the character of the attendant spirit; the lady herself playing the part which she had already acted in real life.

During the civil wars in the reign of Charles I. this castle was for some time kept as a garrison for the king. In 1645, a small part of the royal army was defeated in this neighbourhood, and on the 9th of June, in the following year, the fortress was surrendered to parliament. After the restoration, the celebrated Samuel Butler, secretary to the earl of Carbery, then appointed lord-president, wrote here a great part of his incomparable poem of Hudibras. From this period nothing remarkable happened till the reign of William and Mary, when the Court of the Marches was dissolved by act of parliament, being, as therein recited, "a great grievance to the subject." After this event the castle gradually fell into decay, and was despoiled of its curious and valuable ornaments. In the days of its prosperity it seems to have been one of the most extensive and superb baronial fortresses in Europe. It commands grand and extensive prospects, and is strongly environed by embattled walls of great height and thickness, with towers placed at convenient distances. That portion of it which lies nearest the town, was likewise defended by a deep ditch. The whole was divided into two distinct parts or courts, one of which contained the palace and lodgings, and the other the court of judicature and records, stables, garden, and other offices. The former constituted what was properly denominated the Castle, and the latter was called the Green, or Barbican. This noble fabric now presents a mass of magnificent ruins, retaining, however, ample assurances of its former glory. Of the chapel, a circular building, in the inner court, is all that remains. Over several of the stable-doors, the arms of Elizabeth and the earl of Pembroke are still visible; and over the inner gate of the castle are the arms of the Sidney family, with an inscription beneath. Along the sides of the eminence on which these splendid ruins are seated are some public walks, which were laid out in 1772, at the instigation of the countess of Powis. Part of Ludlow Castle was recently occupied by Lucian Bonaparte, his family, and suite, while refugees in this country. Ludlow is distant from Church Stretton, fifteen miles; Shrewsbury, twenty-nine; Much Wenlock, twenty; Cleobury Mortimer, eleven; Bridgnorth, twenty; Bewdley, nineteen; Tenbury, nine; Worcester, thirty-one; Leominster, eleven; Hereford, twenty-three; Presteign, six-



teen; Kington, twenty-two; Knighton, sixteen; Clun, sixteen; Bishop's Castle, seventeen; and London, 142. Lat. 52.25. N. lon. 2.48. W.

In the neighbourhood of Ludlow are several pleasant villages and seats.—In the village of Bromefield are the remains of a cell of Benedictine monks, formerly belonging to the abbey of St. Peter, Gloucester. These ruins stand on a delightful situation within the grounds of Oakley Park, the residence of the dowager lady Clive.—Richard's Castle lies about three miles from Ludlow. The town contiguous was originally called Gayton, or Boytane; but the lustre of the castle afterwards eclipsed that name, and it is now called by the same appellation as the castle. This was once a place of considerable importance, as is evident from several old records prior to the time of Henry II. when it began to decay, in spite of the exertions of the noble family of Mortimer to support its declining state. Some part of the keep and walls of the castle are still remaining.—About four miles north-west of the town is Dowton Castle, the seat of Mr. Knight, brother to R. P. Knight, author of a poem called the Landscape, and of several other literary productions. This gentleman built an irregular and singular mansion here, and called it a castle. He also laid out the grounds, immediately adjoining the house, in a style corresponding to his theoretical principles of the picturesque. On this subject Mr. Knight and his friend Mr. Price have published some essays. The grounds and woods of this demesne are particularly bold, grand, and diversified.—At Benford, eight miles distant, is a monument for Elizabeth, daughter of John of Gaunt, and sister to Henry IV. whose last husband was sir John Cornwall; she died 1426. *British Directory*; *Oldfield's Hist. of Boroughs*; *Byrne's Antiq. of Great Britain*; *Price's Ludlow Guide*; *Hodges's Account of Ludlow Castle*.

LUD'LOW, a township of America, in Hampshire county, Massachusetts: ninety miles west of Boston; incorporated in 1784, and containing 650 inhabitants.—Also, a township on Black River, Windsor County, Vermont, containing 410 inhabitants: ten or twelve miles west of Weathersfield, on Connecticut River.

LUD'LOW (Edmund), a distinguished leader of the republican party in the civil wars of Charles I. was descended from a family of rank originally settled in Shropshire, but removed to the county of Wilts. He was born about 1620, at Maiden-Bradley in that county, being the eldest son of sir Henry Ludlow, knt. He received his academical education at Trinity-college, Oxford, whence he was removed to the Temple for the study of the law. His father, who was chosen a representative for Wiltshire to the long parliament of 1640, having joined the party in opposition to the court, Edmund warmly adopted the same principles, and entered into a military association among the students of the law, with most of whom he joined the army as one of the life-guards of the earl of Essex. In this situation he was present at the battle of Edge-hill, in which it appears that he endured much personal fatigue and suffering. Speaking of the night after the battle, he says, "No man nor horse got any meat that night, and I had touched none since the Saturday before; (this was Monday;) neither could I find my servant, who had my cloak, so that, having nothing to keep me warm but a suit of iron, I was obliged to walk about all night, which proved very cold by reason of a sharp frost." And he farther adds, "When I got meat, I could scarcely eat it, my jaws, for want of use, having lost almost their natural faculty." Soon after this, Ludlow raised a troop of horse, which he commanded at the siege of Wardour castle. Of this fortress, when taken, he was made governor, and he held it ten months against all the efforts of the king's party, till it was battered to ruins. He was taken prisoner on its surrender, but was soon exchanged, and then appointed by the parliament sheriff of the county of Wilts. He took a commission under sir William Waller, and was present at the second battle of Newbury, and at several

other important actions, in which he displayed equal valour and good conduct. When the leaders of the presbyterian party were thrown out of power by the self-denying ordinance, Ludlow seceded with them, and remained without public employment till he was chosen, in 1645, knight of the shire for the county of Wilts in the place of his father, who died two years before. At this period the plans of Cromwell began to be developed, and Ludlow was one of those who opposed them with the greatest firmness and openness. He thought it necessary, however, in order to establish his favourite republic, to join with the army against the parliament, when the latter had voted that the king's concessions were ground for a treaty; and he was active in the arbitrary measure of purging the house by excluding the members who had promoted that vote. He was one of those who, according to his own expression, "had the honour" of sitting in judgment upon the king. Soon after that event he married, and with his wife's portion and part of his patrimony made a purchase of two manors in Wiltshire out of the alienated dean-and-chapter lands. Cromwell, probably for the purpose of keeping him out of his way, caused him to be nominated lieutenant-general of horse in Ireland, and one of the commissioners for civil affairs in that kingdom. He arrived there in the beginning of 1650; and, joining the army under lord-deputy Ireton, performed many services with great vigour and ability. After the death of Ireton, the chief command of the army devolved upon Ludlow; but, as he continued to oppose the ambitious schemes of Cromwell, he was superseded by Fleetwood. After some delay, he was permitted to come to London, where he had a long conference with Cromwell and his principal partisans. In this he maintained, with great freedom and presence of mind, the republican principles upon which he acted, and could not be induced to make any absolute engagement for his future submission: he denied he had done any thing contrary to law, and refused to owe his liberty to compliance with an unjust requisition: in the end, his brother Thomas was induced to engage for him, though without his consent; and he went into Essex, where he continued till Cromwell's death. When Richard was declared protector, Ludlow, with other republicans, joined the army-party of Wallingford-house, and was instrumental in the restoration of the long parliament, in which he took his former seat. He was appointed one of the committee of safety, and had the command of a regiment. His attachment to the parliament, however, rendering him suspected by the army-faction, whose designs he thwarted, he was again sent to Ireland as commander-in-chief of the forces there. He arrived at Dublin in August 1659, and immediately took measures to fix the officers in the interest of the parliament. When he found things taking a decided turn towards monarchy, he hastened to London with a view of preventing this change; and, when he found the effort hopeless, and that the tide of public inclination in favour of a king was irresistible, he began to consider of his own safety. His name was not among the seven excepted in the bill of indemnity; nevertheless, the proclamation respecting the persons who sat in judgment on the late king Charles filled him with just apprehension; and, notwithstanding the remonstrances of his friends to the contrary, he determined, as his safest course, to withdraw from the kingdom. He landed at Dieppe in 1660, whence he proceeded to Geneva, where he was joined by two other persons who had likewise been judges of the late king; but, thinking themselves not sufficiently secure, they withdrew into Switzerland. Even here, the vengeance of the royal family pursued the regicides, some of whom were actually assassinated by the agents of the English government; an attempt was made against the life of Ludlow, but, being discovered, he evaded the blow, and passed the remainder of his life in the neighbourhood of Berne, highly respected and esteemed by the magistrates and people of that city, as well for his private virtues as his public charac-



ter. In 1639 he ventured to come over to England, and appear openly in London; but, a motion being made in the house of commons for an address to the king to issue a proclamation for his apprehension, he returned to the continent, and closed his life in exile, at the age of seventy-three. A monument was erected to his memory, in the principal church at Vevay, by his widow, who had been the faithful and courageous partner in all his fortunes. Edmund Ludlow was undoubtedly one of the purest and most disinterested persons who flourished in those times. He was equitable and humane, calm and sedate, yet resolute; virtuous without austerity, and pious without fanaticism. His "Memoirs" were first printed at Vevay, in 2 vols. 8vo. 1698, to which, in the following year, another volume was added. They were reprinted in one volume folio, London 1751; to this edition was added "The Case of King Charles I." drawn up by John Cook, solicitor to the high court of justice on his trial. In the same year, the work was printed in 3 vols. 12mo. at Edinburgh. An edition in 4to. was published in 1771. The Memoirs contain an account of the author's own transactions during the civil wars, and the subsequent period, together with many particulars relative to the general history of the times, written in a clear, interesting, and unaffected style. *Biog. Brit. Ludlow's Memoirs.*

LUDOLF (Job), a learned orientalist, was born in 1624, of an ancient family, at Erfurt in Thuringia. He was educated in the university of his native place, and particularly attended to the study of jurisprudence, and of the learned languages, especially those of the east. For the purpose of instruction, he travelled into several countries of Europe; and, after an absence of six years, returned to Erfurt. He exercised there during eighteen years the functions of a counsellor, and was frequently deputed to assist at the diets held upon the subject of the contests between the dukes of Saxony and the archbishops of Mentz. Wearied at length with public business, and impatient to devote himself entirely to his studies, he obtained his dismissal from Frederic duke of Saxony, who granted him the title of honorary counsellor. He chose for the place of his retreat the city of Frankfort on the Mayne; but scarcely had he settled his family there, when the elector-palatine placed him at the head of his finances. In his service he made two journeys to France, where he consulted the libraries of Paris, in order to obtain every information connected with his favourite oriental studies. At length he returned to Frankfort, and employed himself for the remainder of his life in finishing and revising the different works he had composed. He died in 1704, at the age of eighty, in universal esteem, as well for his virtues as his talents. He possessed a great fund of knowledge, acquired by indefatigable industry; and was equally fitted for the dispatch of public business, and the retired pursuits of the closet. Of the numerous writings of Ludolf, the principal are, 1. *Historia Aethiopiae*, folio, 1681. 2. *A Commentary on the same*, folio, 1691. 3. *An Appendix to the same*, 4to. 1693. In these works the history, religion, and manners, of the Ethiopians, are detailed at length; and, though some errors and inaccuracies have been pointed out, they are allowed to contain a great mass of authentic information. 4. *An Abyssinian Grammar and Dictionary*, folio, 1698. 5. *Dissertatio de Locutis*, folio, 1694. 6. *Fasti Ecclesiae Alexandrinae*, folio, 1691. 7. *De Bello Turcico feliciter Consciendo*, 4to. 1686. *Morevi.*

LUDOLF (Henry-William), nephew of the preceding, and a learned as well as pious writer, was born at Erfurt in the year 1655. His father, who was a counsellor of that city, gave him a liberal education; and his uncle instructed him in the oriental languages, particularly the Hebrew and the Arabic, in which he became a considerable proficient. He obtained the post of secretary to M. Lenthe, envoy from Christian V. king of Denmark to the court of Great Britain; who was so well satisfied with the manner in which he acquitted himself in that em-

ployment, that he afterwards recommended him to prince George of Denmark, who in 1680 appointed him his secretary. This situation he retained for some years, till the attack of a violent disorder rendered him incapable of discharging his duties; when he was permitted to retire, with a handsome pension. Upon his recovery, he resolved to visit foreign countries, and particularly such as were little known to travellers, that he might become acquainted with their manners, and learn their languages. Russia was the first country of this description which excited his curiosity; and, as he had acquired some knowledge of the Russian language before he left England, he was soon able to converse with the natives, and met with a polite reception from the principal persons in that country. As he understood music, and was an able performer on several instruments, he had the honour to display his accomplishments in this art before the czar at Moscow, to the great surprise and delight of that prince. The various knowledge, likewise, which he discovered in his conversations with the Russian clergy, led them to consider him as a prodigy of learning; and particularly the facility with which he discoursed in the Hebrew tongue, with some Jews who were in that country. Upon his return to London in 1694, he was obliged to undergo the operation of cutting for the stone; and as soon as his health would permit he set about the composition of "A Russian Grammar," intended for the use not only of traders and travellers, but of the natives themselves, by exhibiting the principles of their language in a more regular form than had been before laid down. This work was printed at the Oxford university press, and published in 1696. Ludolf's curiosity now determined him to take a voyage into the east, that he might obtain information concerning the state of the Christian church in the Levant. He arrived at Smyrna in November 1698; whence he went to Jassa, from Jassa to Jerusalem, and from Jerusalem to Cairo; making useful observations on the productions of nature and art, and carefully examining the state of government and religion in the different countries through which he passed. An anecdote which he relates of a conversation which took place between him and the commander of a Turkish vessel, on-board of which he had taken his passage for Alexandria, is not unworthy of being preserved. He was one day reading aloud our Saviour's sermon in the mount, out of the Arabic version of the New Testament, which had been printed at the expense of Mr. Boyle; when the captain, after having listened for some time, asked him, "What book that was?" Upon his answering, that "it was the system of the Christian religion;" the captain replied, "that could not possibly be true, since the practice of the Christians was directly the reverse." To this Ludolf rejoined, that "he was mistaken, and that it was easy to account for his being so; since the Turks had little opportunity of conversing with, or observing the manners of, any other Christians than sailors or merchants, who were too commonly a disgrace to their religion." With this answer the Turk appeared to be well satisfied, and afterwards treated our traveller with great civility and kindness. As soon as Ludolf had returned to England, his reflections on the deplorable state of Christianity among those who professed that religion under the Turkish government induced him to undertake an impression of the New Testament in the vulgar Greek, and to present it to the members of the Greek church. In the year 1709, Ludolf was appointed by queen Anne one of the commissioners for managing the charities collected for the relief of the poor Palatines, whom the severe exactions of the French, and the calamities of war, had driven from their native country. He died in the year 1710, in the fifty-fifth year of his age. Besides his Russian Grammar, he was the author of, 2. *Meditations on Retirement from the World.* 3. *Meditations upon divers Subjects, tending to promote the inward Life of Faith, &c.* 4. *Considerations on the Interest of the Church Universal.* 5. *A Proposal for pro-*



moting the Cause of Religion in the Churches of the Levant. 6. Reflections on the present State of the Christian Church. 7. A Homily of Macarius, done out of Greek. Some of these pieces were printed separately; and they were all published in a collective form in the year 1712. *Gen. Biog.*

LUDOLPHIA, *f.* in botany, the name of a genus instituted by Adanson, for a species of TETRAGONIA, which see.

LUDSCHEN, a town of Prussia, in Oberland: seven miles east-south-east of Marienwerder.

LUDSHAM, a village in Suffex, near Marshfield and Cuckfield.

LUDSHELF, the name of a decayed, or rather extinguished town, near Whitchurch in Hampshire. In the time of the Heptarchy, the city of Ludshelf, or Lychfeldt, stood on the cow-down, about a mile north of the town of Whitchurch. It was founded by the Romans; but was sacked and destroyed in the wars between some of the petty Saxon monarchs. Scarcely any vestiges of it remain, but a Roman way through Cold Henley, and across the down and fields, to Egbury, north-west of Whitchurch.

LUDSTON, a village in Shropshire, five miles from Bridgenorth.

LUDSWIGSBURG, a town of Wirtemberg. Towards the beginning of the 18th century, in this place were no more than two farms. In 1704, duke Eberhard Louis built him a hunting-seat here, and called it *Ludswigsburg*. To this he afterwards added a stately building, which was completed in the year 1733. In it are two chapels; one for Roman Catholics; the other, built in 1748, for Lutherans. The picture-gallery here is very fine. In the pleasant garden too, which stands opposite to the old castle, is a building called *Favorita*. Near the castle houses have been gradually built, so as at length to form a handsome town, which lies higher than the castle, and is the seat of a special superintendency. In the manufactures here is made a good cloth, as also damask linen and marble paper. In the years 1727 and 1730, the principal ducal colleges were removed hither from Stuttgart; but in 1733, on the decease of duke Eberhard Louis, they were remanded back again to that place. It is sixteen miles south of Heilbron, and five north-north-east of Stuttgart. Lat. 48. 54. N. lon. 9. 18. E.

LUDUS, *f.* [Latin.] A play, a frolic; a school, a place of exercise.

LUDWELL, a village in Hertfordshire, north of Hitchin.—A village in Wiltshire, near Wardour Castle.

LUDWICK HALL, a village in Hertfordshire, north-east of Hatfield.

LUDWIG (Christian-Theophilus), an eminent botanist, was born in Silesia in 1709, and educated for the medical profession. Having a strong bias towards natural history, he was appointed to accompany Hebenstreit in his expedition to the north of Africa. (See *HEBENSTREIT*, vol. ix.) Soon after his return in 1733, he became professor of medicine at Leipzig. The first thesis defended there under his presidency, in 1736, related to the manner in which marine plants are nourished: these he showed to differ essentially from the generality of the vegetable kingdom, as not deriving their nourishment by the root. In 1737 he published a *Programma* in support of the doctrine of the sexes of plants, from his own observations upon the date-palm. Two years afterwards he, nevertheless, advanced some objections to the Linnæan system of arrangement by the organs of impregnation, under the title of *Observationes in Methodum Plantarum Sexualem Cel. Linnæi*. This work begins with much just commendation of Linnæus, and even with great admiration of his system; accompanied however, by an attempt at depriving him of the merit of originality, by insinuating that this system had been "indicated by others;" without saying by whom.

Ludwig published in 1737 his *Definitiones Plantarum*, in 8vo. for the use of his pupils. In this the genera of plants are arranged in a method supposed to be natural, founded

on the corolla in the first place, the subordinate characters being taken from the fruit. The generic distinctions are derived from the herbage, flower, smell, taste, colour, or any thing that came in the author's way; certainly with no advantage whatever over the laws and practice of Linnæus, but rather evincing, at every step, the superiority of the latter to the vague scheme of his opponent. In another little volume of Ludwig, the *Aphorismi Botanici*, published in 1738, the assertion of his being "a Linnæan in disguise" is strongly justified. In vain does the writer try to forget the *Philosophia Botanica*, and to seek originality, at any rate, by wandering from its light. In vain does he extol the system of Rivinus in preference to all others. He is brought back by his own judgment, in spite of himself, at every step; and, as he could never give the least degree of popularity to the system he extolled, the slightest study of his works will show it to have been a mill-stone about his own neck. Boehmer gave a new and improved edition of the *Definitiones Plantarum* in 1760. In 1742, and again in 1757, our author published his *Institutiones Historico-Physicæ Regni Vegetabilis*, in 8vo. Still in pursuit of novelty rather than of truth, he rejects the Linnæan distinctions between animals and vegetables, founding the characteristic mark of the latter on the supposed propulsion of their fluids through a cellular texture, and not through a vascular system as in animals. This distinction is now known to have no foundation. In this work at length even the disguise of a Linnæan is almost laid aside, a system of arrangement being proposed in which the stamens and styles make an essential, if not a leading, feature. The favourite old system of Rivinus still takes precedence, though it serves only as an additional impediment in the way of natural affinities; which defect is in some measure concealed by the primary characters not being strictly followed. It is remarkable that our author, in thus professedly adopting the principles of Rivinus and Linnæus combined, and disclaiming as he does all pretensions to originality, never mentions those persons from whom he had long ago asserted that Linnæus borrowed his system. This volume may therefore be considered as a tacit tribute of respect to the illustrious Swede, arising from its author's progress in judgment and experience. He had no motive to withhold this tribute, as Linnæus never resented nor repelled his attacks, and even named a genus of plants in his honour. See the following article.

Our author began, in 1760, to publish impressions, chiefly of medicinal plants, taken from the dried specimens with printer's ink, or with smoked paper, in folio, under the title of *Eclypa Vegetabilium*, which he continued from time to time. Such impressions give undoubtedly a correct outline, at least if the plant be fully displayed; but the rest is a mass of confusion; especially as the more elevated parts, which should be light, are necessarily the darkest. He wrote also occasionally on medico-botanical subjects, as on the effects of extract of Stramonium, and of the Belladonna, or deadly nightshade, in the epilepsy. His opinion seems not to have been favourable to either. Ludwig died at Leipzig in 1773, aged sixty-four.—He left a son named Christian Frederic, born in 1751, who became professor of natural history in the same university, and is the author of various tracts on botany, anatomy, and physiology.—*Ludwig's Works. Hall. Bibl. Bot. Dryander. Bibl. Banks. S. in New Cyclopædia.*

LUDWIGIA, *f.* [so named by Linnæus, in honour of the subject of the preceding article.] In botany, a genus of the class tetrandria, order monogynia, natural order of calycanthemæ, (onagræ, *Juss.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium one-leaved, four-parted, superior, permanent; segments lanceolate, spreading very much, length of the corolla. Corolla: petals four, obcordate, flat, spreading very much, equal. Stamina: filaments four, awl-shaped, upright, short; antheræ simple, oblong, upright. Pistillum: germ four-cornered, covered with the base of the calyx, inferior; style cylindrical,



cal, length of the stamens; stigma obsolete four-cornered, capitate. Pericarpium: capsule four-cornered, blunt, covered and crowned by the calyx, four-celled, four-valved; partitions opposite to the valves. Seeds: numerous, small. Receptacle: columnar, membranaceous, four-winged; wings in the angles of the partitions, feed-bearing on each side.—*Essential Character.* Calyx four-parted, superior; corolla four-petalled; capsule inferior, four-cornered, four-celled; receptacle distinct from the axis of the fruit, bearing the seeds on each side.

*Species.* 1. *Ludwigia alternifolia*, or alternate-leaved ludwigia: leaves alternate, lanceolate; stem upright. This is an annual plant, rising with an upright branching stalk a foot high. The flowers come out singly at the axils: they are small, on short peduncles; corolla yellow. Capsule shorter than the permanent calyx, from a rounded base, cubical, opening at the angles; partitions membranaceous, inserted on one side into the middle of the valves, on the other into the axis, not separating; receptacle, a compressed fungose lamina, or plate, fixed to the inner angle of each cell, covered on both sides with the seeds; which are ovate, smooth, somewhat shining, pale yellow. Native of Virginia; or, according to Mr. Miller, of South Carolina, whence the seeds were sent him by Thomas Dale, M.D. before 1752. It flowers in June and July.

2. *Ludwigia oppositifolia*, or opposite-leaved ludwigia: leaves opposite, lanceolate; stem diffused. Stems procumbent, a span long. Branches at the root, and scarcely any others. Leaves smooth, quite entire, striated, ending in the petioles: in *Flora Zeylanica* the leaves are said to be *alternate*; the herb like *Lythrum hystopifolium*, and the flower in the form of *Caryophyllus officinarum*. Native of the East-Indies.

3. *Ludwigia repens*, or creeping ludwigia: leaves opposite, ovate; peduncles solitary, axillary; stem creeping. This is an annual plant, native of Jamaica. See *ISNARDIA palustris*, which is the same; vol. xi.

4. *Ludwigia erigata*, or upright ludwigia: leaves opposite, lanceolate; stem upright. This also is annual. Stem herbaceous, a foot high, and smooth. Native of the East-Indies. Jussieu doubts whether this species belongs to the genus; the leaves being opposite, and the flowers terminating.

*Propagation and Culture.*—The plants must be raised from seed in a hot-bed, in the spring, and treated as directed for *Amaranthus*. If they be not brought forward in the spring, they seldom produce good seeds in England. See *AMMANNIA*, *ISNARDIA*, and *JUSSEUA*.

**LUDWIGSBURG**, a town of Anterior Pomerania, on the coast of the Baltic: five miles east-north-east of Griefswalde.

**LUDWIGSTAT**, a town of the principality of Culmbach: fourteen miles north-west of Lichtenburg, and thirteen south of Saalfeld.

**LUDWIGSTEIN**, a town of the principality of Hesse Rhinels: fourteen miles east of Cassel, and sixteen south of Göttingen.

**LUDWIGSTHAL**, a town of Wirtemberg, noted for its iron-forges: about a mile from Duttlingen.

**LUDWIGWALL**, a town of Prussia, in Natangen: four miles south of Königsberg.

**LUDWORTH**, a village of Derbyshire, in the high peak.—A village in the county of Durham, east of Durham.

**LU'EG**, or **JAM'MA**, a citadel of Carniola, on the centre of a high mountain, which rises perpendicularly. This large building stands so in a hole in the rock, that no rain falls on it; notwithstanding which, it has a roof for its defence against the water which trickles down from the rock. From this citadel is no other prospect than that which looks up towards the heavens. One half of the fort tower alone projects. It is six miles north-west of Cirknitz.

**LU'EG**, a pass in the archbishopric of Salzburg: four miles south of Golling.

**LU'ES**, *f.* A destruction; a great mortality.

**LU'ES VENE'REA**, *f.* [from the Lat. *lues*, a disease, and *Venus*, the patroness of love.] The foul disease; called also *morbus gallicus*, *syphilis*, *morbus neapolitanus*, *morbus aphrodisius*, &c.

Several writers have endeavoured to prove the great antiquity of this distemper. The principal of these are, Mr. William Becket, whose papers are contained in the 30th and 31st vols. of the Philosophical Transactions; Dr. Charles Patin, and Dr. Sanchez, authors of dissertations on the origin of the disease. The opinion has even been maintained, that the venereal malady has existed from time immemorial; and passages in support of this sentiment are referred to in Hippocrates, Galen, Avicenna, Celsus, and likewise the Holy Scriptures. But that the Greeks and Romans were at all acquainted with the venereal disease seems extremely improbable, and is an assertion quite unestablished. Dr. Adams has well observed, that the ancient physicians, being ignorant of the medical powers of mercury, must have been infinitely more familiar with every form of the disease, had it been known, than ourselves: yet, till near the close of the fifteenth century, we have no description of local appearances that can be mistaken for venereal; and during the following century, the industrious Astruc enumerates more than a hundred writers on the subject. If other proofs are required, let us mark the difference between the licentious poets of former times and our own. Can a reader of common sense suppose that Horace, Juvenal, Persius, or Ovid, could have been silent on a subject so perpetually occurring in the satirical writings of Pope and Swift?

Giving up the supposition of *lues venerea* being of such antiquity, still it is contended that the disorder prevailed in Europe long before the return of Columbus from his voyage to America, or Charles VIII. besieged Naples; two events which happened at the close of the fifteenth century, when it is commonly thought that the disease first began its ravages in Spain and Italy, and thence spread to other parts of the old world. We are told that Gulielmus Salicetus, who practised at Verona in 1210, was well acquainted with the cause and effects of syphilis; and, in confirmation of this remark, we are referred to his work on surgery, where may be found a chapter, intitled, “*De pustulis albis, et scissuris et corruptionibus quæ sunt in virga et circa præputium, propter coitum cum meretrice, vel alia causa.*” Gordon, who lectured on physic at the university of Montpellier in 1289, mentions in chap. 5, “*De passionibus virgæ,*” the affections originating from connections with women whose wombs are foul, virulent, fanious, infectious, &c. and he likewise specifies a remedy for a chancre proceeding from such a cause. *Lombard sur la Maladie Vén.*

In the 30th and 31st vols. of the Philosophical Transactions, Mr. W. Becket published his papers in support of the antiquity of *lues venerea*. In the first dissertation, he labours to prove that a venereal gonorrhœa was known in England some ages before the year 1494, under the name of *ardor*, *arsura*, *incendium*, &c. in English, *brenning* or *burning*; of which, indeed, there is frequent mention made by British historians. In confirmation of this opinion, Mr. Becket produces authorities, of which some are earlier, and others later, than the year 1494, the period when *lues venerea* is generally imagined to have first shown itself in Europe.

The earliest of these authorities, being the most material, will alone be noticed by us. 1. The first is a manuscript treatise of John Arden, an eminent surgeon in England, about the close of the fourteenth century. In this book mention is made of *burning*, which, according to Becket, is defined “a certain inward heat and excoriation of the urethra.” 2. The second authority rests upon certain physical pieces supposed to have been written about the years 1390 and 1440. These works are said to contain some receipts for the cure of this *brenning*, both in men and women. 3. The third and last that we shall notice is founded upon



upon the manuscript rules and ordinances of the stewes, which were by public authority allowed to be kept at London, in the Borough of Southwark, under the controul of the bishop of Winchester. These documents are supposed to have been drawn up about the year 1430. One of them begins thus: "Of those, who keep women having a wicked infirmity." And further, it is ordered, under a severe penalty, that no steward keep any woman "wythin his hous that hath any syckness of brenning." See vol. ii. p. 818.

The celebrated Dr. Astruc, on the other hand, has deduced a different inference from these productions, without denying that they may be authentic; for he will not admit that this *burning* was the same disease as a venereal gonorrhœa, or that a venereal gonorrhœa was at any time expressed by such a term. His arguments are supported by considerations of the following kind. 1. The *leprosy* of the Arabians, which was formerly a common disease in England; as well as in other parts of Europe, was exceedingly contagious and infectious; and, therefore, lepers were, by several severe edicts, prohibited from having intercourse with the rest of mankind. In case any had carnal knowledge of a leprous woman, the leprosy was communicated to him by almost immediate infection. 3. When the case did not turn out to be leprosy in the worst form, yet the pudenda were for the most part affected with an inflammation, erysipelas, herpetic or miliary exulcerations, cuticular eruptions, &c. whence arose a dysuria, called, in old language, *ardor, arfura, incendium, calefactio*, and, in English, *brenning*. Upon the whole, Astruc infers that the *burning*, or *brenning*, referred to by Mr. Becket, was the same disorder as might arise from connection with a leprous woman; or one who had lately cohabited with a leprous man. As for the *nefanda infirmitas* mentioned in the laws of the stewes, Dr. Astruc conceives it must have been the leprosy itself. *De Morb. Venereis*.

We shall not follow these gentlemen through the whole of their arguments. The most important are set before the reader, and he must judge of them himself. That discharges from the urethra, attended with heat and pain in making water, must have existed from time immemorial, we decidedly believe; because experience has well proved that such complaints may often proceed from causes which are decidedly not venereal. Becket, we think, has fully proved that inflammations, discharges, &c. existed long before the year 1494; but his evidence fails in establishing that they were actually venereal. Astruc himself has very sensibly remarked, "that the genitals are no less subject to violent diseases than the other parts of the body, that they are equally exposed to all the causes of indisposition, and that they enjoy no prerogative above the rest to guard them against the attack of distempers. From the very infancy of physic, and long before the venereal disease was known, several writers have treated at large of an abscess, ulcer, cancer, and mortification, in the genitals." The phimosi, paraphimosi, and hypercarcosi, or caruncle of the urethra, among other cases, were undoubtedly known to the Greek physicians; but then, these disorders proceeded from an ordinary cause, and not from any venereal contagion, as will be plain to any one who will take the trouble to consult the old writers.

Dismissing the idea of the venereal disease being so ancient as some have supposed, let us examine what grounds there are for believing that the close of the fifteenth century was the era, when the disorder first commenced its ravages in Europe. The authorities in support of the opinion, that the venereal distemper first made its appearance in this quarter of the world towards the latter end of the year 1494, are the united testimonies of all the medical writers who at that time flourished in Italy, and who could not confound it with the leprosy, which, being then a common disease, was well known to them. The practitioners of that period were astonished at the novelty of the malady; and finding, from the experience, that the medicines, which were usually given in analogous cases, proved in-

effectual, were at a loss what method to pursue, and, for a time gave up the treatment into the hands of quacks.

Joseph Grunpech, a German physician, published, in the year 1496, *Traſtatum de Peſtilentiali Scorra, five Malade Frantzoi*, in which he affirms, that it was a disease so lately inflicted on mankind, that it seemed to be a plague sent down from heaven; that it was a new kind of disease, hateful to nature, a most horrid and terrible prodigy, and altogether known to mortals before that time. Alexander Benedict of Verona, who was physician in the Venetian army, which Charles VIII. of France destroyed in the battle of Fornova, in the year 1495, and therefore had the opportunity of observing the first appearance of this new disease, asserts in his work, *De omnibus Morbis*, published in 1496, that, "by the venereal contact, a new French disease, or, at least, one that was unknown to former physicians, owing to the pestiferous aspect of the stars, had burst in upon them from the west;" and, in another part of his work, that "the French disease, a new plague which had sprung up in the world, contracted by lying together and contact, was reckoned in his time incurable." Nicolaus Leoniceus of Vicenza, professor of physic at Ferrara, in a treatise which he wrote in 1496, *De Morbo Gallico*, observes, that "new diseases had appeared in Italy, which were unknown to former ages, after the manner of the lichenis, which, according to Pliny, Hist. Nat. lib. xvi. were never known before the time of Claudius." Then he continues: "Something like this has happened in this age; for now a new disease, of an unusual nature, has attacked Italy and several other countries: however, this disease has obtained no proper name hitherto by our present physicians, but they commonly call it the French disease; as if the contagion had been imported by the French into Italy, and that this country was infested both by the disease and the arms of France at the same time. I, for my part, am forced to believe, (nor, indeed, can I conceive the case to be otherwise,) that this infectious disease, which has lately sprung up, has harassed this present age as it never did any former one." Coradinus Gilinus, in his *Opusculum de Morbo Gallico*, begins thus: "Last year (1496) a very violent disease attacked great numbers of people, both in Italy and on the other side of the mountains, which the Italians call the French disease, affirming that the French introduced it into Italy; which the French call the Italian or Neapolitan disease, because, they say, they were first infested in Italy, and especially at Naples, with this cruel plague; or, because the disease appeared first in Italy at the time of the passage of the French over the mountains. And as this disease is yet unknown to the moderns, and there have been, and still subsist, great debates about it amongst physicians, I have therefore determined to write something upon it."

That the venereal disease first began to make ravages in Europe, and in particular that it afflicted many soldiers of the army of Charles VIII. at the siege of Naples, towards the close of the fifteenth century, appears then to be proved beyond dispute. But still other questions remain for determination. Was the venereal infection originally produced in Italy? or, was it conveyed thither from America, which had been discovered a little before the breaking out of the distemper in Europe?

We learn from history, that the new world was first found out by Christopher Columbus. In August 1492, he set sail with three ships and 120 men, arrived at Hispaniola in December of the same year, and returned to Spain in March 1493. On the 25th of September following, he departed from Cadiz again with seventeen ships and 1500 men, besides mariners and workmen; and, in November, he arrived once more at Hispaniola. In the following year, 1494, he dispatched fourteen ships back to Spain. In April 1494, Bartholomew Columbus, the brother of Christopher, arrived at Hispaniola with three ships, which returned to Spain, about the conclusion of the same year, with Pedro de Margarit, a Catalonian gentleman, and father Bayl, a Benedictine monk: the former was, at that



that time, severely afflicted with the venereal disease. In August 1494, four other ships arrived at Hispaniola from Spain, under the command of Antonio de Torrez, and returned at the same time as those last specified. Lastly, in October 1495, John Aguado, the envoy of their Catholic majesties, came to Hispaniola with four ships, to inquire into the crimes of which Christopher Columbus stood accused; and the year following departed for Cadiz, where he arrived with Christopher on the 11th of June 1496, and with 200 soldiers, who were infected with the venereal disease. The first conveyance of this distemper from the West Indies to Europe, by the followers of Columbus, is supported by numerous testimonies; among which are those of Anthony Mufa Bravavolus, John Baptista Montanus, Gabriel Fallopius, and Roderic Diaz. These confirm the disease to have originated in the West Indies, and to have been brought over by Columbus's men; that it appeared in Spain first in 1493, at Barcelona, and there spread immediately through the whole city; that, in Hispaniola and the adjacent West-India islands, the disease was very frequent and familiar to the natives, who had found out an antidote called guaiacum-wood; and, lastly, that the distemper in America was milder than in Europe, where, on its first breaking out, it was undoubtedly more severe than at subsequent periods.

There is only one other sentiment, which we have to notice, respecting the first origin of syphilis, namely, that it was not brought from the West Indies, but began in Europe, as an epidemical affection. Mr. Hunter seems inclined to think, that the distemper did not originally come from the West Indies; and he was led into this persuasion by reading a short treatise, entitled, "A Dissertation on the Origin of the Venereal Disease; proving, that it was not brought from America, but began in Europe from an epidemical distemper. Translated from the original Manuscript of an eminent Physician. London, printed for Robert Griffiths, 1751." In our opinion, however, Astruc has adduced abundant proofs of the distemper having existed in Hispaniola before it was at all known in Europe; and he has explained, as satisfactorily as can reasonably be expected, how the disease was conveyed from the West Indies to Barcelona in 1493, and to Italy shortly afterwards.

The subject is highly interesting; though the time that has now elapsed, since the commencement of lues venerea in Europe, forbids any advantageous investigation of the controverted points. That the ancient leprosy could not be syphilis, Dr. Astruc has entirely satisfied us; and we join him in the belief that the latter disease was originally imported into Europe from the West Indies. It is unquestionably a matter of infinite curiosity, that the leprosy, common as it was in former times, should scarcely ever have made its appearance after the venereal disease spread over Europe; but this may not be more curious and unaccountable than the departure of the plague, and the access of the small-pox. Mr. Hunter has remarked, that, in whatever manner the disease arose, it certainly began in the human race; for we know of no other animal that is capable of being infected with this poison. It is probable, too, that the parts of generation were the first affected; for, if the disorder had occurred in any other part of the body, it might probably never have gone further than the person in whom it first arose, and therefore never have excited public attention; but, as it was seated in the parts of generation, where the only natural connection takes place between one human being and another, it was in the most favourable situation for being propagated. For the symptoms and cure of this disease, see the article PATHOLOGY.

LUE'SIA, a town of Spain, in the province of Arragon: twenty miles south-west of Jaca.

LUFF, *f.* [In Scotland.] The palm of the hand.  
To LUFF, or LOOF, *v. n.* To keep close to the wind. Sea term.—Contract your swelling sails, and luff to wind. *Dryden.*

LUFF'-TACKLE, *f.* A name given by sailors to any

large tackle that is not destined for a particular place, but may be variously employed as occasion requires. It is generally somewhat larger than the jigger-tackle, although smaller than those which serve to hoist the heavier materials into and out of the vessel, which latter are the main and fore tackles, the stay and quarter tackles, &c.

LUFFA, *f.* in botany. See MOMORDICA.  
LUFFENCOT, a village in Devonshire, near Holf-worthy.

LUFFENHALL, a village to the north-east of Stevenage, Herts.

LUFFENHAM (North and South), villages in Rutlandshire, four miles from Uppingham; supposed to have been anciently one town.

LUFFIELD, a village partly in Bucks, and partly in Northamptonshire. It once had a priory; and is taxed in the parish of Stow.

LUFFWICK, a village in Northamptonshire, north-west of Thrapston.

LUFVIA, a town of Sweden, in the province of Finland: ten miles south of Biorneborg.

LUFUNA, a river of Africa, which divides Congo from Angola, and runs into the Atlantic in lat. 8. 26. S.

LUG, a river in Herefordshire, which runs into the Wye near Hereford.

LUG, a river of Wales, which rises in the county of Radnor, passes through Shropshire and Monmouthshire, and runs into the Severn near Chepstow.

To LUG, *v. a.* [aluccan, Sax. to pull; *loga*, Swed. the hollow of the hand.] To hale or drag; to pull with rugged violence.—Either every single animal spirit must convey a whole representation, or else they must divide the image amongst them, and so lug off every one his share. *Collier.*

Thy bear is safe, and out of peril,  
Though lugg'd indeed, and wounded very ill. *Hudibras.*

To LUG out. To draw a sword, in burlesque language: But buff and beltmen never know these cares,  
No time, nor trick of law, their action bars;  
They will be heard, or they lug out and cut. *Dryden.*

To LUG, *v. n.* To drag; to come heavily: perhaps only misprinted for lag:

My flagging fowl flies under her own pitch,  
Like fowl in air, too damp, and lugs along,  
As if she were a body in a body. *Dryden.*

LUG, *f.* A kind of small fish.—They feed on salt unmerchantable pilchards, tag worms, lugs, and little crabs. *Carew.*—[In Scotland.] An ear.—A land measure; a pole or perch:

That ample pit, yet far renown'd  
For the large leap which Debon did compel  
Ceaulin to make, being eight lugs of ground. *Spenser.*

LUG'-SAIL, *f.* A square sail, hoisted occasionally on the mast of a boat or small vessel upon a yard which hangs nearly at right angles with the mast. These are more particularly used in the barca longas, navigated by the Spaniards in the Mediterranean.

LUGA, a river of Russia, which runs into the gulf of Finland sixteen miles west of Kopore.

LUGA, a town of Russia, in the government of Petersburg, on a river of the same name: eighty miles south of Petersburg. Lat. 58. 25. N. lon. 29. 30. E.

LUGA, a mountain of Italy, in the county of Bormis: ten miles south of Bormis.

LUGA'NO, a bailiwick of Italy, granted by the duke of Milan, in the year 1513, to the Swiss cantons. It is about twenty miles in length and thirteen in breadth; containing 106 towns and villages, and 53,000 inhabitants, who all profess the Roman Catholic religion. Under the Swiss it was governed by a bailiff, sent every two years by each canton in its turn. The soil is fertile in pasture, corn, fruit, and silk; olives are produced in great abundance. It is now annexed to Italy.



LUGA'NO, the capital of the fore-mentioned bailiwick or district, is a small, tolerably-built, trading town, delightfully situated round the curve of a bay, and backed by a succession of hills, rising in gentle swells to a considerable height. In front a bold mountain clothed with forest projects into the lake, of which a noble branch extends to its right and left. To that spot boats of various sizes are continually passing and repassing; its base being perforated with *cantine*, or caverns, to which the inhabitants send their meat, and all sorts of provision, where it is kept untainted for seven or eight days, and the wine preserved with delicious coolness. The heats are moderated by the surrounding hills, and the cool breezes from the lake. It is no less sheltered from the alpine blasts, which, chilled by the neighbouring snows, would otherwise destroy the temperature of this equal climate. Olive, almond, and all the southern fruits ripen here to perfection. Lugano is the emporium of the greater part of the merchandise which passes from Italy over the St. Gothard, or the Bernardin. At the end of autumn, the Swiss mountaineers bring down numerous herds of cattle for sale, and return with less bulky commodities. The town contains about 8000 inhabitants; most of the houses are built of tuff-stone; the residence of the *capitano*, or governor, is a low building; and on the walls are the arms of the twelve regent cantons. On an eminence above the town stands the principal church, remarkable only for the beautiful carvings in stone round the doors and rose-window, and for the delicious prospect from its towers. In the cloister of the Recollets is a capital picture attributed to Luvino; their church is handsome, and the screen is ornamented with the paintings of the Passion by the same maker. It is sixteen miles north-west of Como. Lat. 45. 50. N. lon. 8. 53. E.

LUGA'NO (Lake of), a lake adjoining to the town above described, about twenty-five miles in length, and from two to four in breadth; its form is irregular, and bending into continued sinuosities. From Porto, a small village situated at its southern extremity, an arm of the lake bends northward, and discharges itself into the Lago Maggiore, by means of the river Trifa. It is scarcely possible, says Mr. Coxe, to imagine a more perfect or greater variety of beauties than this noble piece of water affords. The vast overhanging woods, the bold precipices, the transparency of the water, unite to form a scenery in the highest degree luxuriant. This lake is about one hundred and ninety feet perpendicular higher than the Lake of Como and Lago Maggiore. The two last mentioned lakes are of the same level, and about two hundred and forty feet higher than the city of Milan. *Coxe's Switzerland*, vol. iii.

LU'GAR NUE'VO, a town of Spain, in Valencia, on the coast: eight miles south of Alicante.

LUGAR' BEN, a town of Prussia, in the province of Natangen: thirty-six miles south-east of Königsberg.

LUG'DE, or LU'DE, a town of Westphalia, in the bishopric of Paderborn, on the Emmer: twenty-four miles north-north-east of Paderborn, and two south-west of Pymont. Lat. 51. 55. N. lon. 9. 18. E.

LUGDU'NUM, in ancient geography, the capital of the Segusiani in Gallia Celtica, situated at the conflux of the Arar and Rhodanus, on an eminence, as the Celtic term *dane* signifies; built by Manutius Plancus under Augustus, while commanding in that part of Gaul; and whither he led a colony. Now Lyons, in France.

LUGDU'NUM BATAVO'RUM, a town of the Batavi in Gallia Belgica. Now Leyden, in Holland.

LUGDU'NUM CONVERA'RUM, a town of Gaul, in Aquitain, at the foot of the Pyrenees. Now St. Bertrand, in Gascony.

LU'GE, a river of the duchy of Bremen, which runs into the Elbe six miles north-east of Stade, in lat. 53. 37. N. lon. 9. 33. E.

LUGE'US LA'CUS, in ancient geography, a lake of Japydia, the westmost district of Illyricum, to the south

of the Save, and near the head of the Arfia. Now commonly called the *Zirichnitz Lake*, from a small adjoining town. It is locked on every side with mountains, from which scanty currents run down; the less in quantity are their waters, because drunk up by the earth; till at length they are swallowed up in rocky furrows, so formed as to resemble artificial. In these the water being so redundant as to refuse receiving any more, they regurgitate, and return the water with extraordinary celerity, which, thus spreading itself, forms a lake, in most places eighteen cubits deep. These waters afterwards retire with no less celerity than they came on, not only through the furrows, but pass through the whole of the bottom, as through a sieve; which, when perceived by the inhabitants, they directly stop up the larger apertures, and thus take large quantities of fish; when the lake is dry, they cut down their harvest on the spot where they sowed, and sow again before the inundation comes on; and grass shoots so quick on it, that it may be cut down in three weeks time.

LUG'GAGE, *f.* [from *lug.*] Any thing cumbrous and unwieldy, that is to be carried away; any thing of more weight than value.—I am gathering up my *luggage*, and preparing for my journey. *Swift to Pope.*

A lively faith will bear aloft the mind,  
And leave the *luggage* of good works behind. *Dryden.*

LUG'GERSHALL, LUD'GERSHALL, or LUR'GERSHALL, a village in Wiltshire, twelve miles north of Salisbury, and seventy-five north by west of London. It is situated near the forest of Chute, in a delightful country; and was the residence of several kings. On the neighbouring downs there used to be horse-races. It has a fair on the 25th of July.

The principal object of curiosity, or historical interest, in this place, is its castle, built in 1197; a small fragment of which only remains. According to a legendary account, but which is not entitled to much credit, this fortress was erected by king Lud, and thence obtained the name of *Lud-gars-hall*. Stow, in his *Annals*, relates that Richard I. gave this castle, with another at Marlborough, to his brother John, in the first year of his reign. Gough, in his additions to Camden's *Britannia*, states that it belonged to "Geoffrey Fitz-Piers, the wealthy chief-justice of England, and earl of Essex." It was possessed by this family till the reign of Henry III. when Jollan de Nevill was appointed its governor. In the reign of Edward III. the manor, castle, &c. were vested in John lord Molins, who obtained a grant from that monarch to impark the woods with one hundred acres adjoining. See *Grose's Antiquities of England*, and *Britton's Beauties of Wiltshire*, vol. ii.

Luggershall is an ancient borough by prescription, governed by a bailiff, annually chosen at the court-leet of the lord of the manor. This borough, which sent to all the parliaments in the reign of king Edward I. made three returns in the reign of Edward II. and three in the reign of Edward III. ceased sending after 9 Richard II. till 9 Henry V. The right of election is of a very complicated kind, "being in such persons who have any estate of inheritance, or freehold or leasehold, determinable upon life or lives, within the borough, not confined to entire ancient houses, or the sites of ancient houses, within the said borough." The majority of these estates was formerly the property of George Augustus Selwyn, esq. of facetious memory; of whose demise they descended to the late lord viscount Sydney: the minority of them was the property of Mr. Everett, a banker in London. This division of local suffrage has been the cause of litigation between the parties, and has produced several petitions to the house of commons. The matter in question, between the contending parties, depends upon the legality of splitting those estates to which the right of voting is annexed: the number of votes, in Browne Willis's time, was seventy; but they are now divided into one hundred and forty-nine, and are held by the tenants and friends of the



two proprietors, who reside in different parts of Wiltshire and Hampshire, but who are kind enough to come here at the time of election, to perform the ceremonial part of delegating a representative for this borough to the legislative assembly of the British nation. Returning officer, the lord's bailiff. (Oldfield's Hist. Bor.) The members in the last parliament were Magens Dorrien Magens and J. H. Everett, esqrs. in the present, Sandford Graham and Joseph Birch, esqrs.

Michaelham priory, near this place, was built in 1230. It has now given place to a gentleman's seat and park.—To the west is Chidbury, or Shidbury, hill, said to be the highest eminence in Salisbury plain. Its summit is inclosed with an entrenchment, which is deep, and which Aubrey attributes to the Britons. From the top, a ditch extends down the northern slope, and terminates at the bottom, where the inequality of the ground shows that a permanent encampment, or town, formerly existed. The open downs in this part of the county abound with barrows, or tumuli, of various sizes, and encampments.

LUG'GING, *f.* The act of pulling with violence.

LUG'HAM, a village near Mount's Bay, Cornwall.

LUG'HAN, or LUG'GAN, a village among hills, to the north of Redruth, in Cornwall.

LUGNAQUILLA, mountains of Ireland, in the county of Wicklow: seven miles east-north-east of Balinglass.

LU'GNY, a town of France, in the department of the Saône and Loire: six miles east-north-east of Cluny, and ten north of Mâcon.

LU'GO, a city of Spain, in the province of Galicia, on the Minho, the see of a bishop, suffragan of Compostella; containing three parishes, four convents, a seminary, and two hospitals. It was called by the Romans *Lucus Augusti*, and was once the metropolis of Spain. The walls are ancient, and from twelve to fifteen feet thick. It is at present chiefly celebrated for its warm medicinal springs. About the year 459, a battle was fought here between the Suevians and the Goths, in which the former were defeated, and their king or leader Acliulphus slain. It is forty miles north of Orense. Lat. 43. 2. N. lon. 7. 32. W.

LU'GO, a town of Italy, in the Veronese: eight miles north of Verona.

LU'GO, a town of Italy, in the Paduan: ten miles east of Padua.

LU'GO, a town of Italy, in the department of the Lower Po. In the month of July, after the whole of the Ferrarese had submitted to the French republic, the tocin was founded, and the inhabitants took up arms against their conquerors; a bloody battle ensued, which lasted three hours; upwards of 1000 of the insurgents were killed or wounded, the rest escaped: 200 French fell in the action: the town was given up to pillage for three hours. It is eighteen miles west of Ravenna, and fifteen south of Ferrara.

LU'GO (John de), a learned Spanish Jesuit and cardinal, was the son of the deputy from Seville to the states of the kingdom convened at Madrid, where he was born in the year 1583. He discovered early proofs of capacity, being able to read printed books and written hand at three years of age; and at fourteen he gave evidence of his qualifications for entering on academic studies, by maintaining theses on different subjects. Soon afterwards he was sent to the university of Salamanca to study the law; where he was induced by the example of an elder brother to enter among the Jesuits in the year 1603, notwithstanding the opposition which his father made to that step. He went through his course of philosophy in the seminary belonging to the order at Pampeluna, and studied divinity at Salamanca. Upon his father's death, he was sent by his superiors to Seville, to take possession of a very considerable inheritance which fell to him and his brother; and, with the consent of the latter, he divided it among the Jesuits of Seville and Salamanca. During five years he taught philosophy with great applause at Medina del

Campo; and afterwards he was appointed professor of divinity at Valladolid. In this employment he acquitted himself with so much success, that his superiors thought him worthy of a professorship of greater eminence; and accordingly, in 1621, they sent him to fill their divinity-chair at Rome. This post he occupied during twenty years, with very distinguished reputation, devoting himself entirely to the duties of his employment, without spending his time in paying court to the cardinals, and visiting ambassadors. In the year 1643, pope Urban VIII. raised him to the purple, without his knowledge, or his entertaining the least suspicion that his holiness had such a design. Many singular particulars are related of the unambitious disposition which this Jesuit displayed, when he was made acquainted with his promotion, and in his subsequent conduct, which those of our readers who have any curiosity on the subject may find recorded in Bayle. He died in 1660, about the age of seventy-seven. He published seven ponderous folio volumes, in Latin, on questions in scholastic divinity and morals; of which those only maintain any reputation in the catholic schools which treat "De Virtute et Sacramento Penitentiae," and "De Juititia et Jure." What principally entitles his name to be transmitted to posterity is the circumstance of his having been the first person who brought into repute that excellent febrifuge the *quinquina*, and who introduced it into France in the year 1650, where it was called at first *Cardinal de Lugo's powder*. This drug he administered gratis to the poor who were afflicted with aguish complaints, but obliged the rich to purchase it with its weight in gold.—His elder brother, *Francis de Lugo*, taught divinity in Spain, Mexico, and Santa Fe; and died in 1652, about the age of seventy-two. He was the author of "Commentarii in primam Partem S. Thomæ de Deo, Trinitate, et Angelis," 1647, in 2 vols. folio; and other treatises in scholastic divinity and morals.

LU'GOS, a town of Hungary: sixteen miles east-north-east of Gros Warden, and thirty-seven south-west of Colofvar.

LU'GOS, a town of Hungary, in the bannat of Temesvar, on the Temes: twenty-three miles east of Temesvar, and seventy-six south-west of Hermanstadt.

LUGU'BRIOUS, *adj.* [*lugubre*, Fr. *lugubris*, Lat.] Mournful; sorrowful.—A demure, or rather a *lugubrious*, look, a whining tone, makes up the sum of many men's humiliations. *Decay of Piety.*

LUG'WARDINE, a village near Hereford.

LUHAN'GO, a town of Sweden, in the province of Tavastland: sixty miles north-north-east of Tavasthus.

LUHE, a river of Westphalia, which joins the Ilmenau near Winfen, in the principality of Lunenburg Zelle.

LUHE'A, *f.* [so named by Wildenow, in compliment to F. K. Freyherr von der Lühe, who published at Vienna, in 1797, a German hymn to Flora. His poetry ought to be very fine to merit so magnificent a plant.] In botany, a genus of the class polyadelphia, order polyandria, natural order of columniferæ, Linn. (malvaceæ, *Juss.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium interior, double; the outer of nine equal linear leaves, channelled at the back; inner in five deep lanceolate segments, internally smooth, naked, and coloured. Corolla: petals five, longer than the calyx, broad, roundish, wavy, crenate, veiny. Nectaries five, stalked, pencil-shaped, hairy. Stamina: filaments numerous, hairy, united into five sets at their base; antheræ incumbent, roundish, smooth. Pistillum: germens roundish, or conical, with five angles, hairy; style columnar, thick, shorter than the stamens, smooth upwards; stigma orbicular, broad, depressed, with several radiant furrows. Pericarpium: capsule of five cells. Seeds: winged.—*Essential Character.* Calyx double; the outer of nine leaves, inner in five deep segments; petals five; nectaries five, pencil-shaped; style one; capsule of five cells; seeds winged.

Luhea speciosa, the only known species, is a tree twenty or thirty feet high, with alternate round brown branches, downy



downy when young. Leaves alternate, on short thick downy stalks, roundish-oblong, pointed, slightly heart-shaped, and a little unequal at the base, three or four inches long, unequally and sharply serrated; smooth and naked above; white, with dense stellated down, furnished with three prominent ribs, and numerous transverse parallel veins, beneath. Flowers white, large, and handsome, not many together, in downy terminal simple clusters. This plant is closely allied in habit and fruit to the *Pterospermum* of Schreber and Willdenow, (*Pentapetes suberifolia* and *acerifolia* of Linnæus;) the differences in their flowers however seem essential, especially as the calyx of *Pterospermum* is simple. Native of lofty mountains in the Caraccas, from whence we have a specimen, gathered by Dr. J. Marter, to whom, though we do not meet with his name, the Vienna gardens are indebted for many of the finest plants published by Jacquin. From him we learn what is mentioned above respecting the capsule and seeds, about which professor Willdenow had no information.

LU'HITH, a place or district in the Moabites' country, *Isa.* xv. 5. *Jerem.* xlvi. 5. Eusebius and Jerome say, Luthith is situated between the cities of Ar and Zoar, and consequently east of the Dead Sea.

LUHY'NY, a town of Russian Poland: twenty-four miles west-south-west of Owrucze.

LUI-CHEU', a city of China, in Quang-tong, situated in a fertile and pleasant country, near the sea. Lat. 28. 58. N. lon. 110. 8. E.

LUI-LUNG-TA'. See SE-CHOU'I.

LUI-SHIN', in mythology, the Jupiter of the Chinese, or spirit that presides over thunder. The figure of it has the wings, beak, and talons, of an eagle. In his right hand he holds a mallet, to strike the kettle-drums with which he is surrounded, whose noise is intended to convey the idea of thunder; while his left is filled with a volume of undulating lines, very much resembling those in the hands of some of the Grecian Jupiters, and evidently meant to convey the same idea, viz. that of the thunder-bolts and lightning. The eagle's talons are sometimes represented as fixed upon the axis of a wheel, round which the kettle-drums are hung, and by means of which, with aided velocity, he rolls among the clouds. Sir George Staunton has given a figure of this deity and his accompaniments, from one of the temples at Pekin; (see his account of the Embassy to China, vol. ii. p. 304. 5.) and he adds, that "in the original from whence the figure was taken, the dreadful effects of this terrific spirit beneath the clouds are pointed out by the appearance of animals struck dead, and lying prostrate on the ground, buildings overturned, and trees torn up by the roots."

LUIDA, *f.* in botany, a genus so called by Adanson after Mr. Edward Llwyd, the correspondent of Ray, who is mentioned in his Synopsis as the discoverer of several mosses and other plants in Wales. This supposed genus however will neither immortalize him, nor its whimsical author, being made up of various species of *Hypnum*, *Bryum*, *Splachnum*, &c. characterised by having some leaves triangular and some orbicular.

LU'GI ROS'SI, one of the earliest and most voluminous composers of cantatas in the seventeenth century. He is celebrated in 1640 by Pietro della Valle, in his letter to Guiddicioni, for his grave canzonettes, particularly that which begins *Or che la notte del silenzio amica*. Many of his cantatas are preserved in all the collections which include the music of the last century; particularly in the Brit. Mus. Bibl. Harl. 1265 and 1273, and in Dr. Aldrich's Collections, Christchurch, Oxon. His cantata, *La fortuna*, in the Museum collection, No. 1265, is of an immeasurable length. The recitative, however, with formal closes, has pleasing expressions in it, that still live. No *da capo*, or sign of reference, appears in his cantatas, and he writes twice or three times over the same air; a trouble which these expedients would have spared. He seems to have started several flimsy divisions, which afterwards became

common; and, indeed, it appears from his cantatas, that, as soon as secular music had divested itself of the pedantry of perpetual canons, fugues, and multiplied parts, another vice crept into the art, by the frequent and excessive use of divisions. Luigi, in songs for a single voice, has some of this kind as long as those in modern bravura airs. In the Magliabecchi library at Florence is a part of an oratorio called "Giuseppe Figlio di Giacobe, opera spirituale fatta in musica da Aloigi de Rossi, Napolitano, in Roma." And under the name of Rossi many of his compositions may be found in the Museum. *Burney*.

LUIG'NA, a town of Spain, in Aituria: twenty miles north-north-west of Oviedo.

LU'NES, a town of France, in the department of the Indre and Loire, on the Loire: six miles west of Tours, and six east-north-east of Longeais.

LU'ING, or LONG ISLAND, one of the smaller Western Islands of Scotland, between Scarba and Kerrera.

LU'IS (St.), a town of South America, in the government of Buenos Ayres, and province of Cordova, 170 miles south-west of Cordova. Lat. 32. 10. S. lon. 67. 12. W. — A town of South America, in the province of Moyes: seventy-two miles north-west of Trinidad. — A mission of Spanish monks in New Albion: ten miles north-east of Punta el Eferos. — A town of New Navarre; ninety miles south of Casa Grande.

LU'IS DE LA PAZ, a town of Mexico, in the province of Mechoacan: 100 miles north of Mechoacan. Lat. 21. 50. N. lon. 102. 16. W.

LU'IS DE MARANO'N. See St. FELIPE.

LU'IS DE POTO'SI, a city of Mexico, in the province of Guatteca, pleasantly situated, and environed with rich gold mines. This town is handsome and well built, considerable in size, and populous. The streets are straight and neat, the churches magnificent; and the inhabitants, who are chiefly Indians, possessing all the conveniences and comforts of life. It is 190 miles north-north-west of Mexico. Lat. 22. 25. N. lon. 103. 6. W.

LU'IS DE ZACATECAS, a town of Mexico, capital of the province of Zacatecas, the see of a bishop, and residence of a governor: 240 miles north-north-west of Mexico. Lat. 22. 50. W. lon. 103. 46. W.

LUISIA'NA, a district of Spain, between Carmona and Ecija, lately settled by a company of Germans, who live not far from the high road. Their houses are built at regular distances on one simple model, with an allotment of land to each house.

LUIS'NUS (Louis), a physician, was born at Udina, in the state of Venice, where he obtained considerable reputation about the middle of the sixteenth century, and was not less distinguished by his acquisitions in literature than by his medical skill. He was author of the following works: 1. *Aphorismi Hippocratis hexametro carmine conscripti*, Venice, 1552. 2. *De compendendis animi affectibus per moralem philosophiam et medendi artem*, Basle, 1562. 3. *Aphrodisiacus, five de Lue Venerea*, in duos tomos; Venice, 1566, folio. The first volume contained an account of the printed treatises on the lues up to that year; the second, published in the year following, comprehended principally the manuscript works on the subject, which had not then been committed to the press.

LU'ISNARSBURG, a town of Sweden, in Westmanland: forty-eight miles north-west of Stroemholm.

LUIS'TRE, a town of France, in the department of the Aube: six miles north-east of Arcis sur Aube, and nine north-west Bar sur Aube.

LU'ITION, *f.* [*luo*, Lat. to expiate.] An expiation. *Cole*.

LU'ITPRAND, King of the LOMBARDS. See that article, p. 43, 4, of this volume.

LUJU'LA, *f.* in botany. See OXALIS acetosella.

LUK, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Saatz: six miles east of Carlsbad.

LUKAU', a town of Moravia, in the circle of Znaym: eight miles west-north-west of Znaym.

LUKAVET'ZI,



LUKAVET'ZI, a river of Walachia, which runs into the Alaut sixteen miles north of Brancovani.

LUKAWET'Z, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Czaflau: twenty-eight miles south-west of Czaflau.

LUKE, a Christian name of men: sometimes adopted for a surname.

LUKE (St.), an evangelist, and the companion of St. Paul in his labours, as St. Mark was of St. Peter. According to Eusebius of Cæsarea and St. Jerome, who are followed by some ancient and the greater number of modern writers, he was a native of Antioch; but we do not find that hypothesis countenanced by any other fathers before Eusebius. Grotius and Wetstein are of opinion that he was not only born at Antioch, but was also a slave, either at Rome or in Greece; who, having obtained his freedom, returned to his native place, where he became first a Jewish proselyte, and then a Christian. And Cave as well as Mill think it likely, that he was converted by Paul at Antioch. These notions, however, appear to be entirely destitute of foundation in antiquity. If he is the Lucius mentioned in Romans xvi. 21. the Lucius of Cyrene in Acts xiii. 1. Luke the beloved physician, in Coloss. iv. 14. and the Lucas spoken of in Philem. verse 24. as seems probable in the judgment of some ancient and modern critics; he must have been of Jewish descent, a relation of St. Paul, and not unlikely a native of Judea. His profession, it appears, was that of a physician; but that he was also a painter, as the catholic legends pretend, is rejected as a fable by the most judicious writers in that communion. Luke must have been an early believer; and upon the supposition that he was one of the two whom our Lord met with on the way to Emmaus, on the day of his resurrection, which has a great appearance of probability, he was a hearer and a disciple of Christ himself. Fabricius, Dr. Whitby, and other learned men among the moderns as well as ancients, have been of the opinion that he was one of the seventy disciples; which seems to have been founded rather on conjecture, than on the authority of testimony. It is certain, however, that he was held in high esteem by St. Paul, who expressly calls him his fellow-labourer, and whom he accompanied when that apostle first went into Macedonia. Jerome says, that he was the constant companion of St. Paul in his travels. This at least we may assert, on the authority of Scripture-history, that he was with St. Paul at Troas, whence they went by sea to Samothracia, thence to Neapolis, and thence to Philippi. We find no express mention of him afterwards till St. Paul was a second time in Greece, and was setting out for Jerusalem with the collections which had been made for the poor Christians in Judea. On this occasion he accompanied St. Paul from Greece through Macedonia to Philippi, and in his subsequent voyages along the coast of Asia to Cæsarea; whence they travelled to Jerusalem. Here he continued with the apostle till the insurrection of the Jews against him in the Temple, and attended him during his imprisonment at Cæsarea, after he had made his appeal to Cæsar. And, when St. Paul was sent prisoner from Cæsarea to Rome, Luke went with him in the same ship, and remained with him during the two years of his imprisonment in that city, beyond which period the history of the Acts of the Apostles is not carried. After the enlargement of St. Paul, it appears most probable that St. Luke went into Greece, and continued to preach the Gospel in different parts of that country till his death. With respect to the precise time, place, and manner, of that event, we have no certain information; but from a comparison of the accounts handed down by tradition it seems probable that he lived a single life, and died a natural death in Achaia, in the 84th year of his age, about the year of Christ 70, but of what death is uncertain. Philostorgius informs us, that in the reign of the emperor Constantius the relics of St. Luke were translated from Achaia to Constantinople; and therefore it must have been a general persuasion in those times, that he had died, and had

been buried, in Achaia, which, Gregory Nazianzen says, was the province assigned to St. Luke.

The writings for which the Christian church is indebted to St. Luke, are his Gospel, and the history of The Acts of the Apostles. These books are inscribed to a person named Theophilus, who appears from the titles to have been a man of rank; but whether he was a Gentile, or a Jew, it is difficult, if not impossible, and certainly of no moment, to determine. The Gospel of St. Luke presents us with the history of the life and actions of Christ, from his birth till his ascension; to which is prefixed an account of the birth of his forerunner, John the Baptist. His motive for undertaking it was, to give an accurate history of the events in our Saviour's life, founded on the testimony of the apostles and eye-witnesses; of which many had attempted to furnish narratives, which were either imperfect or erroneous. Among the productions of these many, St. Luke could not mean to include the Gospels of St. Matthew and St. Mark; for it may be satisfactorily shown from internal evidence, that, if those Gospels were written and published at so early a period as his own, which there is strong reason for questioning, they were at the time when he wrote unknown to him. And he speaks of the authors of those narratives as if they themselves were not eye-witnesses of the facts which they recorded; and, therefore, at any rate he could not have Matthew in view. But whether those histories were the productions of honest men, who had given defective accounts, as some maintain, or were erroneous and fabulous narratives, as others contend, are questions which it does not belong to our province to discuss; and we refer our readers for the arguments in support of those opposite hypotheses to Lardner and Michaelis. With respect to the time when this Gospel was written, the commonly-received opinion is, that St. Luke wrote it not long before the Acts of the Apostles, which were published in the year 63 or 64; and our English critic just mentioned has pointed out some marks of time in the Gospel itself, which serve considerably to support that hypothesis. On the other hand, the learned German employs much ingenuity in endeavouring to invalidate that opinion, and to prove that for aught we know it may have been written many years before the Acts of the Apostles. But the place where St. Luke wrote his Gospel has given rise to a still greater variation in sentiment than the time when it was composed. Michaelis enumerates no less than nine different opinions which have been advanced in ancient or in modern times, on this subject; and, after enquiring into the evidence on which each is built, concluded it to be most probable that St. Luke wrote his Gospel in Palestine, while St. Paul was a prisoner at Cæsarea. Lardner coincides in opinion with Jerome, that it was written in Achaia, and supposes that, during St. Paul's imprisonment in Judea, St. Luke embraced the opportunity of completing his collections for it, in his conversations with several of the apostles, and other eye-witnesses of our Lord's person and works; and that when he left St. Paul at Rome, on the termination of his imprisonment, he went into Greece, and there composed and published his Gospel. It must be acknowledged, however, that the different hypotheses on this subject are all founded on traditionary reports; and it is not easy to determine which is the most eligible conjecture.

The other work of our evangelist is the history of The Acts of the Apostles; which was intended, as appears from the very first sentence, to be a continuation of his Gospel. According to Mill, it was written in the year 64. That it was not written before the year 63 must be granted, since it continues the history of the actions of the apostles to the termination of St. Paul's imprisonment, which is allowed to have taken place in that year. It is not improbable, therefore, that St. Luke finished it either in that or the following year at Rome or in Greece. From a survey of its contents, it will be sufficiently obvious, that St. Luke did not intend to write a general history of the



Christian church during the first thirty years after Christ's ascension; for he has wholly omitted many facts, which an historian who designed to write a general account of the Christian church would not have passed over in silence. He has also omitted many material transactions in the life of the apostle Paul, and given no account of some of the controversies which took place, and of the heretical opinions which distracted the church. Of these omissions Michælis, and more particularly Lardner, have selected several remarkable instances. But these omissions are no disparagement to his history; and the relation of the particulars which they have selected was not necessary for the object which he had in view. That object seems to have been two-fold: to relate in what manner the gifts of the Holy Spirit were communicated on the day of Pentecost, and the subsequent miracles performed by the apostles, by which the truth of Christianity was confirmed; and to deliver such accounts as proved the claim of the Gentiles to admission into the church of Christ, a claim disputed by the Jews, especially at the time when St. Luke wrote the Acts of the Apostles. And it was the circumstance last mentioned which excited the hatred of the Jews against St. Paul, and occasioned his imprisonment in Rome, with the period of which St. Luke closes his history.

Marcion, a heretic who lived in the first half of the second century, rejected all the Gospels except that of St. Luke; and this he mutilated and altered, and interpolated in a great variety of places. He would not allow it to be called the Gospel of St. Luke, erasing the name of that evangelist from the beginning of his copy. Some of his followers considered it as written partly by Christ himself, and partly by the apostle Paul. Marcion retrenched the first and second chapters entirely, and began his Gospel at the first verse of the third chapter, and even read this in a manner different from our copies, viz. "In the 15th year of Tiberius Cæsar, God descended into Capernaum, a city of Galilee." Some late Christian writers have concurred in Marcion's retrenchment; but without sufficient authority.

St. Luke, says a modern writer, is pure, copious, and flowing in his language, and has a wonderful and entertaining variety of select circumstances in his narration of our Saviour's divine actions. He acquaints us with numerous passages of the evangelical history not related by any other evangelist; both in his Gospel and Apotolical Acts, he is accurate and neat, clear and flowing, with a natural and easy grace; his style is admirably accommodated to the design of history; it had a very considerable resemblance to that of his great master St. Paul; and, like him, he had a learned and liberal education, and appears to have been very conversant with the best classics; for many of his words and expressions are exactly parallel to their's. *Blackwall's Sacred Classics. Lardner.*

LUKE'S DAY, a festival in the Christian church, observed on the 18th of October.

LUKE'S HOSPITAL. See the article LONDON; p. 460 of this volume.

LUKE'S KEYS, two small islands near the coast of Honduras. Lat. 15. 50. N. lon. 86. 35. W.

LU'KEWARM, *adj.* [*Warmth*, in Saxon, is hleoð; in old Frisic *hlij*; in Dutch, *hewte*; whence probably our *luke*, to which *warm* may be added, to determine, by the first word, the force of the second; as we say, *boiling hot*.] Moderately or mildly warm; so warm as to give only a pleasing sensation.—Bathing the body in *lukewarm* water is of great advantage to temperate hot and sharp humours. *Wifeman's Surgery.*

May you a better feast never behold,  
Is your knot of mouth-friends: smoke and *lukewarm* water  
Is your perfection. *Shakespeare's Timon of Athens.*

Indifferent; not ardent; not zealous.—If some few continue stedfast, it is an obedience so *lukewarm* and languishing, that it merits not the name of passion. *Dryden.*

This sober conduct is a mighty virtue  
In *lukewarm* patriots.

*Addison's Cato.*

LUKEWARMLY, *adv.* With moderate warmth.—With indifference.

LUKEWARMNESS, *f.* Moderate or pleasing heat.—Indifference; want of ardour.—Some kind of zeal counts all merciful moderation *lukewarmness*. *King Charles.*

LU'KIN, a town of Poland, in Volhynia: fifty-six miles north of Zytomiers.

LUKIN'GA, a town of Samogitia: twenty-four miles north of Miedniki.

LUKOI'ANOV, a town of Russia, in the government of Niznei Novgorod: eighty miles south of Niznei Novgorod. Lat. 54. 58. N. lon. 44. 20. E.

LUKOM'LA, a town of Russia, in the government of Polotk: sixty miles south-south-east of Polotk.

LUKO'W, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Lublin: forty miles north of Lublin, and fifty-six east-south-east of Warsaw.

LUKO'WA, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Belcz: forty-four miles west-south-west of Belcz.

LUKO'WO, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Brzecz: eighty miles east of Pinsk.

LU'LA, a river of Sweden, which runs into the Gulf of Bothnia six miles east-south-east of Lula.

LU'LA, or LULEA, a seaport town of Sweden, in West Bothnia, on the north side of the river Lula, at the north-west extremity of the Gulf of Bothnia, with a good harbour. It is 110 miles north-north-east of Umea, and sixty-eight west of Tornea. Lat. 65. 38. N. lon. 22. 4. E.

LU'LA (Old), a town of Sweden, in West Bothnia; five miles east of Lulea.

LU'LA LAP'MARK, a province of Swedish Lapland; bounded by that of Tornea on the north, by the Bothnic gulf on the east, by Pithia Lapmark on the south, and by Norway on the west.

LU'LAND ISLE, at the mouth of Padstow-haven, Cornwall.

LULES (Los), a town of South America, in the province of Tucuman: fifty miles north of St. Miguel de Tucuman.

To LULL, *v. a.* [*lulu*, Danish; *lallo*, Lat.] To compose to sleep by a pleasing sound:

There trickled softly down  
A gentle stream, whose murmuring wave did play  
Amongst the pumy stones, and made a sound  
To lull him soft asleep that by it lay. *Fairy Queen.*

To compose; to quiet; to put to rest:

To find a foe it shall not be his hap,  
And peace shall lull him in her flow'ry lap. *Milton.*

LULLABY', *f.* [from *lull*: it is observable, that the nurses call sleep *by-by*; *lullaby* is therefore lull to sleep.] A song to still babes.—Drinking is the *lullaby* used by nurses to still crying children.

Only that noise heav'n's rolling circles keft,  
Sung *lullaby*, to bring the world to rest. *Fairfax.*

LUL'LESLEY, a village in Worcestershire: two miles east of Suckley.

LULLI (John-Baptist), an eminent musician, was born of obscure parents near Florence in 1633. Discovering almost from his infancy a propensity to music, he was instructed in the guitar by a benevolent cordelier. He soon after applied himself to the violin. He was only twelve when the chevalier de Guise, being on his travels in Italy, proposed to his parents to take him into France, and engage mademoiselle de Guise, his sister, to receive him among the officers of her kitchen.

This princess, having accidentally heard him play on the violin, had him taught, and he became in a short time an excellent performer. Louis XIV. being desirous to hear him, was so pleased with his performance, that in 1652 he appointed him inspector-general of his violins; and soon after created a new band, which was called *les petits violons*. These new musicians formed by Lulli soon became the first in Europe, which is not saying much for them



them, as such was the ignorance of the generality of instrumental performers at this time, that they could execute nothing which they did not know by heart. The genius, therefore, of Lulli was obliged to contract itself to the abilities of his orchestra; and it is supposed that he would have written as well as his successors, if he had lived a hundred years later.

Before the establishment of the opera in France, the king every year gave to his court magnificent spectacles called *ballets*, in which there was a great number of symphonies, mixed with recitatives. Lulli first began by only composing the music to the dances in these ballets; but the king became so fond of his compositions, that he would hear no other. In 1672, Perrin, to whom the patent for an opera was first granted, resigned it to Lulli, whose genius began to expand; and he may be regarded as the creator of this kind of music, which (according to M. Laborde) has not been so much improved (in France, he should have said) as some imagine, and in many particulars has, perhaps, lost more than it has gained. It is true that he was assisted by the immortal Quinault, of whom he had the penetration to discover the genius, and the dexterity to secure the assistance by a deed, in which the poet engaged to supply him every year with a new drama, for 4000 livres, about 200*l*. Quinault sketched many plans, and carried them to the king for his approbation; after which Lulli pointed out to him the places where the dances were to be introduced, and let him hear the airs. The scenes were examined, by his majesty's command, in the Académie des Belles Lettres. Thus by their united opinions all the dramas of Quinault were regulated, which remain the best that were produced in France during the seventeenth century, and will probably continue the best, if new set, for many ages yet to come. The enemies of Quinault, jealous of his glory and talents, contrived to bring about a quarrel between the poet and musician. Lulli had recourse to La Fontaine, who, at his request, produced the opera of Daphne; but, as soon as Lulli had heard it read, he did not conceal from the author, that he thought his talents did not extend to writing operas. La Fontaine, piqued at having laboured in vain, to revenge himself on Lulli, for his coarse rejection of his drama, wrote his comedy, or rather satire, of the Florentine; but, as he had a good heart, he soon subdued his wrath, and they were sincerely reconciled. The king, more and more pleased with his music, conferred on him the title and emoluments of secretary to his majesty, and heaped upon him many other favours for his family.

The king having been extremely ill in 1686, Lulli composed a *Te Deum* on his recovery, which was executed in the church of the Feuillans, Rue Saint Honoré, on the 8th of January, 1687. While enthusiastically regulating the time with his cane, he struck his foot so violently, that, probably from a bad habit of body, a mortification came on: and it was announced to him that he must prepare for death. His confessor was summoned, who refused to give him absolution, unless he would deliver to him a new opera he was composing, to be committed to the flames. This was done; and Lulli, being somewhat better, was soon after visited by a prince of the blood, who reproached him with having burned his music in compliance with a gloomy Jansenist. "Hush! my lord, (said Lulli,) I have another copy." This sally, however, was soon succeeded by a relapse, in which the confessor had all the advantage. The poor penitent submitted to be laid upon a heap of ashes with a cord about his neck, in which situation he sung to an air of his own composing, *Il faut mourir, pêcheur, il faut mourir!* He soon after expired, at the age of fifty-four, on the 22d of March, 1687: he was buried in the church of Les petits Pères, in the Place des Victoires, where a fine monument was erected to his memory, with the following epitaph by Santeuil:

Perfida mors, inimica auidax, temeraria et excors,  
Crudelisque, et cæca probris te absolvimus istis,

Non de te querimur, tua sint hæc munia magna.  
Sed quando per te populi regisque voluptas,  
Non ante auditis rapuit qui cantibus forbem  
LULLIUS eripitur, querimur modo, surdus fuisti.

Lulli was a fortunate man to arrive in a country where music had been so little cultivated, that he never had any rival; nor was there throughout the whole kingdom of France an individual who had the courage to doubt of his infallibility in his art. He was fortunate in so magnificent a patron; and still more fortunate in a lyric poet, who could interest an audience by all the powers of poetry, by the contexture of his fables, and variety and force of his characters. Lulli was rough, rude, and coarse in his manners, but without malice. His greatest frailties were the love of wine and money. There were found in his coffer 630,000 livres in gold, an exorbitant sum for the time in which he lived. He had the art of making himself at once beloved and feared by the performers of his music, which is doubtless the most essential talent for governing such eccentric and mutinous subjects. Lulli married the only daughter of Michel Lambert, the celebrated musician, and the best singing-master of his time. By this marriage he had three sons and three daughters; to all of whom he left an ample provision, and friends in power, who conferred on them places, pensions, and kindness. *Burney and Hawkins.*

LUL/LING, *f.* The act of quieting; of laying to rest.

LUL/LINGSTON, a village in Kent, on the Derwent.

LUL/LINGTON, a village near Philip's Norton, Somerset.—A village in Derbyshire, south-west of Castle Gresley, and including the hamlet of Coton in the Elms.

LUL/LY, a village in Hertfordshire, south-west of Hitchin.

LUL/LY (Raymond), a philosopher of great note in the dark ages, was born at Majorca in 1234. In his youth he bore arms, and led the life of a man of pleasure. Falling in love with a young maid, who obstinately rejected his addresses, she at length, to free herself from his importunities, displayed to him her breast consumed with a cancerous ulcer. The spectacle had such an effect upon him, that he plunged into religious retirement, and devoted the rest of his days to pious pursuits. Others, however, say that it inspired him with the resolution of seeking a remedy for her disease, and was the motive for the chemical studies for which he became famous. It appears certain that he undertook a course of travels into Africa and the east, for the purpose of converting the Mahometans to the Christian faith, where he incurred great hardships and dangers. He was so much inflamed with zeal for this object, that, not succeeding in his application to various Christian princes for assistance, he entered into the Franciscan order, and returned to Africa with the hope of obtaining the crown of martyrdom. When he was again found in that country, from which he had been permitted to depart only on condition of not returning, he was thrown into prison, and, after suffering much torture, was freed through the interest of some Genoese traders, who took him on-board their ship to convey him home. On the passage, when just in sight of his native land, he died, in 1315.

From this narrative, which represents Lully in the light of a fanatic missionary, we should not expect that scientific character which has caused his name to be preferred to modern times. He is celebrated in a two-fold capacity, that of a scholastic metaphysician, and that of an experimental chemist. In the first department he was the inventor of a *great art* which exactly suited the genius of the age. It consisted in collecting a number of general terms, common to all the sciences, and predicates taken from these were to be respectively inscribed in angular spaces upon circular papers. The essences, affections, qualities, and relations, of things, being thus mechanically brought together, the circular papers of subjects were fixed in a frame, and those of predi-

icates



cases were so placed upon them as to move freely, and in their revolutions to produce various combinations of subjects and predicates, whence would arise definitions, axioms, and propositions, varying infinitely. This contrivance, worthy of Laputa, was greatly admired in its time; and its author acquired the title of *the most enlightened doctor*.

As a chemist Lully appears in a very different light; for, although the chief object of his pursuit was the philosopher's stone and fancied universal remedy, yet he was aware that it could only be acquired by a series of experiments. Boerhaave says of the chemical works extant in Lully's name, that he has perused most of them, and finds them, beyond all expectation, excellent, so that he has been tempted to doubt whether they could be the work of that age. "So full (says he) are they of the experiments and observations which occur in later writers, that either they must be supposititious, or the ancient chemists must have been acquainted with many things which pass for modern discoveries." Lully is supposed to have derived his chemical knowledge from his travels in the East, and particularly from the writings of Geber; but great doubt prevails concerning the genuineness of the works passing under his name, and some have questioned whether he ever applied to the science. A complete edition of all the writings attributed to him, in theology, morals, medicine, physics, chemistry, &c. was printed some years ago at Mentz. *Boerhaave's Chemistry. Brucker's Hist. of Philosophy.*

LULO'LA, a strong town of Angola, in Africa, situated on an island about 100 miles from the mouth of the Coanza; fortified by the Portuguese.

LUL'SEY, a village south-west of the city of Worcester.

LUL'STOFF, a town of the duchy of Berg, on the Rhine: six miles above Duitz.

LUL'WORTH (East), a village in Dorsetshire, situated six miles from Weymouth, and 116 from London; and contains 74 houses, and 364 inhabitants.

LUL'WORTH (West), a village united with the parish of East Lulworth, and about a mile distant towards the sea. It contains, as near as can be, the same number of houses and inhabitants.

About two miles from West Lulworth is the Castle, the seat of Mr. Weld; justly admired, not only for its situation, but as being one of the most magnificent in the county. It is certainly a most superb pile of building; and, view it from which side you will, it strikes the eye with pleasure. It is situated in the south-east corner of an extensive park, which occupies a circuit of nearly four miles and a half; and has been lately surrounded by an excellent stone wall, upwards of eight feet high. The present edifice, which was built on or near the site of a castle mentioned so far back as the year 1146, was commenced in 1588, and finished in 1610, except the internal decorations, which were not completed till after the year 1641, when the ancestor of the late owner purchased the estate. The castle is an exact cube of eighty feet, with a round tower at each corner thirty feet in diameter, and rising sixteen feet above the walls, which, as well as the towers, are embattled. The hall and dining-room are spacious, and the rooms in general eighteen feet high. The principal front is on the east, and is faced with Chilmark stone, decorated with statuary. The interior is furnished with good taste, and furnished with many excellent pictures: it may be seen by strangers on a Wednesday, between the hours of ten and two. In the year 1789, during their majesties' residence at Weymouth, Mr. Weld had several royal visits, the particulars of which are recorded in two inscriptions over the entrance to the castle. Mr. Weld has lately erected an elegant little chapel for the convenience of his family; this structure is of a circular form, increased by four sections of a circle, so as to form a cross, and finished with a dome and lantern. The parish-church of St. Andrew, which was an ancient and curious fabric, has been recently rebuilt at the expense of Mr. Weld.

Lulworth Cove, which is just by, is a remarkable na-

tural curiosity. Here you will see a snug harbour, of a circular form, and appearing as if scooped out of the rock, where vessels of sixty or eighty tons burthen may ride in safety. It is surrounded by lofty hills; and the entrance to it is narrow, with rocky cliffs on each side. About a mile from the cove is the Arched Rock, which projects from the land into the sea, having an opening near twenty feet high in the middle, formed like an arch, through which the prospect of the sea has a peculiar effect. Lat. 50.35. N. lon. 2.22. W. *Beauties of England and Wales*, vol. iv. *Wilkes's British Directory*, vol. iv.

LUMAM'PA, a town of South America, in the province of Tucuman: ninety miles south of St. Yago del Eitero.

LUMBA'GO, *f.* [from *lumbi*, Lat. the loins] *Lumbagos* are pains very troublesome about the loins, and small of the back, such as precede ague-fits and fevers: they go off with evacuation, generally by sweat, and other critical discharges of fevers. *Quincy*.

LUM'BAR, *adj.* belonging to the loins; affecting the loins.

LUM'BER, a town of Spain, in Navarre: fifteen miles north of Sanguesa, and eighteen east of Pamplona.

LUM'BER, *f.* [from *loma*, *geloma*, Sax. household-stuff; or *lommering*, the dirt of an house, Dut.] Any thing useless or cumbersome; any thing of more bulk than value.

—If God intended not the precise use of every single atom, that atom had been no better than a piece of *lumber*. *Greiv*.

One son at home

Concerns thee more than many guests to come.

If to some useful art he be not bred,

He grows mere *lumber*, and is worse than dead. *Dryden*.

To LUM'BER, *v. a.* To heap like useless goods irregularly.—In Rollo we must have so much stuff *lumbered* together, that not the least beauty of tragedy can appear. *Rymer*.

To LUM'BER, *v. n.* To move heavily, as burthened with his own bulk:

First let them run at large,

Nor *lumber* o'er the meads, nor cross the wood. *Dryden*.

LUM'BER-ROOM, *f.* A room to put lumber in.—Many great readers load their memories, and make *lumber-rooms* of their heads instead of furnishing them usefully. *Chesterfield*.

LUM'BERING, *f.* The act of filling with lumber; or making a noise as if moving goods about.

LUM'BERTON, a post-town of America, in North Carolina, and capital of Robeson county, on Drowning Creek: thirty-two miles south of Fayetteville.

LUM'BIER, or LOMBIER, a town of Spain, in Navarre: three miles north of Sanguesa.

LUM'BO, a town of Benguela: 120 miles east-north-east of Benguela. Lat. 11.45. S.

LUM'BRE, a town of France, in the department of the Straits of Calais, and chief place of a canton in the district of St. Omer. The place contains 502, and the canton 13,655, inhabitants.

LUM'BRE'RAS, a town of Spain, in Leon: twenty-two miles north-north-west of Ciudad Rodrigo.

LUM'BRICAL, *adj.* [from *lumbricus*.] Belonging to the earthworm; belonging to the muscles of the hands and feet which resemble worms.

LUM'BRICUS, *f.* in helminthology, the EARTHWORM; a genus of vermes intestinales. Generic characters—Body round, annulate, with generally an elevated fleshy belt near the head, mostly rough with minute concealed prickles placed longitudinally, and furnished with a lateral aperture. There are sixteen species; and, though called *intestinal worms*, they not only do not breed in the intestines, but none of them ever enters the body of any animal unless by accident; as to which, see the article HELMINTHOLOGY, vol. ix. p. 340, 1.



1. *Lumbricus terrestris*, the common earth-worm, or dew-worm. Specific character, body red, with eight rows of prickles. It inhabits decayed wood and the common soil, which by perforating it renders fit to receive the rain; devours the cotyledons of plants, and wanders about by night; is the food of moles, hedgehogs, and various birds. On the body there are about 140 rings, each of which contains four pair of prickles, not visible to the eye, but discoverable by the touch: when expanded is convex each side, and when contracted is flattish beneath, with a red canal down the whole body.

This worm has neither bones, brains, eyes, nor feet. It has a number of breathing-holes situated along the back, and near each ring. The heart is placed near the head, and may be observed to beat with a very distinct motion. The small rings are furnished with a set of muscles, that enable it to act in a sort of spiral direction; and by this means it is capable, in the most complete manner, of creeping on the earth, or penetrating into its substance. These muscles enable the worm to contract or dilate its body with great force. The rings of each are armed with small stiff sharp prickles, which the animal is able to open out or close upon its body; and from beneath the skin there is secreted a slimy matter, which, by lubricating the body, greatly facilitates its passage through the earth.

Dew-worms though a small and frequently regarded as a despicable link in the chain of nature, would, if lost, be greatly missed by those who are apt to consider them as a nuisance. For, independently of their affording a large supply of food to birds, &c. already noticed, they are of great use in promoting vegetation, by boring, perforating, and loosening the soil, and rendering it pervious to rain and the fibres of plants; by drawing straws and stalks of leaves and twigs into it; and, most of all, by throwing up such numbers of lumps called worm-casts, which act as a fine manure for grain and grass. Worms probably provide new soil for hills and slopes when the rain washes the earth away; and they affect slopes probably to avoid being flooded. Gardeners and farmers express their detestation of worms: the former, because they render their works unsightly, and make them much work; and the latter because they think worms eat their green corn. But these men would find, that the earth, without worms, would soon become cold, hard-bound, and void of fermentation, and consequently sterile; and besides, in favour of worms, it should be hinted, that green corn, plants, and flowers, are not so much injured by them as by many species of insects in their larva or grub state, and by unnoticed myriads of those small shell-less snails called slugs, which silently and imperceptibly make amazing havock in the field and garden. *Bingley's Animal Biography*, vol. iii.

Earth-worms are plentifully found in moist fat grounds, but rarely, if ever, in dry sands. M. Reaumur proposed collecting them as a cheap substitute for grain in feeding domestic poultry. The physicians, who appear to have overlooked scarcely any produce of the three kingdoms of nature, have used these creatures, under the notion of their possessing an antispasmodic and diuretic virtue. Neumann relates several experiments made with them. They are cleansed by washing, and suffering them to creep through dry woollen cloths. Unless hastily dried by the heat of the sun or a fire, they are very apt to putrefy. Moistened with wine or vinous spirit, to prevent their putrefaction, and set in a cellar in a wide-mouthed glass, they are almost wholly resolved in a few days into a slimy liquor. This liquor is by some esteemed of great virtue in medicine, and said to be discutient, emollient, and an opener of obstructions; and has been prescribed in apoplexies, spasms, and all nervous affections, and in the jaundice, dropsies, and colics.

The earth-worm has been often confounded with the *Ascaris lumbricoides*, or round worm of the human intestines. The difference has been already pointed out in the article HELMINTHOLOGY, vol. ix. p. 343. but the reader

may now compare them, by referring for the intestinal worm, to the Plate ASCARIS, fig. 1. in our second volume; and, for the common earth-worm, to fig. 1. of the annexed Plate.

2. *Lumbricus marinus*, the lug: back with two rows of bristly tubercles. This inhabits the shores of Europe, where it buries itself deep in the sand, leaving a little rising with an aperture on the surface; and is used as a bait for fish. Body pale red, round, and annulate.

3. *Lumbricoides vermicularis*: body white, with two rows of prickles. It inhabits the wet and decayed trunks of trees, and among moist leaves; moving very expeditiously in moist places, but twisting itself up in dry ones. Its body is polished and glabrous.

4. *Lumbricus variegatus*: rufous spotted, with six rows of prickles. It inhabits wet plantations, and is the most beautiful of the whole genus. The body red, very finely tessellate with brown, having a sanguineous line running down the whole body. It easily breaks in pieces, and as easily reproduces what has been lost by accident or otherwise.

5. *Lumbricus tubifex*: body reddish, with two rows of prickles. The body is pellucid, very simple, thin, and truncate at the tip, with a dark intestine. They are found at the bottom of rivulets, where they form a perpendicular tube of earth for their habitation; as may be seen at fig. 2. which represents a lump of earth with the tubes erect, and some of the worms appearing exerted; they move themselves about in various directions, as if to inhale the air, or perhaps in search of food, but upon the least interruption they quickly withdraw each into its separate tube. One of these worms, highly magnified, is shown at fig. 3. Fig. 4 is a variety of the same, larger, and with longer bristles, which conceals itself in the same kind of earth, but has not been observed to form tubes: fig. 5. is a section of the middle of the body, showing the bristles and the alimentary canal.

6. *Lumbricus lineatus*: body white, with a longitudinal red line. Found very abundantly on the shores of the Baltic, among sea-weed. It is pellucid, with rather a short body, having a yellow artery on the back, and a bifid vein towards the head.

7. *Lumbricus ciliatus*: body rufous, and ciliate between the rings; the body is glabrous, with about forty segments; the interfections armed with four tufts of short bristles.

8. *Lumbricus tubicola*: white, with a red dorsal spot on each of the segments. This species is found in the bays of Norway that have a clayey bottom, in a round membranaceous tube, covered with mud, and about an inch longer than itself. It has twenty-five segments in the body, of which the interfections are armed with two bristles on each side; the intestine is black, and running down the whole body. This worm is shown of the natural size at fig. 6. The segments of the body are of unequal length; those at the head end being so short as to be scarcely distinguishable, and becoming longer towards the tail, the last being more than half an inch long; and is shown magnified at fig. 7.

9. *Lumbricus echiurus*: body covered with rows of granulations; the hind-part obtusely truncate, and surrounded with a double crown of bristles. It inhabits the sandy bottom of the shores of Belgium; is most observable in winter, and is the chief food of cod-fish. Body whitish-grey, with fulvous viscera, about the size of a middle finger; tongue fleshy, thickish, and boat-shaped.

10. *Lumbricus thalassema*: body striate, dirty red, with shining red spots, beneath grey; mouth surrounded with a funnel-like tube, which is wrinkled within, and plaited at the margin; the body is glabrous, mucous, thicker at one end, and somewhat pointed at the other; the mouth is placed above, with a saffron funnel. Inhabits the shores of Cornwall.

11. *Lumbricus edulis*: body whitish; flesh-colour; sub-



clavate behind, dilated and papillous before; mouth terminal, and surrounded with a villous rim or wrinkle. There are two hundred and seventy-eight rings between the villous part and the hinder end, separated by an annular striæ; the hind part bulbous, with a double papilla; the fore-part beset with numerous flesh-coloured ones disposed in transverse rows.

12. *Lumbricus oxyurus*; body whitish livid, very sharp at the hind extremity, and obtuse before, with a round retractile and exsertible proboscis. This species is found on the Sussex coast, is about an inch and a half long, and annulate with very fine striæ; snout truncate, and very fine, granulate, with a pore at the base scarcely visible.

13. *Lumbricus fragilis*: body red, with lateral divided warts, and fasciculate bristles. The body of this species resembles the terrestris, with above two hundred smooth and very brittle rings; the head is conic, with an approximate wrinkled mouth. It inhabits the muddy bottom of the bays of Norway. It is shown of the natural size at fig. 8. and the six upper segments, with the head, are magnified at fig. 9.

14. *Lumbricus armiger*: body red, with double lanceolate lamellæ on the belly, and none on the fore-part; is about two inches long, and consisting of about one hundred rings. Found in the islands of Norway. This is shown of the natural size at fig. 10. Fig. 11 represents the upper or anterior part magnified, from which it will be observed, that the bristles which start from the jointings of the rings in most of the species do not, in this, begin to show themselves till about the eighteenth ring from the head.

15. *Lumbricus cirratus*: body with annular joints, and very long cirri. Inhabits the seas of Norway.

16. *Lumbricus fabellaris*: body jointed, and truncate at the upper end; interfections of the joints thick, and armed (except the first four) with a prickle on each side. This species in some respects resembles the tubicola, and has been mistaken for it; but it is longer and thicker; the sections are 21 or 22 in number, of which the anterior four are the shortest, the middle ones the longest, and each segment is narrower in the middle than at the joint. It is a very rare species; and the upper part, or mouth, is of a very peculiar form. See the Plate, fig. 12. which shows it of the natural size. It inhabits the seas of Norway. *Gmelin's Linn. Zoologia Danica*, tom. i. ii. iii.

LUM'BUS, *f.* [from the Lat.] The loin, the haunch, the flank.

LUMEL'LO, a town of Italy, in the department of the Gogna, which lately gave name to a district in the duchy of Milan, called the *Lumelline*, on the Gogna; once the residence of the kings of Lombardy, and now reduced to the state of a village. It is twenty-six miles south-west of Milan, and forty-four east-north-east of Turin. Lat. 48. 57. N. lon. 8. 47. E.

LUMHAGAN, an island in the Straits of Malacca, near the coast of Salengore, twelve miles long and five broad; separated from the continent by a narrow channel, called the *Straits of Lumhagan*. Lat. 2. 54. N. lon. 101. 24. E.

LUMIJOCK'I, a town of Sweden, in East Bothnia; twelve miles south-west of Ulea.

LUMINA'RE, *f.* [Latin.] The lamp that burns before the altar in the church. *Scott.*

LUMINA'RIA, *f.* in the ancient western churches, the time of our Saviour's nativity; Christmas.

LUMINARY, *f.* [*luminaire*, Fr.] Any body which gives light:

The great luminary  
Dispenses light from far.

*Milton.*

Any thing which gives intelligence.—Sir John Graham, I know not upon what *luminaries* he espied in his face, disfructed him from marriage. *Wootton*.—Any one that instructs mankind.—The circulation of the blood, and the weight and spring of the air, had been reserved for a late

happy discovery by two great *luminaries* of this island. *Bentley.*

LUMINARY, *adj.* Giving light.

LUMINA'TION, *f.* [from *lumen*, Lat.] Emission of light.

LUMINOUS, *adj.* Shining; emitting light.—How came the sun to be *luminous*? Not from the necessity of natural causes. *Bentley.*

Its first convex divides  
The *luminous* inferior orbs inclos'd,  
From chaos.

*Milton.*

Enlightened:

Earth may, industrious of herself, fetch day,  
Travelling east; and, with her part averse  
From the sun's beam, meet night; her other part  
Still *luminous* by his ray.

*Milton's Paradise Lost.*

Shining; bright.—The most *luminous* of the prismatic colours are the yellow and orange; these affect the senses more strongly than all the rest together. *Newton.*

LUMINOUSNESS, *f.* Lustre.—That *luminousness* that appears in some eyes. *Spence's Critic.*

LUM'IO, a town of the island of Corsica: five miles north-east of Calvi.

LUM'LEY, a township of England, in the county of Durham: six miles north of Durham.—Near this is Lumley Castle, the seat of the earls of Scarborough. See vol. iv. p. 419.

LUM'MEN, a town of France, in the department of the Dyle: five miles east of Dieft.

LUM'MO, a town of the island of Cuba: forty-five miles south-south-west of Havannah.

LUMP, *f.* [*lompe*, Dut.] A small mass of any matter.—The weed *kal* is by the Egyptians used first for fuel; and then they crush the ashes into *lumps* like a stone, and so sell them to the Venetians. *Bacon.*

A wretch is pris'ner made;  
Whose flesh, torn off by *lumps*, the rav'nous foe  
In morsels cut.

*Tate.*

A shapeless mass.—Why might there not have been, in this great mass, huge *lumps* of solid matter, which, without any form or order, might be jumbled together? *Kiel against Burnet.*

Hence, heap of wrath, foul indigested *lump*;  
As crooked in thy manners as thy shape. *Shakespeare.*

Mass undistinguished.—It is rare to find any of these metals pure: but copper, iron, gold, silver, lead, and tin, all promiscuously in one *lump*. *Woodward's Natural History.*

All men's honours  
Lie like one *lump* before him, to be fashion'd  
Into what pinch he please. *Shakespeare. Henry VIII.*

The whole together; the gross.—If my readers will not go to the price of buying my papers by retail, they may buy them in the *lump*. *Addison.*

To LUMP, *v. a.* To take in the gross, without attention to particulars.—Boccalina, in his political balance, after laying France in one scale, throws Spain into the other, which wanted but very little of being a counterpoise: the Spaniards upon this reckoned, that, if Spain of itself weighed so well, they could not fail of success when the several parts of the monarchy were *lumped* in the same scale. *Addison.*

LUM'P-FISH, *f.* in ichthyology. See CYCLOPTERUS, vol. v.

LUMPA'REN, an island of Sweden, situated to the east of Aland, between the Baltic and the Gulf of Bothnia. Lat. 60. 7. N. lon. 20. 3. E.

LUMPHAN'AN, a town of Scotland, in the county of Aberdeen. About a mile from the church is a cairn called Macbeth's, and the tradition of the country is, that flying he was pursued by Macduff, and killed on the spot where



where the cairn now is. It is eight miles north of Kincardine.

LUM'PING, *adj.* Large; heavy; great. *A low word.*  
—Nick, thou shalt have a *lumping* pennyworth. *Arbutnot.*  
LUM'PING, *f.* The act of giving or taking in the lump; of giving a lump, or blow.

LUM'PISH, *adj.* Heavy; gross; dull; unactive; bulky.—Out of the earth was formed the flesh of man, and therefore heavy and *lumpish*. *Raleigh.*

How dull and how insensible a beast  
Is man, who yet wou'd lord it o'er the rest!  
Philosophers and poets vainly strove  
In every age the *lumpish* mass to move.

*Dryden.*

LUM'PISHLY, *adv.* With heaviness; with stupidity.

LUM'PISHNESS, *f.* Stupid heaviness.

LUMPOKOL/SKOI (Niznei), a town Russia, in the government of Tobolsk, on the Oby: 112 miles east-fourth-east of Surgut. Lat. 61. N. lon. 76. 54. E.

LUMPOKOL/SKOI (Verchnei), a town of Russia, in the government of Tobolsk: 152 miles east-fourth-east of Surgut. Lat. 60. 54. N. lon. 78. 22. E.

LUM'PY, *adj.* Full of lumps; full of compact masses.—One of the best spades to dig hard *lumpy* clays, but too small for light garden mould. *Mortimer.*

LUN, a town of China, of the third rank, in Hou-quang: twenty-five miles fourth-east of Tcha-lin.

LUN, or LUNE, a river of Germany, which runs into the Weser about sixteen miles from its mouth.

LUNA, the MOON, in mythology, was daughter of Hyperion and Terra; and was the same, according to some mythologists, as Diana. She was worshipped by the ancient inhabitants of the earth with many superstitious forms and ceremonies. It was supposed that magicians and enchanters, particularly those of Thessaly, had an uncontrollable power over the moon, and that they could draw her down from heaven at pleasure by the mere force of their incantations. Her eclipses, according to their opinion, proceeded from thence; and, on that account, it was usual to beat drums and cymbals to ease her labours, and to render the power of magic less effectual. The Arcadians believed that they were older than the moon. Dr. Bryant observes, that "the same deity was often masculine and feminine: what was Dea Luna in one country, was Deus Lunus in another.

LUNA, in ancient geography, a town situated on the Macra, which had a port in Liguria, called *Lunæ Portus*, which, according to Strabo, was a very large and fine harbour, containing several others. The town was situated to the west of the mouth of the river Macra, and was afterwards called *Cariaram*; both names alike signifying Luna, the moon, and referring to its form, which was that of a crescent. Lucan speaks of its aruspices; Servius and Martial of its cheese, marble, and wine. According to Strabo, it was destroyed by Nero; and some of its ruins are still visible in a place called *Lunigona*, and its small territory is named *Lunegiano*. M. Gebelin conjectures that the name Luna was derived from the Celtic *lun*, water.

LUNA, a forest of Germany, at no great distance from the Hercynian; below which were the Boemi; it was therefore in Moravia, near the springs of the Marus, now March, which runs into the Danube over against Carnutum.

LUNA, or LUN'NA, a town of Gallia Celtica. Now *Clugny* in Burgundy.

LUNA, a decayed town of Liguria: two miles south of Sarzana.

LUNA, a town of Spain, in Arragon, taken and burned by the Moors in 985: twenty miles from Saragossa.

LUNA, a town of Spain, in Arragon: twenty-two miles west of Huelva.

LUNA, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Troki: sixteen miles south-east of Grodno.

LUNA, *f.* in the ancient chemistry, signifies *silver*; so called from the supposed influence of the moon thereupon.

LUNA CORNEA, in chemistry, is the combination of marine acid with silver, or the white curdy precipitate of muriatic acid, which takes place, when the nitrat, acetat, or any other soluble salt, of silver, comes in contact with muriatic acid, either single or in any soluble combination. See the article CHEMISTRY, vol. iv. p. 312.—Luna cornea mixed with sea-salt and tartar, rubbed on brass, gives a silver-like appearance; and is the substance employed for the silvering of the dial-plates for clocks. A more substantial silvering may be given by the above mixture, if the piece of brass to be silvered be previously heated considerably, and cleaned with a scratch-brush; and if the operation be repeated till the silver seems to be sufficiently thick. The brass, having a stronger disposition to unite with the marine acid than the silver has, separates this acid from the silver, which is then precipitated upon the surface of the brass plate. Luna cornea will also serve in examination of mineral waters, or of any other liquor, to discover if they contain marine acid in whatever base it be engaged, except metallic bases; for, if these waters contain the smallest quantities of marine acid, luna cornea will be precipitated by them from a solution of silver in nitrous acid, and this luna cornea is known by its acid-like appearance. *Macquer.*

LUNA (Miguel de), a Granadan of Moorish extraction, and royal interpreter of Arabic in Spain. He published, as a translation from Abucacim, *La Historia del Rey D. Rodrigo y Perdida de Espana*, and also *Segunda Parte de la Perdida de Espana; Vida del Rey Jacob Almanzor*. These works, which have been translated, and are still sometimes quoted as true history, are now known to have been his own; and Miguel de Luna must be ranked among literary impostors. *R. S. in Gen. Biog.*

LUNA/CHI, a town of Chili: forty-two miles east-north-east of Valparaiso.

LUNACY, *f.* [from *luna*, the moon.] A kind of madness supposed to be influenced by the moon; madness in general.—There is difference of *lunacy*: I had rather be mad with him, that, when he had nothing, thought all the ships that came into the haven his, than with you, who, when you have so much coming in, think you have nothing. *Suckling.*

Your kindred shun your house,  
As beaten hence by your strange *lunacy*. *Shakespeare.*

LUNÆ MON'S, in ancient geography, a promontory of Lusitania. Now the Rock of Lisbon. Lat. 38. 50. N. lon. 10. W.—Another in Ethiopia, from which the Nile was supposed to take its rise.

LUNÆ POR'TUS, a very extensive port, or more truly a bay, of Liguria, between Portus Veneris and Portus Ericis, twenty miles in compass. Now the *Golfo della Spezia*, on the east coast of the territory of Genoa.

LUNAHO/LM, a small island among the Shetlands. Lat. 60. 44. N. lon. 1. 16. W.

LUNAGUA'NA, a town of Peru, in the audience of Lima: eighty miles south-fourth-east of Lima.

LUNAN BAY, a bay on the east coast of Scotland, celebrated as a place of safety against all but easterly winds; four miles south of Montrose. Lat. 56. 37. N. lon. 4. 27. W.

LUNAN NESS', a cape on the east coast of Shetland. Lat. 60. 43. N. lon. 1. 17. W.

LUNAR, or LUNARY, *adj.* Relating to the moon.—They that have resolved that these years were but *lunary* years, viz. of a month, or Egyptian years, are easily confuted. *Raleigh.*

Then we upon our globe's last verge shall go,  
And view the ocean leaning on the sky;  
From thence our rolling neighbours we shall know,  
And on the *lunar* world securely pry.

*Dryden.*

Being



Being under the dominion of the moon.—They have denominated some herbs solar, and some *lunar*; and such-like toys put into great words. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—The figure of its seed much resembles a horse-shoe, which Baptista Porta hath thought too low a signification, and raised the same into a *lunary* representation. *Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

LUNA'RIA, *f.* [so named from the form of the fruit, like a full moon.] HONESTY; in botany, a genus of the class tetradynamia, order siliculosa, natural order of siliquosæ or cruciformes, (cruciferæ, *Juss.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium four-leaved, oblong; leaflets ovate-oblong, blunt, converging, deciduous, of which the two alternate ones are gibbous and bagged at the base. Corolla: four-petalled, cruciform; petals entire, blunt, large, the length of the calyx, ending in claws of the same length. Stamina: filaments six, awl-shaped, four the length of the calyx, two a little shorter; antheræ from upright spreading. Pistillum: germ pedicelled, ovate-oblong; style short; stigma blunt, entire. Pericarpium: silicle, elliptic, flat, entire, upright, very large, pedicelled, terminated by the style, two-celled, two-valved; partition parallel and equal to the valves, flat. Seeds: some, kidney-shaped, compressed, marginal, in the middle of the silicle; receptacles filiform, long, inserted into the lateral sutures.—*Essential Characters.* Silicle entire, elliptic, compressed-flat, pedicelled; valves equal and parallel to the partition, flat; calyx with bagged leaflets.

*Species.* 1. *Lunaria rediviva*, or perennial honesty: silicles lanceolate; root perennial. This is a very large plant. Root perennial, white. Stem from three to four feet high, upright, simple, channelled, green tinged with purple, hirsute. Lower leaves opposite, upper alternate, on long petioles, smooth or rough-haired, cordate, unequally serrate, nerved, acuminate, near a span long, and three or four inches wide. Flowers terminating, on long slender peduncles, often bifid and trifid; calyxes of a white purple colour, and smooth; petals purple, odorous. Silicles acuminate, an inch and half wide, three inches long, with the permanent style half an inch in length: they contain three, four, or five, roundish seeds fastened to the margin of the future by a thread. Native of the South of France, Italy, Switzerland, Silesia, Austria, Hungary. Cultivated by Gerard in 1597.

2. *Lunaria annua*, common honesty, or moonwort: silicles roundish; root biennial. Root biennial, knobbed. Stem smaller than the preceding, upright, branched, hirsute, round, half a yard high. Leaves rough-haired, the floral ones almost always opposite, sessile; stem-leaves petioled, much smaller than those of the preceding, cordate, dull green, serrate. Calyx purplish ash-colour, hirsute; petals violet or blue-purple, inodorous. Style two lines long, permanent: silicles broader, blunter, shorter; seeds five or six. The seed-vessels, when full ripe, become transparent, and of a clear shining white like satin, whence this plant has acquired the name of *white satin*. The branches used to be dried and preserved to place in chimneys. Native of Germany. Gerard says it is called in English pennie-flower, or money-flower, silver-plate, prick-songwort; in Norfolk, satin and white satin, and among our women *honestie*. This last name now most commonly obtains, and may be derived from the transparency of the seed-vessels, in which the whole may be viewed, without deceit. In German, it is named *mondviole*, *mondkraut*, *silberblume*, *silberblatt*, *stütern*, *Atlas-blume*, *waldriegel*; in Dutch, *maankruid*, *penningkruid*, *zilverbloem*; in Danish, *maaneviol*; in Swedish, *manefioler*; in French, *la lunaire*, *satinée*, *satin blanc*, *passé-satin*, *medaille*, *herbe aux lunettes*, and *bulbonac*, from its stromous or glandular root.

Gærtner regards these two species as one, and asserts that there is no true distinction between them besides duration; that the colour of the calyx and corolla, or the odour of the flowers, is nothing; and that Linnæus's specific difference from the situation of the leaves is fictitious. They both flower in May and June. If the species be

distinct, they are certainly very nearly allied, and have been confounded. According to Linnæus, the root of the first is perennial; the flowers odorous; the leaves alternate except the lowest, and more rough-haired. In the second, the root is biennial; the flowers inodorous; the stem hirsute; the leaves opposite, at least in the cultivated plant; but he questions whether it be so always. He makes the latter a native of Scania; but it appears that it is the former which was found there. Gerard says that they are found wild about Pinner, Harrow, Watford, and Hornchurch. Johnson does not correct him; but Parkinson says, he could never certainly be assured of it; and no one, that I have heard, has found them since. Monf. Villars is of opinion that the lengthened pointed form of the fruit, is sufficient, independent of the duration, villose calyx, &c. to distinguish the first species from the second, which is that most commonly cultivated in old flower-gardens.

This being a disputed case, we think it right to give Mr. Professor Martyn's accurate account of the plant, as we find it in his edition of Miller's Gardener's Dictionary. "I have a seedling plant of this now (Aug. 21, 1797) before me, which has seven full-grown leaves on it, and two young ones springing from the centre. The former are of an oblong cordate form, from six to seven inches long, and five inches wide near the base, light green, villose on the upper surface, and rough-haired along the veins of the lower surface, which are very prominent; the edge is rather crenate than serrate; the petioles are seven or eight inches long, very rough-haired, and channelled. A plant of the second year, now in full seed, is five feet high; the stem round, somewhat flexuose, quite simple, having no branches but those which produce the flowers; white pellucid hairs are scattered over it, and it is spotted with brownish purple towards the bottom. The root-leaves are gone, having left only the withered petioles. The stem-leaves are solitary, alternate, cordate-oblong, almost sagittate, drawn to a point, pale green, villose, the midrib and principal veins rough-haired, the edge unequally serrate, with larger and smaller serratures alternately: the lowest leaves are nine inches in length, and six in breadth where the petiole is inserted, which is three inches long; but this gradually shortens to about the middle of the stem, and then the other leaves to the top are sessile; the uppermost leaf (or two) is even jagged. From each axil to within a foot of the bottom comes out a single flowering stalk; the lower ones near a foot long, with a few leaves on them, like the stem-leaves, but smaller, sometimes opposite, but more frequently alternate; these have but few flowers on them; the upper flowering-stalks are shorter, have no leaves, but more flowers; and a bunch or spike of flowers terminates the whole. Silicles alternate, broad-elliptic, an inch and a half long, an inch and a quarter broad, on pedicels above an inch and a half in length; the permanent style three-eighths of an inch long. The number of seeds is uncertain, from two or three to six or seven, but some of these are generally abortive. I do not discern any traces of that attenuation of the silicle which Gærtner speaks of. Mr. Miller has given the specific differences right, from the silicles; but in his descriptions he has reversed them; ascribing large roundish pods to *L. rediviva*, and longer narrower pods to *L. annua*, which he says also has larger flowers, and of a lighter purple colour." The blossom of this species is shown open on the BOTANY Plate X. fig. 15. vol. iii. p. 258.

3. *Lunaria Ægyptiaca*, or Egyptian honesty; silicles oblong, pendulous; leaves superdecipound, with trifid leaflets. This is an annual plant, with a smooth branching stalk little more than a foot high. Leaves unequally pinnate; leaflets differing in size and form; some almost entire, others cut at their extremities into three parts; they are smooth, and of a lucid green. The flowers stand each upon pretty long slender peduncles, which come out from the side, and also at the end of the branches, in loose small clusters; they are of a purple colour, and are suc-



ceeded by oblong compressed pods, which hang downward, and when ripe are of a feuille-mort colour. Silicle ovate-oblong or rhomb-elliptic, flattened like a leaf, two-celled, two-valved; partition parallel to the valves, thin almost as a cobweb, generally glued fast to the valves when the seed-vessel is ripe, so that it escaped Linnæus and others, who accordingly supposed the fruit to be one-celled. Seeds in each cell one or two, subcordate, or deeply emarginate at the umbilicus, compressed, somewhat rugged to the touch, obsoletely margined, brown. There being certainly a partition in the silicle, this species ought not to be separated from Lunaria, since there is such a conformity in the fructification, although the outward habit be peculiar, and very different from the others. Native of Egypt. It flowers here in June and July; the seeds ripen the beginning of September, and the plants decay soon after.

*Propagation and Culture.* The first and second are propagated by seeds sown in the autumn. Those sown in the spring often miscarry, or lie a long time in the ground. They will grow in almost any soil, but love a shady situation; and require only to be kept clean from weeds. If the seeds be permitted to scatter, the plants will rise without farther care; and, if they be left unremoved, they will grow much larger than those which are transplanted. Sow the seeds of N<sup>o</sup> 3 in an open border, where they are to remain; if they be sown soon after they are ripe, the plants will come up in the autumn, and live through the winter in a sheltered situation; these will flower early the following summer, whereby ripe seeds may be obtained; they may also be sown in the spring. Keep them clean, and thin them where they are too close. If the seeds be permitted to scatter, these also will come up without care. See ALYSSUM, MEDICAGO, MARCHANTIA, OSMUNDA, and RUMEX.

LUNA'RIAN, *f.* An inhabitant of the moon.—The Lunarians in the opposite hemisphere never see our earth. *Adams on Globes.*

LUNARIUM, in ancient geography, a promontory of the Hither Spain, between Blanda and Bætulo. Commonly called *Cabo de Palafugel*, in Catalonia, on the Mediterranean; or *Cabo de Tofa*, on the same coast, and in Catalonia, fifteen miles from the former, to the west.

LUNARY, *f.* Moonwort, or honesty. See LUNARIA.

Then sprinkles she the juice of rue,  
With nine drops of the midnight dew,  
From *lunary* distilling. *Drayton's Nymphid.*

LUNATED, or LUNULATED, *adj.* Formed like a half moon; crescent-shaped.

LUNATIC, *adj.* Mad; having the imagination influenced by the moon:

Bedlam beggars, from low farms,  
Sometimes with *lunatic* bans, sometimes with prayers,  
Enforce their charity. *Shakespeare.*

LUNATIC, *f.* A madman.—I dare ensure any men well in his wits, for one in the thousand, that he shall not die a *lunatic* in Bedlam within these seven years; because not above one in about one thousand five hundred have done so. *Graunt's Bills.*—The residue of the yearly profits shall be laid out in purchasing a piece of land, and in building thereon an hospital for the reception of idiots and lunatics. *Swift's Will.*

See the blind beggar dance, the cripple sing,  
The sot a hero, *lunatic* a king. *Pope.*

A person supposed to be affected or governed by the moon. Hence, epileptics were anciently called *lunatic*, because the paroxysms of that disease seemed to be regulated by the changes of the moon. Thus Galen (*De Diebus criticis*, lib. iii.) says, the moon governs the periods of epileptic cases; and others referred the disease entirely to this

planet. Mad people are still called lunatics, from an ancient but now almost-exploded opinion, that they are much influenced by that planet. A founder philosophy hath taught us, that, if there be any thing in it, it must be accounted for, not in the manner the ancients imagined, nor otherwise than what the moon has in common with other heavenly bodies, occasioning various alterations in the gravity of our atmosphere, and thereby affecting human bodies. However, there is considerable reason to doubt the fact; and it is certain that the moon has no perceivable influence on our most accurate barometers. See the article INSANITY, vol. xi. p. 120.

A lunatic, in the contemplation of the law, is properly a person who hath lucid intervals; sometimes enjoying his senses, and sometimes not. See the article IDIOCY, vol. x. p. 756.

It is a melancholy fact, that in the whole kingdom of Ireland, containing a population of nearly five millions and a half, and where insanity is a disease of as frequent occurrence as in any other country in Europe, there is not even one asylum for the reception and cure of insane paupers. It appears that sir John Newport, aware of the evil, brought a bill into parliament about ten years ago, in which it was proposed to establish four large provincial asylums; but from some cause, with which we are not acquainted, the bill was rejected. The consequences of the deficiency are indeed deplorable. The unfortunate sufferers are scarcely ever considered as objects of medical treatment; but, when harmless, are suffered to ramble about the country, exposed to the insults and ridicule of the populace; and, when they show a disposition to mischief, they are removed to gaols, or workhouses, or some other place of security, where they are confined in gloomy cells, chained in sheds, or have clogs fastened to their legs to prevent their escape. Every man of common feeling must be sensible that some remedy is necessary; but we should doubt whether the erection of public asylums at the expense of government be desirable. It seems to be the inevitable result in Ireland of all such schemes, that they sooner or later degenerate into *jobs*; and that what was apparently well calculated to accomplish the object in view serves no other purpose than to put money into the pockets of a few contractors. The path which ought to be pursued, we think, is very obvious; viz. that lunatic asylums should be erected and supported, as they are in Liverpool, Manchester, and many others of the large towns in England, by voluntary subscription. Although great objections may be made to placing lunatics in general hospitals, we see none against making an asylum an appendage to an infirmary; and not only some peculiar conveniences, but a considerable saving of expense, would result from this arrangement. The known liberality of the Irish would certainly enable any one to execute the plan, who would take a little pains to effect it.

LUNA'TION, *f.* The revolution of the moon.—If the *lunations* be observed for a cycle of nineteen years, which is the cycle of the moon, the same observations will be verified for succeeding cycles for ever. *Holder on Time.*

LUNAWA'RA, a town of Hindoostan, in Guzerat; fifty miles east of Amedabad.

LUNCAR'TY, or LONG CARTY, a town of Scotland, in the county of Perth, where is one of the most extensive bleaching-grounds in Scotland. This place is signalized by the great victory obtained by the Scots over the Danes, in 970, where the gallant Hay and his two sons are said to have turned the tide of conquest in favour of their countrymen. See the article HERALDRY, vol. ix. p. 412. In these fields, which are now covered with linen cloth, or luxuriant crops of wheat and other grain, swords, spears, and targets, occasionally dug up in the course of agriculture, and in the formation of canals for the purposes of bleaching, furnish every day fresh proofs of the authenticity of Scottish history: five miles north of Perth.

LUNCH, or LUN'CHEON, *f.* [from *lunja*, Span. or from *kleinken*,



*kleinken*, a small piece, Teutonic; or from *clutch* or *clunch*.] As much food as one's hand can hold:

When hungry thou stood'st staring like an oaf,  
I slic'd the *luncheon* from the barley loaf.

Gay.

LUND, a small town in the east riding of Yorkshire; with a fair on the 1st and 2d of November.—A village in the north riding, near New Malton.

LUND, a town of Sweden, in West Gothland, on the Wenner lake: thirty-six miles north-north-east of Uddevalla.

LUND, or LUN'DEN, the most ancient town of Sweden, the capital of Scania, Schonen, or Skonen, of which a proverb is recorded, viz. that, "when our Saviour was born, Lund was in its glory." Lund contains scarcely more than 800 inhabitants, carries on but little trade, and is principally supported by the university established by Charles XI. and called, from the name of its founder, *Academia Carolina Gothorum*. When Mr. Coxe visited Sweden, it had 21 professors and 300 students. The library contains 20,000 volumes. The botanical garden was not in a flourishing state, the number of plants not exceeding 1200. Linnæus was matriculated at this university. At Lund was instituted, in 1776, a Royal Physiographical Society, which was incorporated by the king in 1778. The subjects treated of in its acts relate only to natural history, chemistry, and agriculture. Lund is an archbishopric. The cathedral is an ancient irregular building, raised at different intervals. Lund is twenty-one miles east of Copenhagen. Lat. 55.44. N. lon. 13. E.

LUN'DA, a town of Sweden, in Sudermanland: ten miles west of Nyköping.

LUND'BY, a town of Norway, in the province of Aggerhuus, on the Glomme: sixty miles north-east of Christiania.

LUN'DE, a town of Norway, near a lake of the same name: twenty-eight miles west-north-west of Christianland.—A town of Norway, seventeen miles north-west of Skeen.

LUN'DEN, a town of the duchy of Holstein: twenty-four miles west of Rendsburg, and fifty-seven north-north-west of Hamburg.

LUN'DIE, a town of Scotland, in the county of Angus: eight miles north-west of Dundee.

LUN'DO, a town of Sweden, in the government of Abo: eight miles north-east of Abo.

LUN'DRES, *f.* A sterling silver penny, which had its name from being coined only at London, and not at the country mints. *Lowndes's Essay on Coin*, p. 17.

LUN'DSEY, a town of Pegu, on the west side of the river Ava: sixty miles west-north-west of Pegu. Lat. 18. 30. N. lon. 95.43. E.

LUNDS'JE, a town of Persia, in the province of Laristan, on the Persian gulf: 100 miles west-south-west of Gamberon. Lat. 26. 38. N. lon. 54. 36. E.

LUNDSKORON, a town of Poland: eighteen miles south of Cracow.

LUN'DY ISLAND, in the mouth of the Bristol channel, nearly four leagues from the coast of Devonshire, England. It is rather more than three miles in length, and about one in breadth; contains about 2000 acres; and is environed by high and steep rocks, which render it inaccessible, except in one or two places. The only safe landing-place is on the east side; where a small beach admits a secure approach, and is sheltered by a detached portion of rock, called the Isle of Rats, from the great number of those animals which burrow here. On landing, visitors are obliged to climb over various craggy masses, before they can reach the steep and winding tract that leads to the summit, which commands views of the English and Welsh coasts. About 400 acres only of this island are in cultivation; of which 300 are arable, and the rest pasture; wheat is the chief produce. The elevated situation of the land, in some places 800 feet above the sea, and the violence of the north-east winds, prevent

any trees from growing, though a considerable expense has been incurred in planting. Rabbits and rock-birds are numerous; and in the season, lobsters, crabs, and other fish, may be obtained in abundance. About four hundred head of sheep, and eighty of cattle, are fed here; but the former do not thrive. The inclosures are stone fences. Of the history of the island but little is known. Rifdon relates that one Morisco, who had conspired to kill king Henry III. retired hither, and, turning pirate, committed great depredations; on which the king arrested, and had him executed on an elevated part. About the middle of the last century, it was purchased of government by a nobleman, who entrusted it to the care of a person named Benson, a notorious smuggler, who carried on a considerable illicit traffic. The next proprietor of the island was sir John Borlase Warren, who, about the year 1781, sold it to John Cleveland, esq. but it appears to have been recently re-purchased by government. The whole rent is 70l. per annum; no taxes are paid; nor can it maintain any revenue-officer, the duties in seven years scarcely amounting to five pounds. The number of houses is only seven; the inhabitants, in the year 1794, were but twenty-three. The population of the isle was probably greater at some distant period, as many human bones have been ploughed up; and Camden says, "the furrows show it to have been once cultivated." The chief antiquities are, the ruins of St. Anne's chapel, and what is termed Morisco's castle. The latter is near the south-east end, and was strongly fortified with large out-works and a ditch; a few old dismounted cannon occupy the battlement, beneath which is a curious cavern. In the reign of Charles I. lord Say and Seale held the castle for the king; and in the time of William and Mary, the French surprised it by a stratagem, plundered it, and kept possession for some time. *England's Gaz. Beauties of England and Wales*.

LUNE, *f.* Any thing in the shape of an half-moon:

A troop of Janizaries strew'd the field,  
Fall'n in just ranks or wedges, *lunes*, or squares,  
Firm as they stood. *Watts*.

Fits of lunacy or phrenzy; mad freaks. The French say of a man fantastical or whimsical, *Il a des lunes*. *Hammer*.

Bethrew them,  
These dangerous unsafe *lunes* i' th' king;  
He must be told on't, and he shall; the office  
Becomes a woman's best. *Shakespeare's Winter's Tale*.

A leath; as, the *lune* of a hawk.

LUNE, *lunula*, in geometry, is the space included between the arcs of two unequal circles, forming a sort of crescent, or half-moon, the area of which may in many cases be as accurately determined as that of any rectilinear figure. The lune was the first curvilinear space of which the quadrature was ascertained; and this is said to have been first effected by Hippocrates of Chios, though others say it was discovered by Ctenopidas of Chios. However this may be, the former geometer has generally had the honour of the discovery attributed to him, and the figure still bears his name, being commonly denominated the lune of Hippocrates.

LUNE, a town of Westphalia, in the principality of Lunenburg Zelle: two miles north of Lunenburg.

LUNE, a river of England, which rises in Westmoreland, and runs into the Tees about six miles above Barnard Castle.

LUNE, or LOYNE, a river of England, which rises in the county of York, and runs into the Irish Sea a few miles below Lancaster, in lat. 53. 57. N. lon. 2. 49. W.

LUNE FOREST, in the north riding of Yorkshire, near Richmond.

LUNEBURG. See LUNENBURG.

LUNEL LA VILLE, a town of France, in the department of the Herault: two and half posts east of Montpellier, and ninety-three south of Paris. Lat. 43. 40. N. lon. 4. 13. E.

LUNEN,



**LU'NEN**, a town of Germany, in the county of Mark, at the conflux of the Zefick and Lippe: twenty miles south-fourth-west of Munster. Lat. 51. 36. N. lon. 7. 37. E.

**LU'NEN**, a town of Germany, in the county of Verden: three miles north-north-west of Rotenburg.

**LU'NENBURG**, or **LU'NEBURG ZEL'LE**, a principality of Westphalia, bounded on the north by the duchy of Lauenburg and the Elbe, on the east by the duchies of Brunswick and Mecklenburg, on the south by the principality of Calenberg and the duchy of Brunswick, and on the west by the duchies of Bremen and Verden, the county of Höya, and the principality of Calenberg. The soil here is various; along the Elbe, the Aller, the Jetze, and some other small rivers, are fruitful marsh-lands; but other parts of it, to the amount of upwards of three thousand acres, are sandy; others again consist of heaths, others of turf-moors, and some are swampy. The worst parts in it are towards its centre, through which lie the main roads. Agreeably to the diversity of its soil, it produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, pease, buck-wheat, flax, hemp, hops, garden-stuff, oak, beech, firs, pines, birch, and elder. Some bailiwicks do not produce a sufficiency of wheat, but others again have a superfluity; some likewise breed but few horned cattle and horses, though they abound in others. The heaths are covered with numerous flocks of a small kind of sheep, having long coarse wool. The culture of bees on them is such, as to yield considerable quantities of honey and wax. The rivers afford plenty of good fish. Lunenburg abounds in excellent lime-stone, and very profitable salt-springs. The Elbe, which traverses the east and north sides of this principality, is of great advantage to it, by fertilizing the adjacent marsh-lands, as also with respect to its fisheries, navigation, and tolls. Other rivers are the Jetze, the Old Mark, the Ilmenau, the Luffie, the Seeve, the Aller, &c. In this principality are three large towns, namely, Lunenburg, Velzen, and Zelle, with eleven smaller, and thirteen boroughs, or large villages. The principal manufactures and fabrics in this principality are those of linen, cotton, cloth, ribbons, stockings, and hats. This principality was formed out of the hereditary lands of the Billungs, one of whom was by the emperor Otho I. created duke of Saxony. His male issue failed in the person of duke Magnus, by whose eldest daughter Wulfhild, the hereditary estates of the house of Billung came to her husband Henry the Black, duke of Bavaria, and his descendants. This principality entitled the king of Great Britain to both a seat and voice in the college of the princes of the empire, and the circle of Lower Saxony. Its matricular assessment was 20 horse, and 120 foot, or 720 florins per month. By the peace of Tilfit, (1807.) this principality was annexed to the *then-created* kingdom of Westphalia, now no more; and may soon perhaps form a part of the *now-created* (Oct. 1814.) kingdom of Hanover.

**LU'NENBURG**, or **LU'NEBURG**, a city of Westphalia, capital of the principality, situated on the Ilmenau, surrounded with moats and walls, fortified with towers, and containing three churches, about 1300 houses, and 9000 inhabitants. It has also three hospitals, of which two contain each a church. The prince's palace and the guild-hall are in the market-place. The anatomical theatre was built in 1713; and an academy for martial exercises was founded on the site of the convent of St. Michael, which was suppressed. The burghers consist of four orders; the patricians, the brewers, the merchants and tradesmen, and the artisans; and to these four classes some others might be added. Since the year 1639, the magistracy has been composed of one moiety of patricians, and of another of men of letters. The Salze, which is a distinct part of the town, enclosed by walls, has its own separate magistracy. This part consists of fifty-four small houses, sunk in the ground, in each of which are four large leaden pans, containing brine, which is left to exhale for the manufacture of salt; and the salt-water is conveyed into them by a common pipe from the several springs. The

salt-houses, being 54 in number, and containing 216 pans, which are daily boiled, and every salt-house being estimated at 40,000 rix-dollars, the capital of the whole Salze much exceeds two millions of rix-dollars. Of these salt-works, a fifth belongs to the sovereign's due; but the town of Lunenburg pays annually to the treasury near 6000 rix-dollars; of late the salt-trade has very much declined. The exports of the town are salt, lime furnished by two rocks in its vicinity, and beer. It likewise carries on a trade in wax, honey, wool, flax, linen, and frize. Goods are also brought here from all parts of Germany, and forwarded by the Ilmenau to Hamburg and to Lubec. Lunenburg is thirty-six miles south-east from Hamburg. Lat. 53. 15. N. lon. 10. 36. E.

**LU'NENBURG**, a town of Prussia, in the province of Natangen: thirty-four miles south-south-east of Konigsberg.

**LU'NENBURG**, a county of Nova Scotia, on Mahone bay, on the south coast of the province, facing the Atlantic ocean. Its chief towns are New Dublin, Lunenburg, Chester, and Blanford. In Mahone bay, La Have, and Liverpool, several ships trade to England with timber and boards.—Also, a township in the above county, situated on Merliqueth or Merliquah bay, well settled by a number of industrious Germans. The lands are good, and well cultivated. It is thirty-five miles south-west by south from Halifax.

**LU'NENBURG**, a county of Virginia, adjoining Nottaway, Brunswick, Mecklenburg, and Charlotte, counties; about thirty miles long, and twenty broad. It contains 4505 free inhabitants, and 5876 slaves.—A township in Essex county, in Vermont, seated on Connecticut-river, south-west of Guildhall, and north-east of Concord; and containing 393 inhabitants.—A township of Worcester county, Massachusetts, on an elevated situation, twenty-five miles from the Great Monadnock Mountain, in New Hampshire. It contains 14,000 acres of land, on which are 1243 inhabitants, who have little intercourse or trade with their neighbours; but they carry on the nailing business to advantage.—A town of the state of New York, in Green-county, now called *Esperanza*, situated on the west side of Hudson's river, opposite to the city of Hudson, and thirty miles south of Albany.

**LUNES'TINS**, a town of the island of Shetland: twelve miles north of Lerwick.

**LUNETTE**, *f.* [French.] A small half-moon. See **FORTIFICATION**, vol. vii.—*Lunette* is a covered place made before the courtine, which consists of two faces that form an angle inwards; and is commonly raised in fosses full of water, to serve instead of a fausse braye, and to dispute the enemy's passage: it is six toises in extent, of which the parapet is four. *Trevoux*.

**LUNETTE**, in the manege, is a half horse-shoe, or such a shoe as wants the sponge, i. e. that part or the branch which runs towards the quarters of the foot. *Lunette* is also the name of two small pieces of felt, made round and hollow, to clap upon the eyes of a vicious horse that is apt to bite, and strike with his fore feet, or that will not suffer his rider to mount him.

**LUNEVILLE**, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Meurte; situated between the Vesouze and the Meurte, which unite a little below, in a marshy country, which has been drained. In the sixth century it was a county of itself; united in the twelfth to Lorraine. An academy was instituted here by king Stanislaus, and furnished with a good library. In 1801, a peace was signed here between France and Austria; for the terms of which (which will be perused with interest at this time) see the article **ENGLAND**, vol. vi. p. 793. Luneville is thirteen miles east-south-east of Nancy, and twenty-four east of Toul. Lat. 48. 36. N. lon. 6. 34. E.

**LUNG**, a town of China, in the province of Quang-si. Lat. 23. 12. N. lon. 103. 43. E.

**LUNG**, a fortress of China, in the province of Chen-si. Lat. 36. 25. N. lon. 106. 43. E.



**LUNG**, or **LUNGS**, but generally used in the plural; *f.* [from *lungen*, Sax. *long*, Dut.] The lights; the part by which breath is inspired and expired.—See the article **ANATOMY**, vol. i. p. 610–12.

Had I a hundred mouths, a hundred tongues,  
And throats of brass inspir'd with iron *lungs*;  
I could not half those horrid crimes repeat,  
Nor half the punishments those crimes have met. *Milton.*

Breathing begins immediately after birth; the enlargement of the chest occasions the lungs to be distended with air, and consequently to become specifically lighter; a greater quantity of blood passes through them, and thus they acquire greater absolute weight. The increase of volume must be limited by the capability of enlargement in the chest; and this cannot be very considerable immediately on birth. This enlarged size is not, therefore, sufficiently marked, to be relied on as a proof that respiration has begun. It is a well-known fact, that the lungs of an individual who has breathed swim in water, whether they be immersed entire or in slices. This is a property remarkably contrasted with what takes place under the same treatment before birth. A criterion has been sought for in this source, to determine, in doubtful cases, whether a child has been born dead or alive; and the consideration is a highly-important one, from the influence it may produce on medical opinions, in cases of suspected child-murder. We shall only observe here, that the convulsive attempts to establish respiration, although not successful, may introduce air enough into the lungs to make them buoyant in water; that attempts to inflate them, in order to preserve the child, or after it has died, may have the same effect; that the disengagement of air by putrefaction may thus make them specifically lighter than water; not to mention, that the child may have breathed and died afterwards; so that the mere naked circumstance of the lung swimming is altogether an insufficient proof that the child has been murdered; and to condemn a mother to death on such grounds, exhibits a degree of ignorance and barbarity worthy only of the dark ages. The increase of absolute bulk in the lungs after birth is a phenomenon very worthy of being remarked. These organs in the fœtus, at full time, are  $\frac{1}{70}$ th of the body. According to the researches of some German and French anatomists, they are more than  $\frac{1}{30}$ th, or  $\frac{1}{25}$ th in a child who has breathed. There may be some variation in this point, but the organs are never so light as to approach at all to the proportion which they exhibit before birth; a fact which is highly important in its application to questions of supposed infanticide.

**LUNG'-GROWN**, *adj.* Having the lungs adhering to the membrane that lines the breast.—The lungs sometimes grow fast to the skin that lines the breast within; whence such as are detained with that accident are *lung-grown*. *Harvey.*

**LUNG'-WORT**, *f.* in botany. See **PULMONARIA**.

**LUNG'-WORT**, Cow's. See **VERBASCUM**.

**LUNG'-WORT**, Golden. See **HEIRACIUM**.

**LUNG'DRIDGE**, a village in Northumberland, near Tweedmouth.

**LUNGE**, *f.* A pass or thrust in fencing.

**LUNG'ED**, *adj.* Having lungs; having the nature of lungs; drawing in and emitting air, as the lungs in an animal body:

The smith prepares his hammer for the stroke,  
While the *lung'd* bellows hissing fire provoke. *Dryden.*

**LUNG'KORCHE**, a town of Prussia, in the palatinate of Culm: ten miles north of Strasburg.

**LUN'GON**, a small island on the west side of the gulf of Bothnia. Lat. 62.40. N. lon. 17.48. E.

**LUNGPOUR**, a town of the country of Cachar: fifteen miles east of Cospour.

**LUN'GRO**, a town of Naples, in Calabria Citra, chiefly inhabited by Greeks: ten miles south-south-west of Casano.

**LUN'GRY**, a town of Bengal: thirty-six miles south of Calcutta. Lat. 21.58. N. lon. 87.35. E.

**LUNG'SARP**, a town of Sweden, in West Gothland: fifty-seven miles from Gotheborg.

**LUNG'SUND**, a town of Sweden, in Werneland: twenty-five miles north-east of Carlstadt. Lat. 59.48. N. lon. 13.54. E.

**LUNGU**, a small island in the Eastern Indian Sea, near the coast of Queda. Lat. 6.39. N. lon. 99.42. E.

**LUNISO'LAR**, *adj.* [from the Lat. *luna*, the moon, and *sol*, the sun.] Compounded of the revolution of sun and moon.

**LUNISO'LAR YE'AR**, or **VICTORIAN PERIOD**. See the article **CHRONOLOGY**, vol. iv. p. 538.

**LUN'KA**, a town of Samogitia: forty miles north-east of Miedniki.

**LUNT**, *f.* [*lunte*, Dut.] The match-cord with which guns are fired.

**LUN'TENBURG**, or **BRZED'SLAW**, a town of Moravia, in Brunn; taken and burned by the Prussians in the year 1742: thirty-six miles south-east of Brunn.

**LUNT'LEY**, a village in Herefordshire, south of Pembridge.

**LUN'TON**, a village in the north riding of Yorkshire, on the Tees, to the north-west of Rombald Kirk.

**LUNTZ**, a town of Austria: fifteen miles south-east of Bavarian Waidhofen.

**LU'NULA**, *f.* [Latin.] In geometry, a plain figure in the form of a crescent.

**LU'NULA'RIA**, *f.* in botany. See **MARCHANTIA**.

**LU'NULATE**, or **LU'NATE**, *adj.* Shaped like a crescent, or half-moon.

**LU'NZENAU**, a town of Saxony, in the lordship of Schonburg: two miles north-east of Penig.

**LUOPI'OS**, a town of Sweden, in the province of Tavastland: twenty-three miles north of Tavasthus.

**LU'PA** [Lat. a she-wolf.] Was held in great veneration at Rome, because Romulus and Remus, according to an ancient tradition, were suckled and preserved by one of these animals. This fabulous story arises from the surname of Lupa, *prostitute*, which was given to the wife of the shepherd Faustulus, to whose care and humanity these children owed their preservation. *Ovid. Fast. Plut. in Romul.*

**LUPAN'NA**, an island in the Adriatic, near Ragusa, with a good and safe harbour. The soil is stony, but by the industry of the inhabitants is rendered fertile. The coasts abound with fish.

**LUPA'RA**, a town of Naples, in the Molise: seventeen miles north-east of Molise.

**LUPA'TA**, a chain of mountains in Africa, and country of Mocaranga. Lat. 13. to 17. S.

**LUPER'CAL**, a place at the foot of Mount Aventine, sacred to Pan, where festivals called Lupercalia were yearly celebrated. *Virg.*

**LUPERCA'LIA**, a yearly festival observed at Rome the 15th of February, in honour of the god Pan. It was usual first to sacrifice two goats and a dog, and to touch with a bloody knife the foreheads of two illustrious youths, who always were obliged to smile while they were touched. The blood was wiped away with soft wool dipped in milk. After this the skins of the victims were cut into thongs, with which whips were made for the youths. With these whips the youths ran about the streets all naked except the middle, and whipped freely all those they met. Women in particular were fond of receiving the lashes, as they superstitiously believed that they removed barrenness, and eased the pains of child-birth. This excursion in the streets of Rome was performed by naked youths, because Pan is always represented naked; and a goat was sacrificed, because that deity was supposed to have the feet of a goat. A dog was added, as a necessary and useful guardian of the sheepfold. This festival, as Plutarch mentions, was first instituted by the Romans in honour of the she-wolf which suckled Romulus and Remus. This opinion



nion is controverted by others; and Livy, with Dionysius of Halicarnassus, observes, that they were introduced into Italy by Evander. The name seems to be borrowed from the Greek name of Pan, *Lycæus*, from *λύκος*, a wolf; because Pan, as god of shepherds, protected the sheep from the rapacity of the wolves. The priests which officiated at the Lupercalia were called *Luperci*. Augustus forbade any person above the age of fourteen to appear naked, or to run about the streets, during the Lupercalia. Cicero, in his Philippics, reproaches Antony for having disgraced the dignity of the consulship by running naked, and armed with a whip, about the streets. It was during the celebration of these festivals that Antony offered a crown to Julius Cæsar, which the indignation of the populace obliged him to refuse.

**LUPER'CI**, a number of priests at Rome, who assisted at the celebration of the Lupercalia, in honour of the god Pan, to whose service they were dedicated. This order of priests was the most ancient and respectable of all the sacerdotal offices. It was divided into two separate colleges, called *Fabiani* and *Quintiliani*, from Fabius and Quintilius, two of their high priests. The former were instituted in honour of Romulus, and the latter of Remus. To these two sacerdotal bodies Julius Cæsar added a third, called, from himself, the *Julii*; and this action contributed not a little to render his cause unpopular, and to betray his ambitious and aspiring views.

**LUPER'CUS**, a grammarian in the reign of the emperor Gallienus. He wrote a few grammatical pieces, which some have preferred to Herodian's compositions.

**LU'PIA**, *f.* [from *λύπεω*, Gr. to molest.] In surgery, a tumour of the ganglion kind; or, according to Cullen, a wen.

**LUPIAC'**, a town of France, in the department of the Gers: ten miles south-east of Nogaro, and eighteen north-west of Auch.

**LU'PIÆ**, in ancient geography, a town and colony of Italy, in Messapia, supposed to have been near the scite of the modern Lecce, twenty-four miles south-east of Brundisium; but in that vicinity no vestige of antiquity remains.

**LUPIAS**, or **LU'PIA**, now *Lippe*, a town of Germany, with a small river of the same name, falling into the Rhine. See **LIPPE**, vol. xii. p. 772.

**LUPINAS'TER**, *f.* in botany. See **TRIFOLIUM lupinaster**.

**LUPINE**, *f.* The common name of a species of wild pea, cultivated principally for being turned in as a manure.—When Protagenes would undertake any excellent piece, he used to diet himself with pease and *lupines*, that his invention might be quick and refined. *Peacham on Drawing*.

Where stalks of *lupines* grow,  
The ensuing season, in return, may bear  
The bearded product of the golden year.

*Dryden.*

This plant requires but little trouble or labour in its cultivation, as it will thrive in any soil, except the bad chalky, and such as are very wet. It will even grow well upon poor hungry worn-out land, especially if it be dry and sandy. When sown in February or March, after a single very shallow ploughing, and slightly harrowed in, it will blossom two or three times between May and August, and prove an excellent enricher of the ground, when ploughed in just after its second blooming. The best time for mowing this sort of crop, is after a shower of rain, as the seeds drop easily out of the pods when they are gathered too dry. They must, however, be laid up very dry, or worms soon breed in them. They are inferior to many other plants for the above use.

**LUPINUS**, *f.* [so called by Pliny and other ancient writers. Professor Martyn says that the word owes its origin to *lupus*, a wolf, because plants of this genus ravage the ground, by over-running it, after the manner of that animal: it is also said to be derived from *λύπη*, grief, whence Virgil's epithet, *tristes lupini*, from the fanciful

idea of its acrid juices when tasted producing a sorrowful appearance in the countenance. Both these ideas are awedly taken from Vossius.] **LUPINE**; in botany, a genus of the class diadelphia, order decandria, natural order of papilionaceæ or leguminosæ. The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium one-leaved, bifid. Corolla: papilionaceous; banner cordate-roundish, emarginate, bent back at the sides, compressed; wings subovate, almost the length of the banner, not fastened to the keel, converging below; keel two-parted at the base, sickle-shaped upwards, acuminate, entire, the length of the wings, narrower. Stamina: filaments ten, united, somewhat ascending, distinct above; anthers five, roundish, and as many oblong. Pistillum: germ awl-shaped, compressed, villose; style awl-shaped, ascending; stigma terminating, blunt. Pericarpium: legume large, oblong, coriaceous, compressed, acuminate, one-celled. Seeds: several, roundish, compressed.—*Essential Character*. Calyx two-lipped; anthers five oblong, five roundish; legume coriaceous.

These are mostly herbaceous annual plants. The leaves digitate, with stipules at the base of the petiole. Flowers in terminating spikes, either placed alternately, or in a sort of whorl; some naked, others bracted. The first species is perennial; the ninth shrubby. The leaves are simple in the eighth, ternate in the ninth and tenth species. The flowers are white in the second sort, flesh-coloured in the fifth; yellow in the seventh, eighth, and ninth; in the rest blue.

*Species*. 1. *Lupinus perennis*, or perennial lupine: calyxes alternate, without appendices, upper lip emarginate, lower entire. This has a perennial creeping root, from which arise several erect channelled stalks a foot and a half high, sending out two or three small side-branches, garnished with digitate leaves, composed of from five to ten or eleven narrow spear-shaped leaflets, which join at their base, and stand upon very long foot-stalks, having a few hairs on their edges. The flowers grow in long loose spikes, which terminate the stalks, and are placed without order on each side; they are of a pale blue colour, and on short peduncles. These appear in June, and the seeds ripen in August, which are soon scattered if they are not gathered when ripe; for, after a little moisture, the sun causes the pods to open with elasticity, and cast out the seeds to a distance all around. Linnæus says that the leaves consist of eight lanceolate blunt smooth leaflets; and that the flowers are placed alternately in very long racemes, commonly two together from one point, each on its proper pedicel. According to Miller, the number of leaflets varies much, and the flowers are either in pairs, or else three or four from the same joint. It is a native of Virginia, and other parts of North America; and was cultivated in the botanic garden at Oxford in 1658. Kalm informs us that perennial lupine is abundant in the woods in New Jersey; and that he has often found it thriving on very poor sandy fields, and on heaths, where no other plants would grow. The flowers, which commonly appear there in the middle of May, make a fine show by their purple hue. He was told that the cattle would eat these flowers very greedily; but found that they were not fond of this plant when they had any thing else. Horses, indeed, ate the flowers, but left the stalk and leaves; and, if cattle ate the plant in the spring, it was from necessity. However, he is of opinion that it might be tried on dry sandy heaths, and that means may be found to make it palatable to cattle.

2. *Lupinus albus*, or white lupine: calyxes alternate, without appendices, upper lip entire, lower three-toothed. This has a thick upright stalk, about two feet high, dividing towards the top into several smaller hairy branches. Leaves digitate, composed of seven or eight narrow oblong leaflets, joining at the base; they are hairy, of a dark greyish colour, and have a silvery down. The flowers are produced in loose spikes at the end of the branches; they are white and sessile. Legumes straight, hairy, about three inches long, containing five or six seeds, which are



roundish, flattened like a lens, extremely smooth and even, perfectly white, without any spots, smaller than most of the others. The umbilicus, or navel, has a prominent ring. It flowers in July, and the seeds ripen in the autumn. It grows naturally in the Levant; and is cultivated in some parts of Italy, as other pulse, for food; also in the south of France, in poor dry extensive plains, as a meliorating crop, to be ploughed in, where no manure is to be had, and the ground is too barren for clover or other better plants. With us it is used only among other annuals in the flower-garden, and was thus cultivated by Gerard in 1596. He says, it is named in English, garden or tame lupine; and of some, after the German name, *figbeane*. Ray, who has described this plant very well, remarks that the leaves, which are not unaptly named *digitate* by Jungius, have the sides contracted at night, and hang down, being bent back to the petiole. This was a phenomenon before the time of Linnæus very little attended to. He also observed the cultivation of the lupine in Tuscany, not only for food, but for improving the land by ploughing it in; a practice continued from the time of the ancient Romans, as may be seen by consulting Pliny and Columella.

3. *Lupinus varius*, or small blue lupine: calyxes half-whorled, appendicled, upper lip bifid, lower slightly three-toothed. This is an annual plant, with a firm straight channelled stalk, near three feet high, divided towards the top into several branches. Leaves digitate, composed of five, six, or seven, oblong or linear leaflets, which join at their base, and are hairy. The flowers are produced in spikes at the end of the branches, standing round the stalk in half-whorls; they are of a light-blue colour. Legumes ovate, thick, flattened a little, villose, swelling where the seeds are, in a manner four-celled; partitions cellular-membranaceous, becoming obsolete, or wearing out when ripe. Seeds solitary, (two, or seldom more, in all,) large, irregularly round, beaked above the navel by a short knob, flattish on both sides, marked in the middle with a broad ferruginous spot; from which circumstance, we presume, and not from the corolla, Linnæus derived the trivial name. Linnæus, indeed, says the corolla is red; John Bauhin that it is purple; Rivinius that it is blue or red; with us it is blue. Native of the south of France, Spain, Italy, and Sicily. It flowers in July, and was cultivated by Gerard in 1596.

4. *Lupinus hirsutus*, or great blue lupine: calyxes alternate, appendicled, upper lip two-parted, lower three-toothed. This is an annual plant, which rises with a strong firm channelled stalk from three to four feet high, covered with a soft brownish down, dividing upward into several strong branches, garnished with digitate leaves, composed of nine, ten, or eleven, wedge-shaped hairy leaflets, which are narrow at their base where they join the foot-stalk, but enlarge upward, and are rounded at the top, where they are broadest; the foot-stalks of the leaves are three or four inches long. The flowers are placed in whorls round the stalks above each other, forming a loose spike, which proceeds from the end of the branches; they are large, and of a beautiful blue colour, but have no scent. They appear in July, and the seeds ripen in autumn. The pods are large, almost an inch broad, and three inches long; inclosing three large roundish seeds, compressed on their sides, very rough, of a purplish brown colour. In its wild state this plant has quinate leaves, on long petioles: the leaflets are spatulate; the flowers blue; the legumes, and the whole plant, clothed with long close ferruginous hairs. The flowers are often lateral. The native place of this species is given very differently: by Linnæus, Arabia, the islands of the Archipelago, and Spain; Miller says it is supposed to be a native of India; Parkinson reports, that it is thought to come from beyond Persia, in Caramania; in the Kew Catalogue it is assigned to the south of Europe and the Levant. It was cultivated here in 1629.

There is a variety with flesh-coloured flowers, com-

monly called *rose-lupine*. It differs only in the colour of the flower; but that difference is permanent.

5. *Lupinus pilosus*, or rose-lupine: calyxes in whorls, appendicled; upper lip two-parted, lower entire. This has the stature of the preceding. It is a hairy plant. The corollas are a pale flesh-colour, with the middle of the banner red. Leaves lanceolate, bluntish. Native of the south of Europe; and flowers in July and August.

6. *Lupinus angustifolius*, or narrow-leaved blue lupine: calyxes alternate, appendicled; upper lip two-parted, lower entire. This has much the appearance of the third species; but the stalks rise higher, being eighteen inches high, and as tall as the white or cultivated lupine. Leaflets narrow, commonly nine, blunter at the end than in the other sorts, so as to have the appearance of being truncate. Native of Spain and Sicily. Ray informs us, that the seeds were sent to him from Cadiz; it is probable, therefore, that he cultivated it before 1686.

7. *Lupinus luteus*, or yellow lupine: calyxes in whorls, appendicled; upper lip two-parted, lower three-toothed. Stem from a foot to eighteen inches high, branching. Leaves digitate, composed of seven, eight, or nine, narrow hairy leaflets, near two inches long; petioles three inches long. Flowers yellow, odorous, in loose spikes at the end of the branches, composed of six or seven whorls, with spaces between them, and about five flowers in each, terminated by three or four flowers, sitting close at the top; these are succeeded by ovate flattish hairy pods, about two inches long, standing erect, and inclosing three, four, or five, roundish seeds, a little compressed, yellowish white, variegated with dark spots. Native of Sicily and Silesia; flowering in June and July. Cultivated by Gerard in 1596.

8. *Lupinus Cochinchinensis*, or single-leaved lupine: calyxes appendicled, in spikes; upper lip bifid, lower three-toothed; leaves simple, oval. Stem herbaceous, annual, roundish, upright, striated, two feet high, with ascending branches. Leaves emarginate, smooth, whitish, alternate; flowers yellow. Native of Cochinchina and Bengal.

9. *Lupinus Africanus*, or African lupine: calyxes appendicled, five-cleft; peduncles many-flowered, terminating; leaves ternate, lanceolate; stem shrubby, diffused, three feet high, with diffused branches; leaves smooth, on alternate petioles; flowers yellow. Native of the eastern coast of Africa.

10. *Lupinus trifoliatus*, or three-leaved lupine: calyxes five-toothed; legumes in spikes, upright; leaves ternate, ovate; stem herbaceous. Stem simple, a foot high, angular, somewhat rugged at the angles. Leaves alternate, crenate-toothed, glaucous beneath, somewhat rugged at the nerves, two opposite subsessile, the third petioled; the petiole an inch and a half long, blunt beneath, channelled above, running down the stem, which it marks with grooves. Flowers blue, in short axillary spikes. Native of Mexico; cultivated in the royal garden at Madrid before 1791; flowers there in July.

*Propagation and Culture.* These plants are cultivated for ornament in the borders of the flower-garden, and are sown in patches with other annuals in the spring, where they are to remain; thinning them where they are too close, and keeping them clean from weeds. To have a succession of flowers, the seeds may be sown at different times, viz. in April, May, and June; but the seeds of those only which are first sown will ripen. The first sort only is perennial. This, however, is propagated by seeds as the former, which should be sown where the plants are to remain; for, although the root is perennial, yet it runs so deep into the ground, that it cannot be taken up entire; and, if the root is cut or broken, the plant seldom thrives well afterwards. Some of the roots of this plant have been three feet deep in the ground in one year from seed, and spread out as far on every side, so that they must have room; therefore the young plants should not be left nearer than three feet asunder. If this plant is in a light dry soil, the roots will continue several years, and produce



duce many spikes of flowers; and, although the usual season of flowering is in June and July, yet when rain falls in August fresh stalks arise from the roots, which flower at the end of September, or beginning of October. The seeds of the second sort were formerly used in medicine; and are sometimes eaten in Italy, but they are bitter, and are accounted hard of digestion. All the sorts of lupine make a pretty appearance when they are in flower; but the yellow sort is preferred for its sweetness, though the flowers are of short duration, especially in warm weather; therefore the seeds should be sown at several times, that there may be a succession of flowers through the season; for they will continue flowering till they are stopped by hard frost; and those which come in the autumn to flower will continue in beauty a longer time than the early ones. If some of the seeds are sown in the autumn on a warm border, the plants will often live through the winter, and flower early in the spring.

LUPPO, a town of Hinder Pomerania, on a river of the same name: fifteen miles east of Stolpe.

LUPOGLA'VO, a town of Iliria: twelve miles west of St. Veit, and twenty-two south-east of Trieste.

LUPO'GLA, a mountain of Bosnia: twelve miles east of Zwoornick.

LUPO'W, a town of Pomerania, on a river of the same name: twenty-eight miles east-north-east of Polow, and sixteen north of Butow.

LUPPIAT, Upper and Nether, villages near Stroud in Gloucestershire.

LUP'PIT, or LOVEPIT, a village in Devonshire, on the river that comes from Up-Ottery.

LUP'PURG, a town of Bavaria, in the principality of Neuburg: sixteen miles north-west of Ratibon, and ten north-east of Dietfurt.

LUP'TE, or HO'HEN LUPTE, a town of Germany, in the principality of Anhalt Zerbst: three miles west of Zerbst.

LUP'TON, a village in Devonshire, in the parish of Brixham.—A village in Westmoreland, near Kirkby Lonsdale.

LUPULO SIM'ILIS. See URTICA.

LUPU'LUS, *f.* in botany, the diminutive of *lupus*, a wolf, a name applied by the older botanists to the hop, because, as the wolf preys upon other animals, so this plant, by immoderately impoverishing the soil in which it grows, starves its vegetable neighbours. Such at least is the explanation of Ambrosinus. See DALECAMPIA, GONANIA, and HUMULUS.

LUP'US, the WOLF, in astronomy, a southern constellation joined to the Centaur, whose stars in Ptolemy's Catalogue are nineteen; in the Britannic Catalogue, with Sharp's Appendix, twenty-four.

LUPUS (Servatus), a French abbot, celebrated for his learning, eloquence, and piety, was descended from a considerable family in the diocese of Sens, and born about the commencement of the ninth century. After having received a learned education, he embraced the ecclesiastical life in the abbey of Ferrieres, under Alaric or Aldric, who was then abbot, and afterwards archbishop of Sens. About the year 828 he went from his monastery to the abbey of Fulda in Germany, where he studied the Scriptures under the celebrated Rabanus: and returned to France in the year 836, with a high reputation for his proficiency in scriptural knowledge. In the year 842, he was fixed upon by Charles the Bald to supersede Odo in the abbacy of Ferrieres, whom that prince was determined to deprive of his monastery, on account of his having embraced the party of Lotharius. In the year 844, Lupus assisted at the council of Verneuil, and was selected to draw up the canons of the council. He also assisted at other assemblies of the French bishops, particularly at the council of Soissons, in 853. Some time before the year 855, he was sent ambassador from Charles the Bald to pope Leo IV. and that prince afterwards gave him a commission jointly with the celebrated Prudentius, to reform

all the monasteries in France. These two illustrious characters were zealous defenders of St. Augustine's doctrine of Grace. The time of his death is uncertain; but he was living at the close of the year 861, and maintained a high reputation, not only for his extensive acquaintance with profane and general literature, but for his knowledge of the doctrine and discipline of the church, of the writings of the Latin fathers, and his extraordinary sanctity of manners. A collection has been made of 130 of his Letters, upon different subjects, relating to difficulties in grammar, civil and ecclesiastical affairs, points of doctrine, discipline, and morals; which are written with solidity, correctness, and elegance, and throw considerable light on the history of the period in which he lived. There are also still extant, by Lupus, 2. A Book of the three Questions, relating to free will, predestination, and the redemption by the blood of Christ; written against Godeschale. 3. The Life of St. Wigbert, Abbot of Fritzlar. 4. The Life of St. Maximin, Bishop of Treves, published by Busæus in 1602. In 1664, M. Baluze printed a neat edition of all the works of Lupus, in 8vo. enriched with learned and curious notes, and some additional fragments. *Cave's Hist. Litt.*

LUPUS (Christian), vernacularly *Wolf*, a learned Flemish monk of the order of St. Augustine, was born at Ypres in the year 1612, and embraced the religious life at the age of fifteen. As soon as he had completed his course of divinity at Louvain, he was sent to teach philosophy at Cologne; and in the year 1655, he was one of the deputies sent to Rome by the university of Louvain, to negotiate some matters of moment with the papal court, and obtained the object of his mission. Soon after his return home, he was appointed professor of divinity at Louvain, where he devoted almost fifteen hours a-day to the studies appropriate to his department, and was distinguished by extraordinary success. Afterwards he filled the first posts belonging to his order in that province. As a reward of his merits, pope Clement IX. was desirous of creating him a bishop, and appointing him sacristan of the Roman church; but his love of study and repose induced him to decline both these dignities. From pope Innocent XI. and the grand duke of Tuscany he also received marks of esteem, and the latter in vain repeatedly offered him a considerable pension, that he might attach him to his court. He died in 1681, when he was about seventy years of age, after having published a number of works, in Latin, replete with erudition. They consist of, 1. Commentaries on the History and on the Canons of Councils, both general and particular, 5 vols. 4to. 1665-1673. 2. A Treatise on Appeals to the Holy See, 4to. in which he is the advocate for the most blind submission to the papal authority. 3. A Collection of Letters and Monuments, relating to the Councils of Ephesus and Chalcedon, in 2 vols. 4to. 4. A Collection of the Letters of St. Thomas of Canterbury, with his life prefixed. 5. A Commentary on the Rescriptions of Tertullian. 6. A Treatise on Contrition, 12mo. and a vast number of Disputations, &c.

LUR'A, a town of South America, in the province of St. Martha, on the Madalena: eight miles south of Teneriffe.

LUR'A, *f.* [Latin.] The mouth of a sack; the mouth of a bottle. *Col.*

LUR'BAH, a town of Bengal: twenty miles south-west of Doeca. Lat. 22. 41. N. lon. 85. E.

LUR'BOTTLE, a village in Northumberland, south-west of Alnwick.

LURCA'TION, *f.* [from *lurca*, Lat.] Gluttony; the act of devouring with greediness. *Col.*

LURCH, *f.* [derived by Skinner from *fourche*, a game of draughts, much used, as he says, among the Dutch; *ourche* he derives from *arca*, so that those that are lost are left in *lorche*, in the *lurch*, or box.] A forlorn condition; a helpless state.

*To leave in the LURCH.* To leave in a forlorn or deserted condition



condition; to leave without help. *A ludicrous phrase.*—Have a care how you keep company with those that, when they find themselves upon a pinch, will leave their friends in the lurch. *L'Esfrange.*

But, though thou'rt of a different church,  
I will not leave thee in the lurch.

*Hudibras.*

To LURCH, *v. n.* To shift; to play tricks.—I myself, sometimes leaving goodness on my left hand, and hiding mine honour in my necessity, am fain to shuffle, to hedge, and to lurch. *Shakespeare.*—To lie in wait: we now rather use *lurk*.—While the one was upon wing, the other stood *lurching* upon the ground, and flew away with the fish. *L'Esfrange.*

To LURCH, *v. a.* [*lurcor*, Lat.] To devour; to swallow greedily.—Too far off from great cities may hinder business; or too-near *lurcheth* all provisions, and maketh every thing dear. *Bacon.*—To defeat; to disappoint. A word now used only in burlesque; [from the game *lurch*.]—God never designed the use of them to be continual; by putting such an emptiness in them, as should so quickly fail and lurch the expectation. *South.*

He waxed like a sea;  
And, in the brunt of seventeen battles since,  
He *lurcht* all swords o' the' garland.

*Shakespeare.*

To steal privily; to filch; to pilfer.—At cribbage, to get the game on the adversary before he has counted forty-five, in which case he loses a double stake.

LUR'CHER, *f.* One that watches to steal, or to betray or entrap:

His thefts some tradesman spies.  
Swift from his play the scudding *lurcher* flies;  
Whilst ev'ry honest tongue Stop thief refounds.

*Gay.*

A dog that watches for his game.—I cannot represent those worthies more naturally than under the shadow of a pack of dogs, made up of finders, *lurchers*, and setters. *Tatler.*—[*Lurco*, Lat.] A glutton; a gormandizer. *Not used.*

LUR'CHING, *f.* The act of beating the adversary before he has counted forty-five; the act of leaving in a state of embarrassment.

LUR'CY, a town of France, in the department of the Allier: seven miles east-north-east of Dunjon.

LUR'CY LE'VY, a town of France, in the department of the Allier: nine miles north-north-east of Cerilly, and nine north-north-west of Bourbon l'Archambault.

LUR'DANE. See LORDANE.

LURE, *f.* [from *allure*.] Any enticement; any thing that promises advantage.—A great estate to an heir, is a *lure* to all the birds of prey round about to seize on him. *Bacon.*

How many have with a smile made small account  
Of beauty and her lures, easily scorn'd  
All her assaults, on worthier things intent?

*Milton.*

In falconry, a piece of red leather cut in form of a bird, with two wings fluck with feathers, and sometimes baited with a piece of flesh; wherewith to reclaim, or call back, a hawk. The word comes from the French *leurre*, which signifies the same; formed, according to Skinner, from the Anglo-Saxon, *leura*, traitor; or, according to Tripan, from *leora*, craftiness.—This *lure* she cast abroad, thinking that this fame and belief would draw, at one time or other, some birds to strike upon it. *Bacon's Henry VII.*

My falcon now is sharp and passing empty,  
And, till she stoop, he must not be full gorg'd,  
For then she never looks upon her *lure*.

*Shakespeare.*

To LURE, *v. n.* To call hawks.—Standing near one that *lured* loud and shrill, I had suddenly an offence, as if somewhat had broken, or been dislocated, in my ear; and immediately after a loud ringing. *Bacon.*

To LURE, *v. a.* To attract; to entice; to draw.—A man spent one day in labour, that he might pass the other at ease; and, *lured* on by the pleasure of this bait, when he was in vigour he would provide for as many days as he could. *Temple.*

Would you *lure*

From his dark haunt, beneath the tangled roots  
Of pendant trees, the monarch of the brook,  
Behoves you then to ply your finest art.

*Thomson.*

LURE, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Upper Saône, near the Ougnon: three posts north-east of Vesoul, and 5½ south-east of Paris. Lat. 47. 41. N. lon. 6. 34. E.

LURE, a town of France, in the department of the Allier: eighteen miles north-west of Moulins.

LUR'GAN, a town of Ireland, in the county of Armagh, on the borders of Down. Here is a very large weekly market for cambrics and Irish cloth, manufactured in the neighbourhood, to the amount, it is said, of 270,000l. a year. It is fourteen miles north-east of Armagh, and sixty-eight north of Antrim.

LUR'GAN, a township of America, in Franklin county, Pennsylvania; containing 758 inhabitants.

LUR'GAN GREE'N, a small post-town of the county of Louth, Ireland, pleasantly situated on Dundalk-bay. It is on the great northern road, thirty-seven miles north from Dublin.

LUR'GERSHALL, a village near Blackdown Beacon in Suffex.

LUR'GERSHALL, in Wiltshire. See LUGGERSHALL, p. 762.

LUR'RID, *adj.* [*luridus*, Lat.] Gloomy; dismal. *Not used.*

Slow settling o'er the *lurid* grove,  
Unusual darkness broods.

*Thomson's Summer.*

LUR'RIDÆ, *f.* [from *luridus*, Lat. pale, livid, or ghastly, alluding to the livid and bluish aspect frequent in the tribe of plants thus denominated, which seems to announce their deadly effects on animal life.] In botany, the 28th natural order among the *Fragmenta* of Linnæus. See the article BOTANY, vol. iii. p. 296. The true *lurida* have commonly a fetid herbage, though sometimes a sweet-smelling flower. They act powerfully upon the nerves, in whatever manner they are taken inwardly; and prove, under careful management, in some cases, very valuable medicines, though naturally violent poisons.

LURIGAN'CHE, a town of Peru, in the jurisdiction of Lima.

LUR'IN, a town of Peru, in the jurisdiction of Lima.

LUR'ING, *f.* The act of enticing.

To LURK, *v. n.* [probably *lurch* and *lurk* are the same word.]—To lie in wait; to lie hidden; to lie close.—Milbrook *lurketh* between two hills, a village of some eighty houses, and borrowing his name from a mill and little brook running therethrough. *Carew's Survey of Cornwall.*

The wife, when danger or dishonour *lurks*,  
Safest and seemliest by her husband stays.

*Milton.*

LUR'KER, *f.* A thief that lies in wait.

LURKIAN, a town of Persia, in the province of Chulistan: fifty miles north of Sulter, and 155 west of Isfahan.

LUR'KING, *f.* The act of lying in wait.

LUR'KING-PLACE, *f.* Hiding-place; secret place.—Take knowledge of all the *lurking-places* where he hideth himself. 1 *Sam.* xxiii. 23.

LURS, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Alps: four miles north-east of Forcalquier, and fifteen south-west of Digne.

LUR'RY, a town of France, in the department of the Cher, situated on the river Amon: five miles south of Vierzon, and thirteen west of Bourges.

LUR'RY, or LURI, a town of the island of Corsica, thirteen miles north of Bastia.



LUS, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Pyrenees: three miles south-west of Barège, and nine south of Argellez.

LUS LA CROIX HAUTE, a town of France, in the department of the Drôme: fifteen miles east-south-east of Die.

LUSATIA, a country and marquisate of Saxony, bounded on the north by the Mark of Brandenburg, on the east by Silesia, on the south by Bohemia, and on the west by Saxony. It is about eighty-four miles long, and forty-five wide, and is divided into Upper and Lower. Upper Lusatia abounds more in mountains and hills, and enjoys a purer air than the Lower, in which are many boggy and moorish tracts. The latter, on the contrary, has a great number of woods, and those finer ones than are to be met with in the first, the fat tracts of which generally feel a great scarcity of timber; with which the others, notwithstanding, are sufficiently provided. Peat and turf are found in different parts. The mountainous tracts of Upper Lusatia are poor, and little adapted to agriculture, but abound in game. The champaign consists partly of a meagre land, and partly of a flat and very profitable marsh land, the latter of which is met with in the centre of Upper Lusatia. In Lower Lusatia are both heathy and fertile tracts. In each of these marquisates, rye, wheat, barley, and oats, are cultivated, as also much buck-wheat, together with pease, lentils, beans, and millet. In it likewise we find what is usually called *mannä*. The culture of flax here is pretty good. With respect to orchard and garden fruits, as also to the culture of hops, tobacco, and wine, Lower Lusatia has greatly the preference to the Upper. They make likewise some white and red wine. The products of this country, however, do not sufficiently answer the necessities of the inhabitants; corn, fruit, hops, garden-stuff, and wine, being imported into the Lusatias. The breeding of cattle is very considerable, and the rivers, lakes, and ponds, yield divers sorts of good fish. Here and there we find pipe-makers' clay, and stone quarries. On some of the mountains diamonds are dug, which resemble the Bohemian; and in the tracts near Lauban we sometimes meet with agates and jaspers. In several places a pretty good iron-stone is found and worked. The medicinal springs are not inconsiderable. The principal rivers are the Spree, the Black Elster, and the Pulsnitz. In Upper Lusatia are reckoned six towns, which are called, by way of eminence, *the Towns*, or the Six Towns, sixteen smaller country towns, and four market towns; but in the Lower only four towns which appear at the land-diets, together with thirteen country towns, and two market towns.

The most ancient inhabitants of this country, of whom we have any certain knowledge, were the Semnonnes or Senones, who gave place to the Wandalers, and these again in the seventh century to the Sorber-Wends, who were a Slavonian people. In the twelfth century, also, some new inhabitants from the Low Countries and the Rhine arrived in these parts. Even to this day, the towns are almost wholly peopled with German inhabitants; but in the villages a greater number of Wends than Germans is to be met with. Some small sparks of the Christian doctrine were for the first time made known to the Wends here in the seventh century. Luther's doctrine, so early as the year 1521, found acceptance among them, as well in the Upper as in the Lower Lusatia; which doctrine so spread itself by degrees, that the protestant became the prevailing church there, as it continues even to this day. In the year 1750, a royal mandate was addressed to count Gersdorf, at that time superintendent of Budiszin, purporting that the fraternal community of Hernhutters, in Upper Lusatia, should be indulged and protected in quality of faithful subjects. By the purchase too and possession of several noble estates, as Hernhuth, Bertholdorf, Hennerdorf, Nischky, Trabus, &c. they obtained not only civil power, but also the patronage of churches. Without the assistance of manufactures, Lusatia would be

unable to support its inhabitants; but in the numerous and good woollen and linen stuffs, it enjoys an important means of subsistence. These flourish principally in Upper Lusatia. The cloth-manufactures are the oldest, having been in vogue in several towns so early as the thirteenth century. The linen-manufactures here are also important; and the most considerable of these lie in Upper Lusatia. The conduct of the emperors Ferdinand II. and III. as also of Leopold, towards the protestants in Bohemia and Silesia, caused vast numbers of people to retire to Upper Lusatia; who, upon that, erected the several villages which stood on the borders of these countries, being mostly situated in mountains, and for the generality followed the linen-weaving business. From this time, that is, from the year 1623, this country met with a quite different and better reception, for it became more populous and powerful; and to these new inhabitants, whose posterity were so greatly increased, are owing the succeeding inundation of linen manufactures and trade in Upper Lusatia, which happened principally between the years 1660 and 1690. In Lusatia are made all sorts of linen, from unbleached yarn, common and fine, as also fine white damask for table and bed cloths, and white tick. The black and fine dyings also support many hands; and, exclusive of these, there are good manufactures of hats, leather, paper, gunpowder, iron, glass, and wax-bleaching, together with other works of artists and handicrafts-people. By means of these manufactures, and in particular by means of the cloths and linens, a considerable trade is carried on there; which indeed is not at present so great as it was formerly, but still is important, being productive of much advantage to Lusatia, as it exceeds the importation in wool, yarn, and silk, which are employed for their manufactures in foreign silk, and woollen commodities, gold and silver lace-points, &c. in wines, spices, corn, fresh and baked fruits, garden-stuff, and hops. The great trade carried on in linen had its beginning in the year 1684. Upper Lusatia formerly belonged to Bohemia. Lower Lusatia, which alone, till the 15th century, was called *Lusatia*, was first erected into a marquisate in the year 931, by Henry I. king of Germany. In the middle of the 16th century, they were both ceded to the elector of Saxony, in consideration of a large sum of money, which the elector had advanced to the emperor, in his war with the Bohemians, with condition only that the kings of Bohemia should retain the armorial bearings. The fate of this country, as to future ownership, is not (Jan. 1815) absolutely determined; but it is understood, that Saxony will be deprived of it; and that Upper Lusatia will fall to Austria, Lower Lusatia to Prussia.

LUSBY, a village in Lincolnshire, north-west of Spilsby.

LUSCHETZ, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Schlan: eight miles south-west of Prague.

LUSCINIUS (Ottomarus), a Benedictine monk, born at Strasburg, but an inhabitant of Augsburg. He published in 1536 a work, entitled *Musurgia, seu Praxis Musica*, in small oblong 4to. a book chiefly curious and valuable for the representations of such musical instruments as were used in Germany at the time it was written, which, though coarsely cut in wood, are accurately drawn. They are, among keyed-instruments, the virginal, spinnet, and clavicord, all three in the form of a small modern pianoforte; an upright harpsichord; a regal, or portable organ, chiefly composed of reed-stops, and in Roman-catholic countries used in processions; and a large or church organ. Of bowed instruments, we have here only the monochord, rebec, or three-stringed violin, and the viola da gamba. The vielle, lute, harp, and dulcimer; cornet, schalmey, or base clarinet, both played with reeds; flutes of various size; among which is the *zwerchpfeiff*, or, as we call it, the *German flute*; which accounts for its name, as we believe, at this early period, it was unknown to the rest of Europe. There are four other wind-instruments, peculiar to Germany and northern countries, exhibited here; as, first, the *russpfeiff*, or Russian flute; second, the *trumhorn*,



or crooked horn, a kind of shawm, in imitation of which we have a reed-stop in our old organs, called the *cromhorn*, which has by some been imagined to be a corruption of the word *Cremona*; third, *gemfen-horn*, or wild-goat's horn; and, fourth, the *zinke*, or small cornet. After these we have the bag-pipe, trumpet, sackbut, side-drum, kettle-drum, French-horn, bugle-horn, and even the Jews-harp, and clappers.

**LUS'CIOUS**, *adj.* [from *delicious*, say some; but more probably from *luxurious*, corruptly pronounced.] Sweet, so as to nauseate.—Sweet in a great degree.—The food that to him now is as *luscious* as loches, shall shortly be as bitter as *coloquintida*. *Shakespeare*.

Blown roses hold their sweetness to the last,  
And raisins keep their *luscious* native taste. *Dryden*.

Pleasing; delightful.—He will bait him in with the *luscious* proposal of some gainful purpose. *South*.

**LUS'CIOUSLY**, *adv.* Sweet to a great degree.

**LUS'CIOUSNESS**, *f.* Immoderate sweetness.—Can there be a greater indulgence in God, than to embitter sensibilities whose *lusciousness* intoxicates us, and to clip wings which carry us from him? *Decay of Piety*.

**LUSCITION**, *f.* [*luscitio*, Lat.] A disorder of the eyes; a dimness of sight. *Cole*.

**LUSENU'H**, a town of Hindoostan, in Bahar: ten miles north of Chittra.

**LUSH**, *adj.* Of a dark deep full colour, opposite to pale and faint; from *loushe*. *Hanmer*.—How *lush* and lusty the grass looks! how green! *Shakespeare*.

**LUSH'BURG**, or **LUXENBURGH**, *f.* A base sort of foreign coin, made of the likeness of English money, and brought into England in the reign of king Edward III. to deceive the king and his people; on account of which, it was made treason for any one wittingly to bring any such money into the realm, knowing it to be false. 25 Edward III. *stat.* 5, c. 2.

**LUSH'COMB**, a village in the parish of Rattery, Devon.

**LU'SIGNAN**, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Vienne. In 1346, this town was taken by the duke of Lancaster; in 1572, it was seized by the Huguenots; and the year following taken by the Catholics, under the duke de Montpensier. It is three and half poits south-west of Poitiers, and ninety-three and half fourth-west of Paris. Lat. 46. 26. N. lon. 0. 14. E.

**LU'SIGNY**, a town of France, in the department of the Aube, and chief place of a canton, in the district of Troyes. The place contains 1155, and the canton 7225, inhabitants, on a territory of 180 kilometres, in 14 communes.

**LUSION**, *f.* [from the Lat. *ludo*, to play.] A play; a pastime. *Bailey*.

**LUSIPARA**. See **LUCIPARA**, p. 746.

**LUSITANIA**, [from *luz*; an almond, and *tani*, a fig, on account of its productions; or from *los*, a tail or end, *tan*, land, and *ia*, country, on account of its situation; q. d. Land's-End Territory.] In ancient geography, one of the divisions of Spain, extending to the north of the Tagus, quite to the sea of Cantabria, at least to the Promontorium Celticum. But Augustus, by a new regulation, made the Anas its boundary to the south, the Durus to the north; and thus constituting only a part of the modern Portugal. The inhabitants were warlike, and were conquered by the Roman army under Dolabella, B.C. 99, with great difficulty. They generally lived upon plunder, and were rude and unpolished in their manners. It was usual among them to expose their sick in the high roads, that their diseases might be cured by the directions and advice of travellers. They were very moderate in their meals, and never ate but of one dish. Their clothes were commonly black; and they generally warmed themselves by means of stones heated in the fire. *Strabo*.

**LU'SITZ**, or **MUN'CHBACH**, a river of Saxony, which passes through the town of Freyberg.

**LUSK**, a village of Ireland, in the county of Dublin. Here was an abbey founded in the earliest ages of Christianity, which in 1135, together with the town, was burned down by Donald M'Murragh O'Melaghtlin, for the murder of his brother Connor prince of Meath. The church is a very curious and uncommon structure: it consists of two long aisles, divided by a range of seven arches: the east end is the parish-church; at the west end, is a handsome square steeple, three angles of which are supported by round towers; and near to the fourth angle is an insulated round tower, in good preservation, which rises several feet above the battlements of the steeple. Lusk is twelve miles north of Dublin.

**LUSK**, *adj.* [*lusche*, Fr.] Idle; lazy; worthless.

**LUSK**, *f.* A lazy worthless fellow.—Up, you *lusk*. *Brewer's Lingua*.

**LUS'KISH**, *adj.* Somewhat inclinable to laziness or indolence.

**LUS'KISHLY**, *adv.* Lazily; indolently.

**LUS'KISHNESS**, *f.* A disposition to laziness:

He shooke off *luskishness*; and courage chill

Kindling afresh, gan battell to renew. *Spenser*.

**LU'SO**, a river which rises in the duchy of Urbino, and runs into the Adriatic a little to the north of Rimini; by some supposed to be the ancient Rubicon.

**LUSO'RIOUS**, *adj.* [*lusorius*, Lat.] Used in play; sportive.—Things more open to exception, yet unjustly condemned as unlawful; such as the *lusorious* lots, dancing, and stage-plays. *Bishop Sanderfon*.

**LUS'ORY**, *adj.* [*lusorius*, Lat.] Used to play.—There might be many entertaining contrivances for the instruction of children in geometry and geography, in such alluring and *lusory* methods, which would make a most agreeable and lasting impression. *Watts on the Mind*.

**LUS'PA**, a town of Sweden, in East Bothnia: twenty-eight miles east of Christinestadt.

**LUSS**, a village of Scotland, in the county of Dumbarton, on the west coast of Loch Lomond: thirteen miles north-north-west of Dumbarton.

In the immediate vicinity of this village, Rosedoe, the mansion-house of sir James Colquhoun of Luss, is placed on a rich peninsula, projecting so far into the lake as to appear insulated. The ground is finely wooded; and a tower of the ancient castle, or habitation of the family, forms an excellent contrast to the modern house. Some very bold and rugged mountains compose the back ground of this charming scenery. Between Luss and Tarbet the road diminishes in breadth very rapidly. Passing the water of Uglas, which discharges itself into the lake, it ascends a lofty promontory, projecting considerably in the lake, which is called the Point of Firkin. The ascent to the summit of this eminence is abrupt, difficult, and tedious; but the view which displays itself from it amply repays the admirer of nature for the labour attending it. Nearly opposite to this point Benlomond rears his lofty head on the eastern side.

**LUSSAC'**, a town of France, in the department of the Gironde: six miles east-north-east of Libourne.

**LUSSAC LES CHATEAU'X**, a town of France, in the department of the Vienne: eighteen miles south-east of Poitiers, and six west of Moutmorillon. Lat. 46. 25. N. lon. 0. 48. E.

**LUSSAC LES EGLI'SES**, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Vienne: thirty-three miles north of Limoges.

**LUSSAN'**, a town of France, in the department of the Gard; nine miles north of Uzès.

**LUSSAN** (Margaret de), a copious French novelist, was born at Paris in 1682. Her parents were a celebrated fortune-teller named Fleury, and a coachman; but she received an education beyond what might be expected from her birth. It is said that the learned Huet, becoming acquainted with the vivacity of her parts, encouraged her to write romances. She likewise derived great advantage



in the formation of her taste from her connexion with la Serre de Langlade, an unfortunate author, but a good critic. With him she always lived upon the most intimate terms, and he was supposed to be married to her; but, although her sentiments for him are said to have passed the bounds of friendship, it does not appear that the flame was mutual. Indeed her charms were exclusively mental; for she is described as being excessively brown, with a cast in her eye, and in voice and air totally unfeminine. Her soul, however, was of an amiable mould: she was generous, feeling, humane, constant in friendship, and, though subject to anger, yet free from malignity. She delighted to perform good actions, was gay and lively, and had virtues which more than compensated her weaknesses. Among the latter was an immoderate attachment to the pleasures of the table, which at length brought on an indigestion that proved fatal to her, but not until she had attained to the ripe age of seventy-five. The titles of her works are, 1. L'Histoire de la Comtesse de Gondés. 2. Anecdotes de la Cour de Philippe Auguste. 3. Memoires Secrets et Intrigues de la Cour de France sous Charles VIII. 4. Marie d'Angleterre. 5. Annales de la Cour de Henri II. 6. La Vie du brave Crillon. From this list it will appear that she was a proficient in that kind of fiction which has real characters and events for its basis; a favourite species of writing with French authors in particular, who are too apt in more serious works to confound truth and falsehood. Her reputation rose so high at one time, that her name was borrowed for some works not her own. *Nov. Dict. Hist.*

LUSS'EMEN, a town of Prussia, in the province of Ermeland: eighteen miles east-south-east of Heilsberg.

LUSS'I, a country of Africa, situated on the borders of a large lake to the south of Begarmee. It is otherwise called Fittre or Fiddy, and Cauga or Cougu. It is governed by a sultan; and the dominions were once much larger than they now are, being considerably diminished by the sultans of Begarmee and Wadey. The inhabitants live in small huts, and are said to be in a low degree of civilization. They have no salt except what they procure from the ashes of gossab. The lake is situated 210 miles south of Bornou. Lat. 15. 50. N. Lon. 22. 30. E.

LUSS'IN. See LOSSIN, p. 674.

LUSSINGE, a town of France, in the department of Mont Blanc: three miles west-north-west of Bonne.

LUST, *f.* [Saxon.] Carnal desire.—When a temptation of *lust* assaults thee, do not resist it by disputing with it, but fly from it; that is, think not at all of it. *Taylor's Holy Living.*

This our court, infected with their manners,  
Shows like a riotous inn; epicurism and *lust*  
Make it more like a tavern or a brothel

Than a grac'd palace. *Shakespeare's King Lear.*

Any violent or irregular desire.—The ungodly, for his own *lust*, doth persecute the poor: let them be taken in the crafty wiliness they imagined. *Psalms.*

All weigh our acts, and whate'er seems unjust,  
Impute not to necessity, but *lust.* *Dryden.*

It is also a sea-phrase: thus, if a ship heel either to the starboard or port, the seamen say she has a *lust* that way; and they say so though it be occasioned only by the shooting of her ballast, or by the unequal stowing of things in the hold; though it is more properly said of a ship, when she is inclined to heel any way upon account of her mould or make. *Chambers.*—Vigour; active power; lustiness. *Not used.*—Trees will grow greater, and bear better fruit, if you put salt, or lees of wine, or blood, to the root; the cause may be, the increasing the *lust* or spirit of the root. *Bacon.*

LUST, Graves of; in Hebrew, *Kibroth-hattaavah*; an encampment of the Hebrews in the wilderness, whither they arrived after having decamped from Sinai. It was so called because 23,000 Israelites died there, who were

smitten by God for murmuring, and eating to excess of those quails which God in his anger had caused to fall upon the camp. See Numb. xi. 34. Deut. ix. 22.

To LUST, *v. n.* To desire carnally:

Inconstant man, that loved all he saw,  
And *lusted* after all that he did love. *Roscommon.*

To desire vehemently.—Giving sometimes prodigally; not because he loved them to whom he gave, but because he *lusted* to give. *Sidney.*—To lift; to like. *Out of use.*—Their eyes swell with fatness; and they do even what they *lust.* *Psal. lxxiii. 7.*—To have irregular dispositions, or desires. —The spirit that dwelleth in us *lusteth* to envy. *James, iv. 5.*

LUST'-DIETED, *adj.* Pampered:

Let the superfluous and *lust-dieted* man,  
That slaves your ordinance, that will not see  
Because he doth not feel, feel your power quickly. *Shakesf.*

LUST'-STAINED, *adj.* Stained by lust.—Thy bed *lust-stain'd* shall with lust's blood be spotted. *Shakesf. Othello.*

LUST'-WEARIED, *adj.* Satiated with lust:

Our stirring  
Can from the lap of Egypt's widow pluck  
The ne'er *lust-wearied* Antony. *Shakespeare.*

LUST'-WORT. See DROSERA.

LUST'ELEIGH, a village in Devonshire, near the river Bovey, not far from Bovey-Tracey.

LUST'ENAU, a town of Germany, in the marggravate of Anspach: five miles south-west of Feuchtwang.

LUST'ENFELDEN, a town of Austria: three miles east of Lintz.

LUST'FUL, *adj.* Libidinous; having irregular desires. —There is no man that is intemperate or *lustful*, but besides the guilt likewise stains and obscures his soul. *Tillotson.*

Turning wrathful fire to *lustful* heat,  
With beastly sin thought her to have desil'd. *Fairy Queen.*  
Provoking to sensuality; inciting to lust.—Thence his *lustful* orgies he enlarg'd. *Milton.*

LUST'FULLY, *adv.* With sensual concupiscence.

LUST'FULNESS, *f.* Libidinousness.

LUST'IHED, or LUSTIHOOD, *f.* [from *lusty.*] Vigour; sprightliness; corporal ability. *Not now in use.*—His May of youth, and bloom of *lustyhood.* *Shakespeare.*

A goodly personage,  
Now in his freshest flower of *lustyhed*,  
Fit to inflame fair lady with love's rage. *Spenser.*

Reason and respect  
Make livers pale, and *lustihood* dejected. *Shakespeare.*

LUSTILY, *adv.* [from *lusty.*] Stoutly; with vigour; with mettle.—Barbarossa took upon him that painful journey, which the old king *lustily* performed. *Knolles.*

Now, gentlemen,  
Let's tune, and to it *lustily* a while. *Shakespeare.*

LUST'INESS, *f.* Stoutness; sturdiness; strength; vigour of body.—Cappadocian slaves were famous for their *lustiness*; and, being in good liking, were set on a stall to shew the good habit of their body, and made to play tricks before the buyers, to shew their activity and strength. *Dryden's Persius.*

Fresh Clarion being ready dight,  
He with good speed began to take his flight  
Over the fields in his frank *lustiness.* *Spenser.*

LUST'ING, *f.* Inordinate desire.

LUST'LESS, *adj.* Not vigorous; weak. Listless:

Nath'lesse at length himselfe he did upreare  
In *lustlesse* wise, as if against his will  
Ere he had slept his fill he waken'd were. *Spenser.*

LUST'TON, a village in Herefordshire, north-west of Leominster.—A village in Somersetshire, two miles from Yeovil.

LUSTRABLE,



**LUSTRABLE**, *adj.* [*lustrō*, Lat. to purify.] Capable of purification.

**LUSTRAL**, *adj.* [*lustrale*, Fr. *lustralis*, Lat.] Used in purification.—From the *lustral* water used by the ancients in their ceremonies to sprinkle and purify the people, the Romanists have borrowed the holy water used in their churches. *Ency. Brit.*

His better parts by *lustral* waves refin'd,  
More pure, and nearer to æthereal mind.

Garth.

**LUSTRAL DAY**, *dies lustricus*, that whereon the lustrations were performed for a child, and its name given; which was usually the ninth day from the birth of a boy, and the eighth from that of a girl: though others performed the ceremony on the last day of that week wherein the child was born, and others on the fifth day from its birth. Over this feast-day the goddesses Nundina was supposed to preside; the midwives, nurses, and domestics, handed the child backwards and forwards, round a fire burning on the altars of the gods, after which they sprinkled it with water; hence this feast had the name of *amphidromia*. The old women mixed saliva and dust with the water. The whole ended with a sumptuous entertainment. The parents received gifts from their friends on this occasion. If the child was a male, their door was decked with an olive garland; if a female, with wool, denoting the work about which women were to be employed. *Potter.*

**LUSTRATION**, *f.* [Fr. from *lustratio*, Lat.] Purification by water.—What were all their *lustrations*, but so many solemn purifyings, to render both themselves and their sacrifices acceptable to their gods? *South.*

By ardent pray'r, and clear *lustration*,  
Purge the contagious spots of human weakness. *Prior.*

**LUSTRATION**, or **EXPIATION**, in antiquity, sacrifices or ceremonies by which the ancients purified their cities, fields, armies, or people, defiled by any crime or impurity. Some of these lustrations were public, others private. There were three species or manners of performing lustration, viz. by fire and sulphur, by water, and by air; which last was done by fanning and agitating the air round the thing to be purified. Some of these lustrations were necessary, i. e. could not be dispensed with; as lustrations of houses in time of a plague, or upon the death of any person: others again were done out of choice, and at pleasure. The public lustrations at Rome were celebrated every fifth year; in which they led a victim thrice round the place to be purified, and in the mean time burnt a great quantity of perfumes. Their country lustrations, which they called *ambarvalia*, (see that word, vol. i.) were celebrated before they began to reap their corn: in those of their armies, which they called *armilustria*, some chosen soldiers, crowned with laurel, led the victims, which were a cow, a sheep, and a bull, thrice round the army, ranged in battle-array in the field of Mars, to which deity the victims were afterwards sacrificed, after pouring out many imprecations upon the enemies of the Romans. The lustrations of their flocks were performed in this manner: the shepherd sprinkled them with pure water, and thrice surrounded his sheepfold with a composition of favin, laurel, and brimstone, set on fire; and afterwards sacrificed to the goddess Pales an offering of milk boiled, wine, a cake, and millet. As for private houses, they were lustrated with water, a fumigation of laurel, juniper, olive-tree, favin, and such-like; and the victim commonly was a pig. Lustrations made for particular persons were commonly called *expiations*, and the victims *piacula*.

All sorts of perfumes, and odoriferous herbs, had place in lustration. The egg was much used among them, as being the symbol of the four elements: its shell, they say, represents the earth; the yolk, a globe of fire; the white, resembles the water; and besides it has a spirit, they say, which represents the air. For this reason it is, that the bonzes, or Indian priests, believe to this day that the world came out of an egg. There is scarcely any pot-herb,

pulse, tree, mineral, or metal, which they did not offer to their gods by way of expiation: nor did they forget milk, bread, wine, and honey; what is more, they made use of the very spittle, and urine.

The poets had feigned, that the gods purified themselves; and they did not omit to purify their statues. When a man who had been falsely reputed dead, returned home, he was not to enter the house by the door. It was a settled custom to offer no expiation for those who were hanged by order of justice, or that were killed by thunder. Neither did they offer any for those who were drowned in the sea; it being the common opinion, that their souls perished with their bodies. And hence it was, that persons in danger of shipwreck sometimes thrust their swords through their bodies, that they might not die in the sea; where they thought their soul, which they supposed to be a flame, would be totally extinguished. The most celebrated expiatory sacrifice was the hecatomb, when they offered a hundred beasts; though they commonly did not offer so many, but contented themselves with killing twenty-five; but, those being quadrupeds, their feet came to a hundred.

The manner of the Macedonians purifying their army by lustration was this: At the time of their festival Xanthica, they divided a bitch into two halves, one of which, together with the entrails, was placed upon the right hand, the other upon the left; between these the army marched in this order: after the arms of the Macedonian kings, came the first line of the army, consisting of horse; these were followed by the king and his children, after whom went the life-guards; then followed the rest of the army: this done, the army was divided into two parts, one of which being set in array against the other, there followed a short encounter in imitation of a fight. *Potter, Archaeol. Græc.*

Lustrations and lustratory sacrifices were not only performed for men, but also for temples, altars, theatres, trees, fountains, rivers, sheep, fields, and villages. Cities were also to be purified, from time to time: some made the victim walk round their walls, and then slew him. The Athenians sacrificed two men, one for the men of their city, and the other for the women. The Corinthians sacrificed the children of Medea so: though the poets say, Medea killed them herself. The Romans performed the ceremony of purifying their city every fifth year; whence the name of *lustrum* was given to the space of five years.

Divers of the expiations were austere: some fasted; others abstained from all sensual pleasures; some, as the priests of Cybele, castrated themselves; others, that they might live chaste, ate rue, or lay under the branches of a shrub called *agnus castus*. They cast into the river, or at least out of the city, the animals or other things that had served for a lustration, or sacrifice of atonement; and thought themselves threatened with some great misfortune, when by chance they trod upon them. At Marseilles they took care to feed a poor man for some time; after which, they charged him with all the sins of the country, and drove him away: those of Leucade fastened a number of birds to a man charged with their sins, and in that condition cast him headlong from a high tower; and, if the birds hindered his being killed, they drove him out of the country. Some of these ceremonies were abolished by the emperor Constantine, and his successors; the rest subsisted till the Gothic kings were masters of Rome, under whom they expired; except that several of them were adopted by the popes, and brought into the church, where they make a figure to this day: witness the numerous consecrations, benedictions, exorcisms, ablutions, sprinklings, processions, feasts, &c. still in use in the Roman church.

The method of lustration, or expiation, among the Jews, was chiefly by sacrifice, whether for sins of ignorance, or to purify themselves from certain pollutions. The feast of expiation, called by our translators the *day of atonement*,



was held on the tenth day of Tisri, or the seventh month of the Jewish year, answering to part of our September and October. It was instituted by God himself; (Levit. xxiii. 27, &c.) On that day the high-priest, the figure or type of Jesus Christ, entered into the most holy place, and confessed his sins; and, after several ceremonies, made an atonement for all the people, to wash them from their sins. And, as the heathens either destroyed or drove away those animals or persons who had served in the lustration, so the Jews set at liberty the *scape-goat* on the day of solemn expiation. For the ceremonies on this occasion, see Levit. xvi. 5, 6, &c. Some say, that a piece of scarlet cloth, in form of a tongue, was tied on the forehead of the *scape-goat*. *Hoff. Lex. Univ. in voc. Lingua.*

Many have been the disputes among the interpreters concerning the meaning of the word *scape goat*; or rather of *azazel*, for which *scape-goat* is put in our version of the Bible. Spencer is of opinion, that *Azazel* is a proper name, signifying the devil, or evil dæmon; and that the genuine reasons of the ceremony were, 1. That the goat, loaded with the sins of the people, and sent to *Azazel*, might be a symbolical representation of the miserable condition of sinners. 2. God sent the goat thus loaded to the evil dæmons, to show that they were impure, thereby to deter the people from any conversation or familiarity with them. 3. That, the goat sent to *Azazel* sufficiently expiating all evils, the Israelites might the more willingly abstain from the expiatory sacrifices of the Gentiles. *Spencer de Leg. Heb. Ritual. Diss. viii.*

**LUSTRE**, *f.* [*lustre*, Fr.] Brightness; splendour; glitter.—Out, vile jelly! where is thy *lustre* now? *Shakespeare's King Lear.*

Pass but some fleeting years, and these poor eyes,  
Where now without a boast some *lustre* lies,  
No longer shall their little honours keep,  
But only be of use to read or weep.

*Prior.*

A sounce with lights:

Ridotta sips, and dances till she see  
The doubling *lustres* dance as quick as she.

*Pope.*

Eminence; renown.—His ancestors continued about four hundred years, rather without obscurity than with any great *lustre*. *Wotton.*—I used to wonder how a man of birth and spirit could endure to be wholly insignificant and obscure in a foreign country, when he might live with *lustre* in his own. *Swift.*

**LUSTRE** is particularly used to denote the gloss or brightness appearing on any thing, particularly on manufactures of silk, wool, or stuff. It is likewise used to denote the composition or manner of giving that gloss. The lustre of silks is given them by washing in soap, then in clear water, and dipping them in alum-water cold. To give stuffs a beautiful lustre: For every eight pounds of stuff allow a quarter of a pound of linseed; boil it half an hour, and then strain it through a cloth, and let it stand till it is turned almost to a jelly; afterwards put an ounce and a half of gum to dissolve twenty-four hours; then mix the liquor, and put the cloth into this mixture; take it out, dry it in the shade, and press it. If once doing is not sufficient, repeat the operation. Curriers give a lustre to black leather first with juice of barberries, then with gum-arabic, ale, vinegar, and Flanders glue, boiled together. For coloured leather, they use the white of an egg beaten in water. Morocoes have their lustre from juice of barberries, and lemon or orange. For hats, the lustre is frequently given with common water; sometimes a little black dye is added: the same lustre serves for furs, except that for very black furs they sometimes prepare a lustre of galls, copperas, Roman alum, ox's marrow, and other ingredients. *Ency. Brit.*

**LUSTRIFICAL**, *adj.* [from *lustrum*, Lat. a purification, and *facio*, to make.] Purifying, expiating. *Cole.*

**LUSTRING**, *f.* [from *lustre*.] A shining silk; commonly pronounced *lutestring*, and sometimes written so.—

Charles Townshend calls the present a *lutestring* ministry. *Chesterfield.*

A company was incorporated for making, dressing, and lustrating, alamodes and lustrings in England, who were to have the sole benefit thereof, by stat. 4 and 5 William and Mary. And no foreign silks known by the name of *lustrings*, or alamodes, are to be imported but at the port of London, &c. 9, 10, William III. c. 43. See **SILK**.

**LUSTROUS**, *adj.* Bright; shining; luminous.—Noble heroes, my sword and yours are kin, good sparks and *lustrous*. *Shakespeare.*—The more *lustrous* the imagination is, it filleth and fixeth the better. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*

**LUSTRUM**, *f.* A term used by the Romans, to signify a space of five years. Varro derives the word from *lucro*, to pay; because at the beginning of every fifth year they paid the census, or tribute imposed by the censors; whose authority, at their first institution, was continued them for five years; though afterwards it was abridged to one. Others rather derive the word from *lustrare*, to make a review; because once in five years the censors reviewed the army.

**LUSTRUM** was also a ceremony, or sacrifice, used by the Romans, after numbering their people, once in five years. See **LUSTRATION**. The census was accompanied always by a lustration of the people, hence the word *lustrum* has constantly been taken by the ancients and moderns for a term of five years; yet, if we enquire into the real state of the case, we shall find no good ground for fixing so precise a signification to it; but, on the contrary, that the census and lustrum were, for the most part, held irregularly and uncertainly, at very different and various intervals of time, as the particular exigencies of the state required. Thus, though the custom was first instituted by Servius Tullius about 180 years after the foundation of Rome, we find the fifth lustrum celebrated at Rome only in the 574th year of that city.

**LUSTY**, *adj.* [*lustig*, Dut.] Stout; vigorous; healthy; able of body:

If *lusty* love should go in quest of beauty,  
Where should he find it fairer than in Blanch? *Shakespeare.*

We yet may see the old man in a morning,  
*Lusty* as health, come ruddy to the field,  
And there pursue the chace.

*Otway.*

Proud; conceited:

Proud of their numbers, and secure in soul,  
The confident and over-*lusty* French

Do the low-rated English play at dice. *Shakespeare.*

**LUSUC**. See **LUCKO**, p. 764.

**LUSUS**, *f.* [Latin.] A sport; a frolic; a natural production out of the common way.

**LUTANGE**, a town of France, in the department of the Moselle: eight miles south-east of Thionville, and eleven north-north-east of Metz.

**LUTANGER**, a small island in the Eastern Indian Sea, near the south coast of Mindanao. Lat. 7. 19. N. lon. 123. 15. E.

**LUTANIST**, *f.* [from *lute*.] One who plays upon the lute.

**LUTARIOUS**, *adj.* [*lutarius*, Lat.] Living in mud.—Of the colour of mud.—A scaly tortoise-shell, of the *lutarius* kind. *Grew.*

**LUTA'YA**, one of the smaller Philippine islands, near the island of Panay.

**LUTE**, *f.* [*luto*, Ital. *lauten*, Germ. to found.] A musical stringed instrument, of which, though the shape or found is now hardly known, yet during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries it was the favourite chamber-instrument of every nation in Europe; and in the beginning of dramatic music the recitatives were accompanied by the arch-lute, or theorbo, instead of the harpsichord. Sir Thomas Wyatt, the elder, one of the best early poets, has left us a sonnet to his lute, written very early in the sixteenth century;



tury; and Congreve, at the end of the seventeenth, has celebrated the performance of Mrs. Arabella Hunt on that instrument. The earliest mention of the lute that we have found among the moderns is in Boccaccio, *Giornata prima*, where the singing is generally said to have been accompanied by the lute. In Chaucer's Pardoner's Tale, we are told:

In Flanders whilom was a compaignie  
Of youngè folke that haunted in folie,  
As hazard, riot, stews and tavernes  
Whereas with harpes, lutes, and guitèrnes  
They daunce and play.

In Shakespear's First Part of Henry IV. Mortimer tells his lady, who can speak no English, that her tongue

Makes Welsh as sweet as ditties highly penn'd,  
Sung by a fair queen in a summer's bower,  
With ravishing division, to her lute.

And in lord-commissioner Whitelocke's manuscript narrative of a masque given in 1633, to Charles I. and his queen, by the four inns of court, he says, that "he engaged forty lutes, besides other instruments, and voyces of the most excellent kind in consort."

There was a lute at the Italian opera in England to the end of Handel's regency; and the place of lutenist in the king's chapel was continued till the death of Gigglier, about the middle of the last century. It seems as if in France there had been a time when there were no other instruments in use than lutes, as *luthier* not only implies the maker of lutes, but violins, violoncellos, and other instruments of the same kind.

The stringed instruments of the ancients were so numerous, and so various in their forms, that we know not the precise difference between the lyre and cithara. The testudo, among poets, not only implies the lyre, said to have been originally made by Mercury of the back or hollow shell of the Testudo aquatica, or sea-tortoise, but music itself.

Vincenzo Galileo (Dial.) says the best lutes were made in England; but those of Bologna are most famous. This instrument consists of four parts, the table, the body or belly, which has nine or ten sides, the neck or finger-board, which has nine or ten frets or divisions marked with catgut or bowel-strings, and the head or cross, where the screws or pins for tightening or relaxing the strings in tuning are fastened. This is called the lute with two necks, or the theorbo, which has sometimes only one string to each note. In the middle of the belly, or table, there is a rose, or passage for the sound. There is also a bridge, to which the strings are fastened; and a piece of ivory between the head and the neck, to which the other extremities of the strings are fitted. In performing on the lute, the strings are struck with the right hand, and pressed upon the frets with the left.

The inhabitants of Congo have a lute of a singular kind. The body and neck of this instrument resemble ours; but the belly, that is, the place where the rose or sound-hole has place in our lutes, is of very thin parchment; which probably implies that the whole table or belly of this instrument is covered with parchment instead of wood. It is strung with the hair of an elephant's tail, the strongest and the best that can be chosen; or else with the bark of the palm-tree. The strings reach from one end of the instrument to the other, and are fastened to rings fixed at different places of the lute one above the other. To these rings are suspended small plates of iron and silver of different sizes and different tones. In thrumming the strings, these rings are put in motion, which likewise move the little metal plates, and the whole forms a kind of murmuring harmony, or rather a confused noise, which is not disagreeable. Indeed, the inhabitants add, that by means of this instrument the musician expresses his thoughts as clearly as if he were speaking.

LUTE, *f.* [*lutum*, Lat. clay.] In chemistry, a composition of certain tenacious substances, wherewith to close

the apertures and junctures of vessels in distillation, &c. See LUTING.

Some temper *lute*, some spacious vessels move;  
These furnaces erect, and those approve.

Garth.

To LUTE, *v. a.* To close with lute, or chemists' clay.—Iron may be so heated, that, being closely luted in a glass, it shall constantly retain the fire. *Wilkins's Math. Magick.*

LU'TE-CASE, *f.* A case for a lute.—Bardolph stole a lute-case, bore it twelve leagues, and sold it for three halfpence. *Shakesp. Hen. V.*

LU'TE-RESOUNDING, *adj.* Responsive to the sound of a lute:

In lands of singing or of dancing slaves,  
Love-whispering woods, and lute-resounding waves. *Pope.*

LU'TE-STRING, *f.* The string of a lute.—Nay, but his jesting spirit; which is now crept into a lute-string, and now governed by stops. *Shakesp. Much Ado.*

LUTEEFGUR', or LUTTEEF-GHUR, a town of Hindoostan, situated in a pass between the mountains of Rennares. The air is very unwholesome. It is fifteen miles south-east of Chunar.

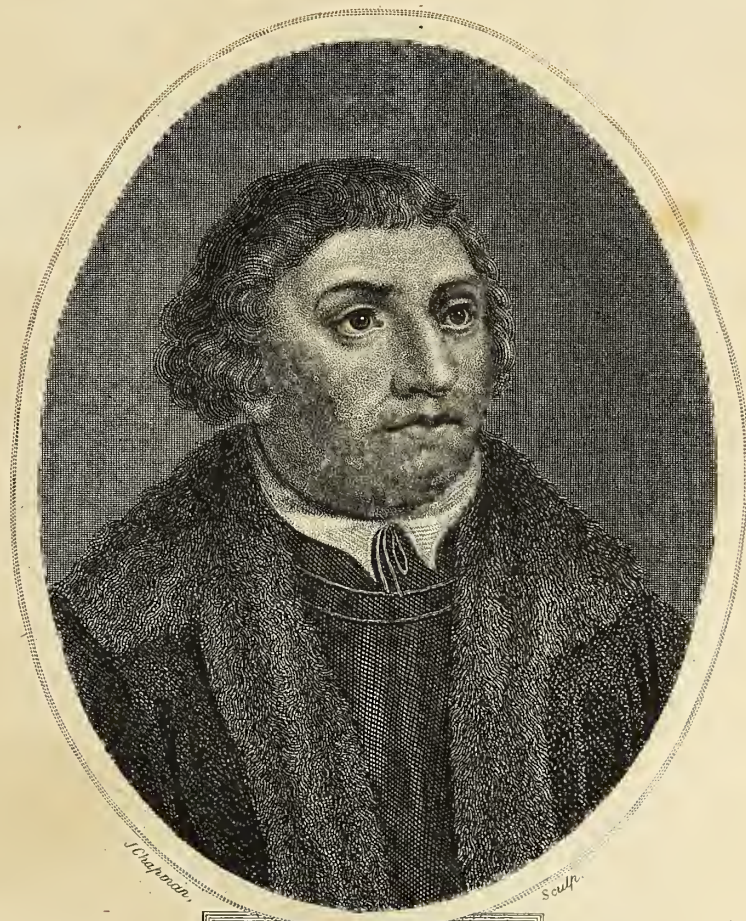
LUTEO'LA, *f.* in botany. See DATISCA and RESEDE.  
LU'TEOUS, *adj.* [from *lute*.] Full of clay; resembling clay.

LUTEREE', a town of Hindoostan, in Lahore: thirty-three miles north of Jummo.

LU'TE'TIA, in ancient geography, a town of the Parthi, in Gallia Celtica, situated in an island in the Sequana, or Seine. It received its name, as some suppose, from the quantity of clay, *lutum*, in its neighbourhood. Julius Cæsar fortified and embellished it; from which circumstance some authors call it *Julii Civitas*. It is now PARIS, the capital of France.

LU'THER (Martin), the illustrious author of the reformation in Germany, was descended from parents in humble circumstances and born at Eisleben in Saxony, in the year 1483. Having discovered an early inclination for learning, he was initiated in the rudiments of grammar while he continued at his father's house; and, when he had entered on his fourteenth year, was sent to a school at Magdeburg. Owing to the poverty of his parents, however, he was not able to remain there more than one year; and during that time was obliged, like many other poor German scholars to support himself by begging his bread. From Magdeburg he was sent to Eysenach in Thuringia, where he was amongst the relations of his mother, who was descended from an ancient and reputable family in that place. Here he attended a celebrated school for four years, and distinguished himself by his diligence and proficiency, while he afforded many indications of uncommon vigour and acuteness of genius. In the year 1501, he went to the university of Erfurt, where he passed through the courses of logic and philosophy, according to the scholastic methods then in vogue, under very able masters; and wanted not penetration to comprehend all the niceties and distinctions with which they abounded; but his understanding, naturally sound, and superior to every thing frivolous, soon became disgusted with those subtle and unimportant sciences. He therefore studied with great assiduity the works of the ancient Latin writers, such as Cicero, Virgil, Livy, &c. and, as he possessed a wonderfully-retentive memory, laid in from them such a fund of knowledge and good sense, as rendered him the object of admiration to the whole university. Having obtained the degree of M. A. when he was only twenty years of age, he afterwards read lectures on Aristotle's physics, on ethics, and other branches of philosophy; and acquired no little reputation for eloquence, as well as learning, acuteness, and vigour of mind. As he was thus possessed of talents and acquirements which would appear with eminent advantage in the legal profession, by the advice of his relations he applied to the study of jurisprudence: but he was soon diverted from this pursuit, and led entirely to change his views in life, by an accident. While walking out one day with a friend into the fields,





MARTIN LUTHER

*London. Published April 6. 1704. by G. Jones.*







By the discharge of a thunder-cloud his companion was killed, and he was himself thrown on the ground, though he sustained no personal injury. This event affected him very sensibly; and, as his mind was naturally susceptible of serious impressions, and tinged with somewhat of that religious melancholy which delights in the solitude of a monastic life, he determined to retire from the world into a convent of Augustinian friars; and, without suffering the entreaties of his parents to divert him from what he thought his duty to God, he assumed the habit of that order. Here he applied himself closely to the study of divinity, as laid down in the writings of the schoolmen; but was soon furnished with a more solid foundation of knowledge and piety in the sacred Scriptures. Having accidentally met with a copy of the Latin Bible, which lay neglected in the library of his monastery, and which he had never before seen, his curiosity was so highly raised, that he abandoned all other pursuits, and devoted himself to the study of it with such eagerness and assiduity as astonished the monks, who were little accustomed to derive their theological notions from that source. After having passed a year in the monastery of Erfurt, he took the vows; and he was admitted to priests' orders in the year 1507.

The fame of Luther's sanctity and learning, and particularly his knowledge of the scriptures, was now widely diffused; and, in the year 1508, Frederic elector of Saxony, having lately founded an university at Wittemberg, the place of his residence, chose Luther to fill at first the chair of philosophy, and afterwards that of divinity, in the new seminary. The duties of these employments, he discharged with so much ability, and in a method so different from the usual mechanical and dull forms of lecturing, that he was crowded with pupils from all quarters, and was deservedly esteemed the chief ornament of the university. At the same time Luther distinguished himself by the superiority of his talents as a pulpit-orator. In the year 1510, the monks in different convents belonging to his order, being embroiled in some disputes with their vicar-general, fixed upon Luther to go to Rome, for the purpose of defending their cause at the papal court: an employment for which his abilities, and firm undaunted mind, peculiarly qualified him. While in that city, he made his observations on the pope, and the government of the Romish church; he also examined the manners of the clergy, which he severely censures, and particularly condemns the haste and indifference with which they discharged the public duties of their sacred function: "I had not been long at Rome," says he, "before I performed mass; and I frequently saw it performed by others, but in such an indecent manner, that I can never think of it without horror." Of the effects produced on his mind by the observations which he made in this journey he afterwards often spoke with pleasure, declaring, "that he would not but have made it for a thousand florins."

Luther, as soon as he had accomplished the object of his mission, returned to Wittemberg; where, in the year 1512, he had the degree of doctor of divinity conferred on him, at the expense of Frederic elector of Saxony, who frequently heard him preach, and was fully sensible of his extraordinary merit. At first, he was desirous of declining this honour, considering himself too young for such a distinction, as he was only in his thirtieth year; but his objection was over-ruled, and he was told that he must suffer himself to be dignified, "for that God had important services to be performed in the church, and through his instrumentality." Lightly as this expression might at the time be uttered, subsequent events proved it to be a serious truth. Luther now applied himself with the greatest diligence to the duties of his divinity-chair. He read lectures on the books of Scripture. He explained the Epistle to the Romans, and afterwards the Psalms; of which his illustrations were so satisfactory, that, in the judgment of pious and thinking men, he was regarded as the harbinger of a new day which was to succeed the long night of darkness and ignorance. He also boldly opposed, both in

his lectures and in his sermons, many erroneous notions which had been received in the church and in the schools, renouncing all other tests of their truth but the Scriptures. To qualify himself the better for his important office, he applied himself with diligence to the study of the Greek and Hebrew languages, and encouraged their cultivation in the university: he also recommended the perusal of the writings of Erasmus, as admirable antidotes to monastic ignorance, and helps in acquiring just sentiments, and awakening a liberal spirit of enquiry. While Luther was thus active in propagating knowledge by his lectures and sermons, he was a rigid exactor of discipline among the students, and was himself an example of strict obedience to the laws of the university, of indefatigable application, and of unimpeachable morals. By these means he acquired vast credit and authority, and contributed to raise the university of Wittemberg to a height of reputation, which amply gratified the elector for his munificence in founding it. In these circumstances, a general sale of indulgences published by pope Leo X. proved the first link in a chain of causes which produced a revolution in the sentiments of mankind, "the greatest," says Dr. Robertson, "as well as the most beneficial, that has happened since the publication of Christianity." When Leo was raised to the papal throne, he found the revenues of the church exhausted by the vast projects of his two ambitious predecessors, Alexander VI. and Julius II. His own temper, naturally liberal and enterprising, rendered him incapable of that severe and patient economy which the situation of his finances required. On the contrary, his schemes for aggrandizing the family of Medici, his love of splendour, his taste for pleasure, and his munificence in rewarding men of genius, involved him daily in new expenses; in order to provide for which, he tried every device that the fertile invention of priests had suggested, to drain the credulous multitude of their wealth. Among others, he had recourse to a sale of indulgences. The *indulgences* pretended to convey to the possessor either the pardon of his own sins, or the release of any one in whose happiness he is interested, from the pains of purgatory. They were first invented in the eleventh century by Urban II. as a recompense for those who went in person to join the armies of the crusaders in the Holy Land. Afterwards they were granted to those who hired a soldier for that purpose; and in process of time were bestowed on such as gave money for accomplishing any pious work enjoined by the pope. Julius II. had bestowed indulgences on all who contributed towards building the church of St. Peter at Rome; and, as Leo was carrying on that expensive fabric, his grant was founded on the same pretence. The right of promulgating these indulgences in Germany, together with a share in the profits arising from the sale of them, was granted to Albert, elector of Mentz and archbishop of Magdeburg; who, as his chief agent for retailing them in Saxony, employed Tetzel, a Dominican friar, of licentious morals, but of an active spirit, and remarkable for his noisy and popular eloquence. This man, assisted by the monks of his order, executed the commission with great zeal and success, but with little discretion or decency. For though, by magnifying the benefit of their indulgences, and selling them at a low price, they for a time carried on a lucrative traffic among the credulous and the ignorant; yet the extravagance of their encomiums, and the irregularities in their conduct, came at last to give general offence, and to make it the general wish that some check were given to this commerce, no less detrimental to society than destructive to religion.

Luther, in the mean time, beheld with the utmost concern the artifices of those who sold, and the simplicity of those who bought, indulgences. Boldly rejecting the opinions of the schoolmen, on which the practice was founded, and finding that it derived no countenance from the Scriptures, he determined openly to protest against such a scandalous imposition on his deluded countrymen. Accordingly,



cordingly, in the year 1517, from the pulpit in the great church at Wittemberg, he inveighed bitterly against the irregularities and vices of the monks who distributed indulgences; tried the doctrines which they taught by the test of Scripture; and pointed out to the people the danger of relying for salvation on any other means than those appointed by God in his word. The boldness and novelty of these opinions excited great attention; and, being recommended by the authority of Luther's personal character, and delivered with a popular and persuasive eloquence, they made a great impression on his hearers. Luther also wrote to Albert, elector of Mentz and archbishop of Magdeburg, remonstrating against the false opinions, as well as wicked lives, of the preachers of indulgences; entreating him to exercise the authority vested in him in correcting these evils; and apologizing for the freedom which he had taken in his letter, influenced solely by a sense of duty, and no want of submission to ecclesiastical authority. To this letter the archbishop paid no attention, being too deeply interested in the success of his agents to correct their abuses. He paid equal disregard to the theses, containing Luther's sentiments concerning indulgences, which he transmitted on this occasion to that prelate. These *theses*, which were ninety-five in number, he proposed as subjects of enquiry and disputation, and publicly fixed them up in a church at Wittemberg, with a challenge to the learned to oppose them on a day which he appointed, either in person or by writing; and to the whole he added a solemn protestation of his profound respect for the apostolic see, and implicit submission to its authority. On the day fixed, no person appeared to contest Luther's theses, which rapidly spread all over Germany, and excited universal admiration of the boldness which he discovered in venturing to call in question the plenitude of papal power, and to attack the Dominicans, armed as they were with all the terrors of inquisitorial authority. With his invectives against these monks the friars of his own order were highly pleased, and hoped to see them exposed to the hatred and scorn of the people; and he was secretly encouraged in his proceedings by his sovereign, the elector of Saxony, who flattered himself that they might contribute to give some check to the exactions of the court of Rome, which the secular princes had been long unsuccessfully endeavouring to oppose.

The publication of Luther's theses soon brought into the field many zealous champions in defence of the opinions on which the wealth and power of the church were founded. In opposition to them, Tetzels published *counter theses*, at Frankfort on the Oder. He also endeavoured to excite the indignation of the clergy and populace against Luther, by the most bitter invectives, denouncing him from the pulpit as a heretic; and, in his character of inquisitor, burnt his theses publicly at Frankfort. This insult the students of Wittemberg retaliated upon the theses of Tetzels, by committing them to the flames in the public market-place, but without the knowledge of Luther, who expressed his disapprobation of that procedure. In the year 1518, two famous Dominicans, Prierias, master of the sacred palace, and inquisitor-general, and James Hogstrat, rose up also against the adventurous reformer, and attacked him at Cologne, with the utmost vehemence and ardour. Their example was soon followed by another formidable champion, the celebrated Eckius, professor of divinity at Ingolstadt, and one of the most zealous supporters of the Dominican order. But the manner in which they conducted the controversy did little service to their cause. Luther combated indulgences by arguments founded in reason, or derived from Scripture; while they produced nothing in support of them but the sentiments of schoolmen, the conclusions of the canon-law, and the decrees of popes. The people, however, now began to be dissatisfied with an appeal to those guides, when they were found to stand in opposition to the dictates of reason, and the determinations of the divine law; and they were strongly impressed by Luther's

intrepid declaration, "that, if the pope and cardinals entertained the same opinion with his opponents, and set up any authority against that of Scripture, there could be no doubt but that Rome was itself the very seat of antichrist, and that it would be happy for those countries who should separate themselves from her." At the same time, however, Luther addressed himself by letters, written in the most submissive and respectful terms, to the Roman pontiff and to several of the bishops, showing them the uprightness of his intentions, as well as the justice of his cause; and declaring his readiness to change his sentiments, as soon as he should see them fairly proved to be erroneous.

But, while all Germany was interested by these novelties in Luther's doctrines, they excited little attention and no alarm at the court of Rome. A stranger to theological controversies, and apt to despise them, Leo X. viewed the quarrels of German monks with indifference and contempt. He imputed the whole to monastic enmity and emulation, and seemed inclined not to interpose in the contest, but to allow the Augustinians and the Dominicans to wrangle about the matter with their usual animosity. The incessant representations, however, of Luther's adversaries, that the heresies which he propagated threatened the most fatal mischiefs to the interests of the church, and, in particular, the application of the emperor Maximilian to his holiness, that he would by his authority terminate disputes which otherwise would produce the most fatal divisions in Germany, at length roused the attention of Leo, who directed a summons to be issued, citing Luther to appear at Rome within sixty days, and give an account of the doctrines which he had maintained. The persons appointed to be his judges were—the bishop of Ascoli, auditor of the sacred chamber, and the inquisitor-general Prierias, who by writing against Luther had already prejudged his cause. Leo wrote at the same time to the elector of Saxony, beseeching him not to protect a man whose tenets were shocking to all pious ears; and he enjoined the provincial of the Augustinians to check the rashness of an arrogant monk, which disgraced his order, and gave offence and disturbance to the whole church.

The strain of these letters, and the appointment of Prierias to sit in judgment on him, afforded unequivocal indications of what sentence Luther might expect at Rome. He, therefore, made use of every effort to obtain a hearing of his cause in Germany. With this view, the professors of the university of Wittemberg wrote to the pope, excusing Luther from going to Rome, under various pretexts, and praying that some persons of learning and authority might be commissioned to decide on his doctrines in that country. The elector of Saxony also desired the same thing of the pope's legate at the diet of Augsburg; maintaining, that the cause of Luther belonged to a German tribunal, and that it ought to be decided by the ecclesiastical laws of the empire. At the same time Luther himself, who had not then the most distant intention of questioning the papal authority, wrote a most submissive letter to Leo, in which he promised an unreserved compliance with his will. Influenced by these letters and applications, the pope empowered his legate in Germany, cardinal Cajetan, to hear and determine the cause. In this first step, observes Dr. Mosheim, the court of Rome gave a specimen of that temerity and imprudence, with which all its negotiations, in this weighty affair, were afterwards conducted. For, instead of reconciling, nothing could tend more to inflame matters than the appointment of Cajetan, a Dominican, and, consequently, the declared enemy of Luther, and friend of Tetzels, as judge and arbitrator in this nice and perilous controversy.

Luther, notwithstanding the reason which he had to complain that his judge was selected from among his adversaries, after having obtained the emperor's safe conduct, repaired to Augsburg in the month of October 1518. Here he was admitted into the cardinal's presence, who conferred with him on the points in debate at three dif-



ferent meetings. The legate, however, would not condescend to enter into a formal dispute with a person of such inferior rank; and even disdained to resort to any other methods of persuasion, than the arrogant dictates of mere authority. In a high and overbearing tone, he required Luther, by virtue of the apostolic powers with which he was invested, to retract the opinions which he had advanced, humbly to confess his fault in publishing them, and to submit respectfully to the judgment of the Roman pontiff. But the intrepid spirit of Luther was not to be daunted by such a haughty and violent manner of proceeding. Though surprised at the abrupt mention of a recantation, before any endeavours had been used to convince him that he was mistaken, his presence of mind did not forsake him, and he declared, with the utmost firmness, that he could not, with a safe conscience, renounce opinions which he believed to be true; nor should any consideration induce him to do what would be so base in itself, and so offensive to God. At the same time he expressed the same respect as formerly for the papal authority, and declared his readiness to submit to the lawful determination of the church. He also expressed his willingness to refer the controversy to certain universities which he named; and promised neither to write nor preach concerning indulgences, provided the same silence with respect to them were enjoined on his adversaries. These declarations and offers Cajetan disregarded or rejected, and still peremptorily insisted on Luther's simple recantation; threatening him with the censures of the church, and forbidding him to appear in his presence any more, unless he came prepared to comply with what he required. This imperious and imprudent manner of proceeding, as well as other circumstances, gave Luther reason to suspect that his person was in danger from the legate's power and resentment, notwithstanding the emperor's safe-conduct; and he determined, by the advice of his friends, to withdraw suddenly and secretly from Augsburg. But, before his departure, he prepared a formal and solemn appeal, from the pope, ill-informed as he then was concerning his cause, to the pope when he should receive more full information with respect to it.

Luther's sudden departure from Augsburg, and the publication of his appeal, enraged the papal legate, who wrote to the elector of Saxony, complaining of both; and requiring him, as he regarded the peace of the church, to withdraw his protection from that seditious monk, and either to send him a prisoner to Rome, or to banish him from his territories. The elector, however, declined complying with either of these requests, under various pretexts, and with many professions of esteem for the cardinal, as well as of reverence for the pope; and he also gave assurances to Luther that he would not desert him. Thus supported, that reformer continued to vindicate his own opinions, and to inveigh against those of his adversaries, with more freedom and vehemence than ever; and he gave a challenge to all the inquisitors to come and dispute with him at Wittemberg, promising them not only a safe conduct from the elector, but liberal entertainment, free from any expense, while they continued at that place.

In the mean time, Leo's ambition and despotism urged him to issue a bull, in the month of November 1518, by which he attempted, by his own decision, to put an end to the dispute about indulgences. In this bull he magnified the virtue and efficacy of indulgences, in terms as extravagant as any of his predecessors had ventured to use in the darkest ages; and commanded all Christians to assent to what he delivered as the doctrine of the catholic church, under the penalty of the heaviest ecclesiastical censures. No sooner did Luther receive information of this inconsiderate and violent measure, than he was convinced that the pope would soon proceed to extremities against him; and therefore had recourse to the only expedient in his power for preventing the effect of the papal censures, by appealing from the pontiff to a gene-

ral council, which he affirmed to be superior in authority to the pope. The death of the emperor, however, in January 1519, rendered it expedient for the court of Rome to suspend any direct proceedings against Luther: for, by that event, the vicariat of that part of Germany which is governed by the Saxon laws devolved to the elector of Saxony, and was executed by him during the interregnum which preceded the election of the emperor Charles V. Under his administration Luther enjoyed tranquillity; and his opinions were suffered to take root in different places, and to grow up to some degree of strength and firmness. At the same time Leo, who was much interested in the succession to the empire, that he might avoid irritating a prince who had such influence in the electoral college as Frederic, thought it expedient to have recourse to negotiation, that he might bring back our reformer to submission and obedience. For this purpose he fixed upon Charles Miltitz, a Saxon knight, who belonged to his court, and was a person of great prudence, penetration, and dexterity, and in every respect qualified for such a delicate commission. This person Leo sent as his legate into Saxony, to present to Frederic a golden consecrated rose, such as the popes had been accustomed to bestow, as a peculiar mark of distinction, on those princes for whom they professed an uncommon friendship and esteem; and also to treat with Luther about the means of reconciling him to the court of Rome. Miltitz artfully commenced the business of his legation, by loading Tetzl with the bitterest reproaches, on account of the irregular and superstitious means which he had employed for promoting the sale of indulgences, and attributed to him all the abuses that Luther had complained of. This incendiary having been sacrificed as a victim to cover the Roman pontiff from reproach, Miltitz entered into a particular conference with Luther; and, by the concessions which he made, his encomiums on Luther's character, capacity, and talents, his soothing language, and his pathetic expostulations in favour of union and concord in an afflicted and divided church, produced a considerable impression on Luther's mind. Upon this occasion he led him to make submissions, which showed that his views were not, as yet, very extensive, his former prejudices quite expelled, nor his reforming principles steadily fixed. For he not only offered to observe a profound silence in future on the subject of indulgences, provided that the same conditions were imposed upon his adversaries, but he wrote an humble and submissive letter to the pope, acknowledging that he had carried his zeal and animosity too far; and he even consented to publish a circular letter, exhorting all his followers to reverence and obey the dictates of the holy Roman church: a measure which could scarcely have been expected from a man who had already appealed from the pope to a general council.

Had the court of Rome been prudent enough to have been satisfied with the submission of Luther, and repressed the forwardness of its champions to appear in the field of theological controversy, the cause of the reformation would have been almost nipped in its bud; at least its growth and progress would have been considerably retarded. But the excessive zeal of some inconsiderate bigots, renewed the divisions which were so near being healed, and animated Luther and his followers to examine deeper into the enormities which prevailed in the papal hierarchy, as well as the doctrines of the church of Rome. One of the circumstances that contributed principally, at least by its consequences, to render the legation of Miltitz ineffectual for the restoration of peace, was a famous controversy carried on at Leipzig in the year 1519. It originated in a challenge from Eckius, who had before drawn his pen against Luther, to Carlostadt, his colleague and companion, to a public dispute concerning the freedom of the will; and to Luther, to enter the lists with him, while he defended the authority and supremacy of the Roman pontiff. The challenge was accepted; and on the appointed day the three champions appeared in the field.



The assembly which met to witness the combat was numerous and splendid, and each of the combatants conducted himself with great skill and dexterity; but, in the opinion of the majority of those who were present, the victory was not obtained by the challenger. In the dispute concerning the papal supremacy and authority, Luther demonstrated, that the church of Rome, in the earlier ages, had never been considered as superior to other churches; and combated the pretensions of that church and its bishop, from the testimony of Scripture, the authority of the fathers, and the best ecclesiastical historians, and even from the decrees of the council of Nice; while the arguments of Eckius were derived from the spurious and insipid decretals, which were scarcely of four hundred years standing. This controversy, however, was left undecided, as Hoffman, who was at that time rector of the university of Leipzig, and who had been appointed judge of the arguments alleged on both sides, refused to declare to whom the victory belonged; so that the decision of this matter was left to the universities of Paris and Erfurt. One of the immediate effects of this dispute was an increase of the enmity which Eckius had conceived against Luther; and from this time the former breathed nothing but fury against the Saxon reformer. Luther, however, had the satisfaction to find that his dispute with Eckius had convinced the excellent Philip Melancthon, at that time professor of Greek at the university of Wittemberg, of the justice of his cause; and he had soon afterwards the farther satisfaction of seeing a vigorous auxiliary arise in Switzerland, in the person of Ulric Zuingli, a canon of Zurich, whose extensive learning and uncommon sagacity were accompanied with the most heroic intrepidity and resolution. In this same year, the opinions of Luther concerning indulgences were censured by the universities of Cologne and Louvain; against whose decrees he immediately wrote with his usual spirit and intrepidity, which acquired additional strength from every instance of opposition.

While such was the state of things in Germany, Eckius repaired to Rome, intent on accomplishing the ruin of Luther. There he entered into a league with the Dominicans, who were in high credit at the papal court, and more especially with their two zealous patrons, Prierias and Cajetan; supported by whom, he earnestly solicited Leo to condemn Luther, and to exclude him from the communion of the church. At length, overcome by the importunity of these pernicious counsellors, the pontiff determined to comply with their request; and frequently assembled the college of cardinals, in order to prepare the sentence with due deliberation, and consulted the ablest canonists how it might be expressed with unexceptionable formality. After these preparations, on the 15th of June, 1520, the bull was issued; in which forty-one propositions, extracted from Luther's works, were condemned as heretical, scandalous, and offensive to pious ears; all persons were forbidden to read his writings, on pain of excommunication; those who possessed any of them were commanded to commit them to the flames; he himself, if he did not, within sixty days, publicly recant his errors, and burn his books, was pronounced an obstinate heretic, excommunicated, and delivered unto Satan for the destruction of his flesh; and all secular princes were required, under pain of incurring the same censure, to seize his person, that he might be punished as his crimes deserved. Short-sighted priests, and rash bigots, contemplated in this sentence the ruin of Luther, and the termination of those principles which he had espoused; but it proved fatal only to the church which uttered it, and to the cause which it was intended to support. When an account of what had happened was brought to Luther, he was neither disconcerted nor intimidated, but calmly consulted the most proper means of present defence and future security. After renewing his appeal to a general council, he came to the bold determination of absolutely renouncing the communion of the church of Rome, and of exposing to

the world, without the least disguise or ceremony, the abominable corruptions and delusions of the papal hierarchy. He began by publishing severe remarks upon the bull of excommunication; and, being now persuaded that Leo had been guilty both of impiety and injustice in his proceedings against him, he intrepidly declared the pope to be that *man of sin*, or antichrist, whose appearance is foretold in the New Testament; he declaimed against his tyranny and usurpations with greater violence than ever; he exhorted all Christian princes to shake off such an ignominious yoke; and boasted of his own happiness in being marked out as the object of ecclesiastical indignation, because he had ventured to assert the liberty of mankind. Nor did he confine his expressions of contempt for the papal power to words alone. As Leo, in the execution of the bull, had appointed Luther's books to be burnt at Rome, he, by way of retaliation, assembled all the professors and students in the university of Wittemberg, and with great pomp, in the presence of a prodigious multitude of people of all ranks and orders, committed to the flames the pope's bull, and the decretals and canons relating to his supreme jurisdiction; and his example was followed in several of the cities of Germany. The manner in which this action was justified gave still more offence than the action itself; for Luther, having collected from the canon-law some of the most extravagant propositions with regard to the plenitude and omnipotence of the pope's power, as well as the subordination of all secular jurisdiction to his authority, he published these with a commentary, pointing out the impiety of such tenets, and their evident tendency to subvert all civil government.

On the accession of Charles V. to the empire, Luther found himself in a very dangerous situation. It is to be observed, that hitherto no secular prince had openly embraced his opinions; no change in the established forms of worship had been introduced; no encroachments had been made upon the possessions or jurisdiction of the clergy; and the controversy, though conducted with great heat and passion on both sides, was still carried on with theses, disputations, and replies. A deep impression, however, was made upon the minds of the people; their reverence for ancient institutions and doctrines was shaken; and the materials were already scattered, which kindled into the combustion that soon spread over all Germany. Students crowded from every part of the empire to Wittemberg; and under Luther, Melancthon, Carlostadt, and other masters then reckoned eminent, imbibed opinions, which, on their return, they propagated among their countrymen, who listened to them with that fond attention, which truth, when accompanied with novelty, naturally commands.

In this state of things the emperor Charles V. arrived in Germany; and the first act of his administration, after he had been crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle, was to appoint a diet of the empire to be held at Worms, on the 6th of January, 1521. In his circular letter to the different princes, he informed them, that he called this assembly in order to concert with them the most proper measures for checking the progress of those new and dangerous opinions, which threatened to disturb the peace of Germany, and to overturn the religion of their ancestors. Previously to the meeting of the diet, the pope caused a brief to be presented to the elector of Saxony, by which he gave him notice of the decree which he had made against the opinions of Luther; and accompanied it with a request, that he would cause all Luther's books to be burnt, and that he would either put him to death, or imprison him, or send him to Rome: he also sent a brief to the university of Wittemberg, exhorting them to put his bull into execution against Luther: but to these briefs and exhortations, neither the elector nor the university paid any regard. The emperor and other princes, however, showed greater readiness to gratify his holiness; and, at the instance of his legates, Luther's books were burnt in several cities of Germany. Charles would also have yielded



yielded to their solicitation, that an imperial edict should without delay be issued against that reformer, had he not been unwilling to give offence to the elector of Saxony, to whom he was under much greater obligations than to any other of the German princes, as it was chiefly owing to his disinterestedness, as well as zealous and important services, that he had been raised to the empire, in opposition to the pretensions of such a formidable rival as Francis I. king of France.

The diet having assembled at Worms at the time appointed, when the state of religion was taken into consideration, the papal legates insisted that, without any delay or formal deliberation, the diet ought to condemn a man whom the pope had already excommunicated as an incorrigible heretic. In this demand the emperor, to the success of whose political views the pope's friendship was at that time of the utmost importance, appeared desirous of gratifying them. However, the elector of Saxony employed his credit with Charles, to prevent the publication of any unjust edict against Luther, and to have his cause tried by the canons of the Germanic church, and the laws of the empire. And such an abrupt manner of proceeding, as was moved for by the legates, being deemed unprecedented and unjust by the other members of the diet, they made a point of Luther's appearing in person, and declaring whether he adhered or not to those opinions which had drawn upon him the censures of the church. The emperor therefore resolved, that Luther should be called before the diet, and that he should be publicly heard before any final sentence should be pronounced against him. For his protection against the violence of his enemies, not only the emperor, but all the princes through whose territories he had to pass, granted him a safe-conduct; and Charles wrote to him at the same time, requiring his immediate attendance on the diet, and renewing his promises of protection from any injury or ill-treatment. This letter and safe-conduct were delivered to Luther by an officer, who was sent to accompany him to Worms; and were no sooner received by him, than without a moment's hesitation he prepared to obey the summons. Many of his friends, however, were greatly against his going to the diet, observing, that from the late burning of his books he might anticipate the sentence which would be passed on himself. Others reminded him of the fate of Huss, under similar circumstances, and protected by the same security of an imperial safe-conduct; and, filled with solicitude, advised and entreated him not to rush wantonly into the midst of danger. But Luther, superior to such terrors, silenced them with this reply: "I am lawfully called," said he, "to appear in that city; and thither will I go in the name of the Lord, though as many devils, as there are tiles on the houses, were there combined against me."

Luther arrived at Worms on the 16th of April, where greater crowds assembled to behold him than had appeared at the emperor's public entry. While he continued in that city, his apartments were daily filled with princes and personages of the highest rank, and he was treated with all the respect paid to those who possess the power of directing the understanding and sentiments of other men. When he appeared before the diet, he behaved with the greatest decency and propriety, and readily acknowledged an excess of vehemence and acrimony in his controversial writings. At the same time he displayed the utmost resolution and presence of mind, while (on the 17th and 18th of April, 1521) he pleaded his cause before that grand assembly. At length, in answer to the demand that he should renounce the opinions which he had hitherto held, he firmly and solemnly declared, that he would neither abandon them, nor change his conduct, unless he were previously convinced, by the word of God, or the dictates of right reason, that his sentiments were erroneous, and his conduct unlawful. To this resolution he steadily adhered, notwithstanding the entreaties and threatenings which were employed to conquer the firm-

ness of his purpose. Irritated at his unbending spirit, some of the ecclesiastics present had the baseness to propose, that they should imitate the example of the council of Constance, and avail themselves of the opportunity of having the enemy in their power, to deliver the church at once from such a pestilent heretic. But the members of the diet refusing to expose the German integrity to a fresh reproach by a second violation of public faith, and Charles being no less unwilling to bring a stain upon the beginning of his administration by such an ignominious action, Luther was permitted to depart in safety. A few days after he had left Worms, an excessively-severe edict was published in the emperor's name, and by the authority of the diet, in which he was declared a member cut off from the church, a schismatic, a notorious and obstinate heretic, deprived of all the privileges which he enjoyed as a subject of the empire; the severest punishments were denounced against those who should receive, entertain, or countenance him, either by acts of hospitality by conversation, or by writing; and all were required to concur in seizing his person, as soon as the term of his safe-conduct expired. But, after all, this rigorous decree produced scarcely any effect, as the emperor, whose presence, authority, and zeal, were necessary to render it respectable, was involved in a multiplicity of occupations, created by the commotions in Spain, and the wars in Italy and the Low Countries, which made him lose sight of the edict of Worms; while all those sovereign princes who had not been present at the diet, and who had any regard for the liberties of the empire and the rights of the Germanic church, treated it with the highest indignation, or the utmost contempt. And some days before the publication of this edict, the elector of Saxony had employed a prudent precaution, which effectually secured Luther from the storm. For, in consequence of a preconcerted plan, and, as some have imagined upon probable grounds, not without the knowledge of the emperor, as Luther, on his return from Worms, was passing near Eysenach, a number of horsemen in masks rushed out of a wood, and, surrounding his company, carried him, after dismissing all his attendants, with the utmost secrecy to the castle of Wartenberg.

This sudden disappearance of Luther not only occasioned the most bitter disappointment to his adversaries, but rendered them doubly odious to the people in Germany, who, not knowing what was become of their favourite reformer, imagined that he was imprisoned, or perhaps destroyed, by the emissaries of Rome. In the mean time, Luther lived in peace and quiet, supplied by the elector with every thing necessary or agreeable; but the place of his retreat was carefully concealed, until the fury of the present storm against him began to abate, upon a change in the political situation of Europe. Nor was his confinement here inconsistent with amusement and relaxation; for he enjoyed frequently the pleasure of hunting in company with his keepers, passing for a country gentleman, under the name of Yonker George. In this solitude, which he frequently called his Patmos, he translated a great part of the New Testament into the German language; wrote and published several treatises in defence of his doctrines, or in confutation of his adversaries, which revived and animated the spirit of his followers; and wrote frequent letters to his trusty friends and intimates, to comfort them during his absence. During his confinement, he had the satisfaction of learning that his opinions continued to gain ground, and had acquired the ascendancy in almost every city in Saxony. At this time, the Augustinians of Wittemberg, with the approbation of the university, and the connivance of the elector, ventured upon the first step towards an alteration in the established forms of worship, by abolishing the celebration of private masses, and by giving the cup as well as the bread to the laity in administering the sacrament of the Lord's supper. But, whatever consolation the courage and success of his disciples, or the progress of his doctrines in his own country, afforded



Luther in his retreat, it was in some degree damped by the information which he received, that the university of Paris, the most ancient, and at that time the most respectable, of the learned societies in Europe, had published a solemn decree, condemning his opinions: and that king Henry VIII. of England had published a treatise against him. These events seemed to oppose insuperable obstacles to the propagation of his principles in the two most powerful kingdoms of Europe. But Luther was not overawed, either by the authority of the university or the dignity of the monarch; and he soon published his animadversions on both, in a style no less vehement and severe than he would have used in confuting his meanest antagonist. His contemporaries, however, were so far from being shocked by the manner of his answering them, that they considered it as a new proof of his undaunted spirit; and a controversy in which such illustrious disputants had embarked drew such general attention to our reformer's doctrines in France and England, that, in spite of the civil and ecclesiastical powers, daily converts were gained to them in both those countries.

The active spirit of Luther, however, could not long bear a state of retirement; and, after an absence of about ten months, he returned to Wittemberg, March 6, 1522, without the permission, or even the knowledge, of his patron and protector Frederic. One of his principal motives for taking this bold step was the information which he received of the proceedings of Carlostadt, one of his disciples, who was animated with the same zeal, but possessed less prudence and moderation than his master. During the absence of Luther, he endeavoured to abolish the use of mass, auricular confession, the invocation of saints, and abstinence from meats. He also threw down and broke the images of the saints that were placed in the churches, and instigated the multitude to proceed to dangerous excesses in destroying the relics of popish idolatry. Encouraged by his exhortations, they rose in several villages of Saxony, broke into the churches with the multinary violence, and threw down and destroyed the images which were erected in them. Such irregular and outrageous proceedings were so repugnant to all the elector's cautious maxims, that, if they had not received a timely check, they could have hardly failed of alienating from the reformers a prince, no less jealous of his own authority than afraid of giving offence to the emperor and other patrons of the ancient opinions. Sensible of the danger, Luther quitted his retreat, and condemned in strong terms the conduct to which Carlostadt's impetuosity and rashness had given rise. Happily for the reformation, the veneration for his person and authority was still so great, that his appearance alone suppressed that spirit of extravagance which began to seize his party. Carlostadt, and his fanatical followers, struck dumb by his rebukes, submitted at once, and declared that they heard the voice of an angel, not of a man.

At this time the doctrines of the reformer were not known in France; and in England, the sovereign, Henry VIII. had made the most vigorous exertions to prevent them from invading his realms; he even undertook to write them down, in a treatise entitled "Of the Seven Sacraments," &c. This work he presented to Leo X. in October 1521. The pope was so well pleased with the royal attempt to confute the arguments of Luther, that he complimented him with the title of "Defender of the Faith." Whatever respect and reverence Luther might show to kings as such, he had none for the arguments of an antagonist, though armed with royal authority; and answered Henry with much severity, treating his performance in the most contemptuous manner.

We have already mentioned that, while Luther was concealed in the castle of Wartenberg, he translated a great part of the New Testament into the German language. He now applied himself with redoubled industry and zeal to that work; and, with the assistance of Melancthon, and several others of his disciples, he finished it in the present year. The publication of this per-

formance, which was gradually followed by translations of the other parts of Scripture, produced sudden and incredible effects, and proved more fatal to the church of Rome than that of all Luther's other works. It was read with wonderful avidity and attention by persons of all ranks. With astonishment they discovered how contrary the precepts of Christ are to the inventions of his pretended vicegerents; and, being now put into possession of the rule of faith, they conceived themselves qualified, by applying it, to judge of the established opinions, and to pronounce when they were conformable to the standard, or when they departed from it. About this time, Nuremberg, Frankfort, Hamburg, and several other imperial cities in Germany, abolished the mass, and the other superstitious rites of popery, and openly embraced the reformed religion. The elector of Brandenburg, likewise, together with the dukes of Brunswick and Lunenburg, and the prince of Anhalt, became avowed patrons of Luther's opinions, and countenanced the preaching of them in their territories.

In this state of things pope Leo X. died, and was succeeded in the pontificate by Adrian VI. who had formerly been preceptor to the emperor. One of the first objects of Adrian's care after his elevation to the papacy was, to deliberate with the cardinals concerning the proper means of putting a stop to the growing defection from the catholic pale in Germany. With this design he sent Francis Cheregato, his legate, to the diet which was assembled at Nuremberg in November 1522. In the brief which he addressed to that assembly, he condemned Luther's opinions with more asperity and rancour of expression than Leo had ever used; severely censured the princes of Germany for suffering him to spread his pernicious tenets; and required the speedy and vigorous execution of the sentence which had been pronounced against Luther and his followers at the diet of Worms. At the same time he acknowledged, with great candour, the corruptions and abuses of the Roman court to be the source whence most of the evils which the church now felt or dreaded, had flowed; promising the exertion of all his authority to reform them, and requesting their advice respecting the most effectual means of suppressing the heresy which had sprung up among them. The members of the diet, after praising the pope's pious and laudable intentions, excused themselves from not executing the edict of Worms, on account of the prodigious increase of Luther's followers, and the aversion to the court of Rome among their other subjects, owing to its innumerable exactions; both which circumstances rendered such an attempt not only dangerous, but impossible. They also transmitted to his holiness a list of a hundred grievances, which the empire imputed to the iniquitous dominion of the papal see; and proposed the assembling, without delay, a general council in one of the great cities of Germany, as the only adequate measure for correcting the evils complained of, and for restoring the church to tranquillity, soundness, and vigour. Afterwards they passed an edict, on the 6th of March 1523, prohibiting all innovations in religious matters, until a general council should decide what was to be done in an affair of such high moment and importance. But this edict was no more carried into execution than that of Worms; and Luther still went on successfully in laying the foundations of a new church in direct opposition to that of Rome. Among the other numerous subjects which employed his pen during the present year, were those of the monastic life, and vows of celibacy, against which he directed not only the force of weighty arguments, but the weapons of satire. One of the earliest effects of his labours on these points, was the elopement of nine nuns from the nunnery of Nimptschen, who were conducted by a burgher of Torgaw to Wittemberg. This proceeding, as may be imagined, gave high offence to the papists; but Luther warmly extolled it, in a publication written in the German language; and compared the deliverance of these nuns from the slavery of a monastic



naftic life to that of souls redeemed by the death of Christ. He did more; he married one of these same nuns, Catharine à Boria, who was of a noble family. This step was far from meeting with the approbation of his friends; and his enemies took occasion from it to be profuse in their censures, and in their calumnious misrepresentations. Indeed, Luther himself was sensible of the impression which it had made to his disadvantage, as appears from his declaration in one of his letters, that "it had made him so despicable, that he hoped his humiliation would rejoice the angels, and vex the devils." But, if he was at first so much affected by this circumstance as to need the consolation of Melancthon, he soon recovered his self-possession; and, being satisfied with the motives of his conduct, bore the censures of his friends, and the reproaches of his adversaries, with his usual fortitude. Of those motives the reader may meet with a particular account in Bayle, under the article Catharine de Bore; where they may also find some amusing anecdotes relative to Luther's wedding, the estimation in which he held his wife, and his subsequent behaviour in the conjugal connection.

In the year 1523, two of the followers of Luther were burnt at Brussels, and these were the first who suffered martyrdom for his cause; and about the same time that this tragical event was perpetrated, he wrote a consolatory letter to three noble ladies at Misnia, who were banished from the duke of Saxony's court at Friburg for reading his books.

About this period Luther lost by death his friend, and the fast friend of the reformation, Frederic elector of Saxony; but the blow was less sensibly felt, as he was succeeded by his brother John, a more avowed and zealous, though less able, patron of Luther and his doctrines. Frederic had been a kind of mediator between the Roman pontiff and the reformers of Wittemberg, and had always entertained the hope of restoring peace in the church, and of reconciling the contending parties, as to prevent a separation either in point of ecclesiastical jurisdiction or religious communion; hence, though rather favourable to the innovations of Luther, he took no pains to introduce any change into the churches of his own dominions, nor to subject them to his jurisdiction. But his successor acted in quite a different manner. Fully satisfied of the truth of Luther's doctrine, and persuaded that it must lose ground and soon be suppressed if the despotic authority of the Roman pontiff remained undisputed and entire, he, without hesitation or delay, assumed to himself the supremacy in ecclesiastical matters, and established a church in his dominions, totally different from the church of Rome, in doctrine, discipline, and government. He also ordered a body of laws, relating to the form of ecclesiastical government, the method of public worship, the rank, offices, and revenues, of the priesthood, and other matters of that nature, to be drawn up by Luther and Melancthon, which he afterwards promulgated throughout his dominions. No sooner had the elector taken this decisive and undisguised line of conduct, than the religious differences between the German princes, which had hitherto kept within the bounds of moderation, broke out into a violent and lasting flame. By the patrons of popery evident intimations were given of their intention to make war upon the Lutheran party, and to compel them by force to renounce the doctrines of the reformation; and this design would certainly have been put into execution, had not the troubles of Europe disconcerted their measures. The Lutherans, on the other hand, began to deliberate concerning the most effectual means of defending themselves against superstition armed with violence; and formed the plan of a confederacy for that prudent purpose.

In the mean time the diet of the empire assembled at Spire, in June 1526, at which Ferdinand, the emperor's brother, presided; Charles being fully occupied with the troubled state of his dominions in Spain and Italy. When

the state of religion came to be considered in the diet, the emperor's ambassadors used their utmost endeavours to obtain a resolution, that all disputes about religion should be suppressed, and the sentence which had been pronounced at Worms against Luther and his followers put into rigorous execution. This was firmly opposed by the greater part of the German princes, who maintained that they could not execute that sentence, nor come to any determination with respect to the doctrines by which it had been occasioned, before the whole matter was submitted to the cognizance of a general council, lawfully assembled. This opinion, after long and warm debates, was adopted by a great majority; and at length the whole assembly unanimously agreed to present a solemn address to the emperor, beseeching him to assemble, without delay, a free and general council; and it was also agreed that, in the mean time, the princes and states of the empire should, in their respective dominions, be at liberty to manage ecclesiastical matters in the manner which they should think the most expedient, yet so as to be able to give an account of their administration to God and the emperor. Nothing could be more favourable to the cause of Lutheranism than this resolution. Several princes, whom the fear of persecution and punishment had hitherto prevented from declaring for the reformation, being now delivered from their restraint, renounced publicly the superstition of Rome, and introduced among their subjects the same form of religious worship, and the same system of doctrine, which had been received in Saxony. And in general, all the Germans who had before rejected the papal discipline and doctrine were now employed in bringing their schemes and plans to a certain degree of consistence, and in adding vigour and firmness to the glorious cause in which they were engaged. In the mean time, Luther and his fellow-labourers, by their writings, their instructions, their admonitions, and counsels, inspired the timorous with fortitude, dispelled the doubts of the ignorant, fixed the principles and resolution of the wavering, and inconstant, and animated all the friends of the reformation with a spirit suitable to the importance and grandeur of their undertaking.

But this encouraging state of things was of no long duration. For the emperor, as soon as he had appeased the troubles which had engaged his attention in different parts of Europe, directed his view to Germany, and determined to attempt the recovery of those prerogatives which his predecessors had lost; and which were necessary to the promotion of his ambitious schemes. Nothing, he saw, was more essential towards attaining this object, than to suppress opinions which might form new bonds of confederacy among the princes of the empire, and unite them by ties stronger and more sacred than any political connection. Nothing seemed to lead more certainly to the accomplishment of this design, than to employ zeal for the established religion, of which he was the natural protector, as the instrument of extending his civil authority. Accordingly, he appointed a diet of the empire to be held at Spire, in March 1529, in order to take into consideration the state of religion. In that diet the archduke Ferdinand presided; and, after several long debates, had the address to procure a majority of voices approving a decree, which revoked the resolution of the former diet of Spire, and declared unlawful every change which should be introduced into the doctrine, discipline, or worship, of the established religion, before the determination of a general council was known. This decree was justly considered to be iniquitous and intolerable by the elector of Saxony, the marquis of Brandenburg, the landgrave of Hesse, the duke of Lunenburgh, the prince of Anhalt, together with the deputies of fourteen imperial cities; who, when they found that all their arguments and remonstrances made no impression upon Ferdinand, and the abettors of the Romish church, entered their solemn protest against it, on the 19th of April, 1529, and appealed to the emperor and a future council. On that account they



were distinguished by the name of PROTESTANTS, which from this period has been applied to all sects, of whatever denomination, which have revolted from the Roman see.

No sooner had the dissenting princes and deputies entered their protest against the decree of the diet, than they sent ambassadors into Italy, to lay their grievances before the emperor. The persons employed in this commission executed the orders which they had received with the greatest resolution and presence of mind; and conducted themselves, in all respects, in a manner worthy of the principals whose sentiments and conduct they were sent to justify and explain. The emperor, whose pride was wounded by this spirit and firmness in persons who dared to oppose his designs, ordered these ambassadors to be apprehended and put under arrest for several days. The news of this violent step soon reached the protestant princes, and convinced them that their personal safety, and the success of their cause, depended upon their courage and concord. They, therefore, held several meetings, in different places, for the purpose of forming such a powerful league as might enable them to repel the violence of their enemies; but, while they were preparing a new embassy to the emperor, they received an account that he was determined to come into Germany, with a view to terminate, in a diet which he had already appointed to be held at Augsberg, in June 1530, the religious disputes which had produced such animosities and divisions in the empire. In order that the emperor might be able to form a clear idea of the matters to be debated, the elector of Saxony ordered Luther, and other eminent divines, to commit to writing the chief articles of their religious system, and the principal points in which they differed from the church of Rome. In compliance with this order, Luther delivered to the elector at Torgau the seventeen articles, hence called the *Articles of Torgau*, which were deemed by him a sufficient declaration of the sentiments of the reformers. It was judged proper, however, to enlarge them; and, by a judicious detail, to give perspicuity to their arguments, and thereby strength to their cause. For this purpose the protestant princes employed the pen of Melancthon, who, with a due regard to the counsels of Luther, expressed his sentiments and doctrine with the greatest elegance and perspicuity, and in terms as little offensive to the Roman Catholics as a regard for truth would permit. Such was the origin of the famous creed, known by the name of the *Confession of Augsberg*.

On the 20th of June, 1530, the diet was opened; and, as it was unanimously agreed that the affairs of religion should be discussed before any other matters, the protestants received from the emperor a formal permission to give in an account of their religious principles and tenets. Accordingly, on the 25th of the same month, the chancellor of Saxony read, in the German language, in presence of the emperor and the assembled princes, the Confession above mentioned, which was presented to the emperor, signed by the princes and deputies of the Lutheran party. At the same time the protestants who had adopted the opinions of Zuingle delivered in their confession, drawn up by Martin Bucer. Of these confessions a refutation was undertaken by John Faber, Eckius, and another doctor, named Cochläus, which was also read publicly in the diet; and the unlimited submission of the protestants to the doctrines and opinions contained in this refutation was required by the emperor. But, instead of yielding obedience to the imperial command, they declared themselves by no means satisfied with the reply of their adversaries, and requested a copy of it, that they might demonstrate more fully its extreme insufficiency and weakness. This reasonable request, however, the emperor refused to grant; but he did not discourage the respective parties from meeting, to try whether it were not possible to bring about a reconciliation upon fair, candid, and equitable terms. For this purpose, various conferences were held between persons of eminence, piety, and learning, chosen from both sides; and nothing was omitted that

might have the least tendency to calm the animosity, heal the divisions, and unite the hearts, of the contending parties: but all in vain, since the difference between their opinions was too considerable, and of too much importance, to admit of a reconciliation. Finding the divines immovable, Charles turned to the princes their patrons, whom he solicited separately, and allured by promises of those advantages which it was known they were most solicitous of obtaining. But, however desirous they were of obliging the emperor, they would not make sacrifices to him of their integrity; and, with a zeal and fortitude which redound to their immortal honour, refused to abandon what they deemed the cause of God, for the sake of any earthly acquisition.

Every scheme to gain or disunite the protestant party thus proving abortive, the emperor was determined to take vigorous measures for asserting the doctrines and authority of the established church, and enforcing the submission of such obstinate heretics. By his express order, on the 19th of November, during the absence of the Hessian and Saxon princes, the diet issued a severe decree, condemning most of the peculiar tenets held by the protestants; forbidding any person to protect or tolerate such as taught them; enjoining a strict observance of the established rites; and prohibiting any further innovation under severe penalties. All orders of men were required to assist with their persons and fortunes in carrying this decree into execution; and such as refused to obey it were declared incapable of acting as judges, or of appearing as parties in the imperial chamber, the supreme court of judicature in the empire. To all which was subjoined a promise, that an application should be made to the pope, requiring him to call a general council within six months, in order to terminate all controversies by its sovereign decisions. The severity of this decree, which was considered as a prelude to the most violent persecution, convinced the protestants that the emperor was resolved on their destruction; and the dread of the calamities which were ready to fall on the church oppressed the feeble spirit of Melancthon, who gave himself up to melancholy and lamentation. But Luther, who, during the sitting of the diet had endeavoured to confirm and animate his party by several treatises which he addressed to them, was not disconcerted or dismayed at the prospect of this new danger. He comforted Melancthon and his other desponding disciples, and exhorted the princes not to abandon those truths which they had lately asserted with such laudable boldness. His exhortations made the deeper impression upon them, as they had at that time received an account of a combination among the popish princes of the empire for the maintenance of the established religion, to which Charles himself had acceded. This circumstance convinced them, that their own safety, as well as the success of their cause, depended on union. They, therefore, assembled, in the year 1530, and the year following, first at Smalkalde, and afterwards at Frankfort, and formed a solemn alliance and confederacy, with the resolution of defending vigorously their religion and liberties against the dangers and encroachments with which they were threatened by the edict of Augsberg. Into this confederacy they invited the kings of England, France, and Denmark; and by their negotiations secured powerful foreign protection and assistance, in case of necessity. In this state of things, which portended an approaching rupture, the elector palatine, and the elector of Mentz, offered their mediation, and endeavoured to reconcile the contending princes. With respect to the emperor, many circumstances combined to convince him, that this was not a juncture when the extirpation of heresy was to be attempted by violence and rigour. He saw that the imprudent precipitation with which he had already proceeded, in compliance with the pope's inclinations, had forced the protestants into a formidable union, which put them into a capacity of setting the head of the empire at defiance. He saw the Turks preparing to enter Austria with im-

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menfe forces; and stood in need of succours, which the protestant princes refused to grant as long as the edicts of Worms and Augsbuꝛg remained in force. And he was anxious to obtain from those princes an approbation of his favourite measure for continuing the imperial crown in his family, the election of his brother Ferdinand to the dignity of king of the Romans, which had been concluded by a majority of votes at the diet of Cologne, in the year 1531, but contested by them as contrary to the fundamental laws of the empire. On these accounts, he could not but be aware of the policy and necessity of coming to a speedy accommodation with the malcontent princes. Negotiations were, accordingly, carried on by his direction with the confederates of Smalkalde, and, after many delays and difficulties, terms of pacification were agreed upon at Nuremberg, and ratified solemnly in the diet at Ratifbon, August 3, 1532. By this treaty, the protestant princes engaged to assist the emperor with all their forces in resisting the invasion of the Turks; and it was stipulated, that universal peace should be established in Germany until the meeting of a general council, the convocation of which within six months the emperor was to endeavour to procure; that no person should be molested on account of religion; that a stop should be put to all processes begun by the imperial chamber against protestants, and the sentences already passed to their detriment be declared void.

Luther had now the satisfaction of seeing, in consequence of this religious truce, one of the principal obstacles to the undisguised profession of his opinions removed. Encouraged by it, those who had been hitherto only secret enemies to the Roman pontiff, now spurned his yoke publicly, and renounced his jurisdiction. This appears from the various cities and provinces in Germany, which, about this time, boldly enlisted themselves under the standard of our reformer. Henceforth the protestants of Germany, who had hitherto been viewed only as a religious sect, came to be considered as a political body of no small consequence; and Luther was incessant in his exhortations to them to confirm the REFORMATION, their grand bond of union, publishing from time to time such writings as might encourage, direct, and aid, them in strengthening and extending their glorious cause.

Soon after the truce of Nuremberg, the elector of Saxony died, and was succeeded by his son John Frederic, who was no less attached than his predecessor to the opinions of Luther, and prepared to defend them with equal zeal and magnanimity. In the mean time the emperor, in conformity to the stipulations of the truce lately concluded, applied to pope Clement VII. by his ambassadors, to call a general council without delay; and in an interview which he had with that pontiff at Bologna, during his journey into Spain, urged the same thing in person. Clement endeavoured at first to divert Charles from the measure; but, finding him inflexible, he had recourse to artifices which he knew would delay, if not entirely defeat, the calling of that assembly. Under the plausible pretext of settling, with all the parties concerned, the preliminaries for such a meeting, he dispatched a nuncio, accompanied by an ambassador from the emperor, to the elector of Saxony as the head of the protestants. In discussing these preliminaries, inextricable difficulties and contests arose. The protestants demanded a council to be held in Germany; the pope insisted that it should meet in Italy; they contended, that all matters in dispute should be determined by the words of Scripture alone; he considered not only the decrees of the church, but the opinions of fathers and doctors, as of equal authority; they required a free council, in which the divines, commissioned by different churches, should be allowed a voice; he aimed at modelling the council in such a manner as would render it entirely dependant on his pleasure. Above all, the protestants thought it unreasonable, that they should bind themselves to submit to the decrees of a council, before they knew on what principles those decrees were to

be founded, by what persons they were to be pronounced, and what forms of proceeding they would observe. The pope maintained it to be altogether unnecessary to call a council, if those who demanded it did not previously declare their resolution to acquiesce in its decrees. In order to adjust such a variety of points, the negotiations were spun out to such a length, as effectually answered the purpose of putting off the meeting of the council during his pontificate.

In 1533, Luther wrote a consolatory epistle to some persons who had suffered hardships for adhering to the Augsbuꝛg confession of faith, in which he says, "The devil is the host, and the world is his inn; so that, wherever you come, you will be sure to find this ugly host." He had also, about this time, a terrible controversy with George duke of Saxony, who had such an aversion to the doctrines promulgated by Luther, that he obliged his subjects to take an oath that they would never embrace them. At Leipsic there were found sixty or seventy persons, who could not be restrained within the boundaries of the established creed, and it was discovered that they had consulted Luther about it; upon which the duke complained to the elector, that Luther had not only abused his person, but had preached up rebellion among his subjects. Luther refused the accusation, by proving that he had been so far from stirring up his subjects against him on the score of religion, that he had exhorted them rather to undergo the greatest hardships, and even suffer themselves to be banished. In the following year, the Bible, translated by Luther into German, was first printed, with the privilege of the elector; and it was published the year after. He likewise gave to the world a book against masses and the consecration of priests, in which he relates a conference which he had with the devil upon those points; for it is a circumstance worthy of observation, that, in the whole history of this great man, he never had any conflicts of any kind, but the devil was always his antagonist. In 1535, the new pope Paul III. was applied to for a general council; and, in the hope of preventing it, he appointed Mantua as the proper place. To this some of the catholic sovereigns, and all the German protestants, strongly objected; being fully persuaded that, in such a council, nothing would be concluded but what would be agreeable to the sentiments and ambition of the pontiff; and they demanded the performance of the emperor's promise, that they should have a council in Germany. At the same time, that they might not be taken by surprise, they desired Luther to draw up a summary of their doctrine, in order to present it to the assembled bishops, if it should be required of them. This summary, which was distinguished by the name of the Articles of Smalkalde, from the place at which they were assembled, is generally joined with the creeds and confessions of the Lutheran church. While our reformer was busily engaged in this work, he was seized with a grievous and very painful disease, a fit of the stone and obstruction of urine, which continued so long as to give his friends serious apprehensions for his life. In the midst of his agonies, and after eleven days' torture, without the smallest relief, he set out, contrary to the advice of his friends, on his return home. The motion of the carriage, which it was expected would prove fatal to him, was the cause of removing the evil under which he was labouring.

In the year 1538, as a general assembly seemed impracticable, the pope, that he might not seem to neglect that degree of reformation which was unquestionably within his power, deputed a certain number of cardinals and bishops, with full authority, to enquire into the abuses and corruptions of the Roman court, and to propose the most effectual method of removing them. It was intended to do as little as possible; still a multitude of enormities were unveiled, an account of which was soon transmitted into Germany, much to the satisfaction of the protestants there. This investigation, partial as it was, proved the necessity of a reformation in the head as well as the members



bers of the church; and it even pointed out many of the corruptions against which Luther had remonstrated with the greatest vehemence. It was, however, intended only as a farce, and as such Luther treated it; and, to ridicule it more strongly, he wrote a short treatise on the subject, to which was prefixed a caricature, representing the pope seated on a high throne, and some cardinals about him with foxes' tails, with which they were brushing off the dust on all sides. Luther published, about the same time, "A Confutation of the pretended Grant of Constantine to Sylvester bishop of Rome; and also some Letters of John Hufs, written from his Prison at Constance, to the Bohemians."

At this time also an event of great advantage to the reformation took place in the death of George duke of Saxony; for his brother Henry, on whom the succession devolved, was as zealously attached to the protestant religion as his predecessor had been to popery: and no sooner was he in possession of his new dominions, than, disregarding a clause in George's will, by which he bequeathed all his territories to the emperor if his brother should attempt any innovation in religion, he immediately invited Luther and some other protestant divines to Leipsic. By their advice and assistance, he soon overturned the whole system of popish rites and doctrines, and established the full exercise of the reformed religion, with the universal applause of his subjects, who had long wished for this change. By this revolution, the whole of Saxony was brought within the protestant pale.

From this time till the latter end of the year 1544, the emperor was so entirely occupied with his wars against the Turks, and Francis I. king of France, that he found it necessary not only to connive at the proceedings of the Protestants, and the progress which their opinions daily made, but to court their favour by repeated acts of indulgence. At length, however, in the year 1545, he came to a resolution to terminate the debates about religion by the force of arms. This resolution he carefully concealed, till the preparations which he had privately made for carrying it into effect were far advanced; when the protestant princes received certain information, from the king of England, and through other channels, of his hostile designs against them, and of the confederacy for the destruction of their cause into which he had entered with the pope. The greater number of them, therefore, after communicating their intelligence and sentiments to each other, determined on taking the proper measures for their own defence; and the elector of Saxony, and the landgrave of Hesse, to prevent being surprised and overwhelmed unawares by a superior force, with wonderful rapidity raised a formidable army.

While this terrible storm was rising, Luther was saved, by a seasonable death, from feeling or beholding its destructive rage. For some time before that event he felt his strength declining, his constitution being worn out by a prodigious multiplicity of business, added to the labour of discharging his ministerial function with unremitting diligence, to the fatigue of constant study, besides the composition of works as voluminous as if he had enjoyed uninterrupted leisure and retirement. However, in the beginning of the year 1546, he was able to pay a visit to his native country, accompanied by Melancthon, and returned in safety to Wittemberg. Soon afterwards he was induced to pay a second to Eyleben, on the invitation of the counts of Mansfeldt, in order to compose a diffension which had arisen among them respecting the boundaries of their territories. Though he had not been accustomed to meddle in such affairs, yet, as he was born at Eyleben, which was dependant on those counts, he could not refuse the service which he might be able to render, by his advice or authority, in accommodating their differences. On this occasion, he met with a splendid reception from the counts; and afterwards made use of his best endeavours to settle the matters in dispute, and sometimes preached in the church, where he likewise administered the sacrament. While he was

thus engaged, he was seized with a violent inflammation in the stomach, which threatened a speedy and fatal issue. In this situation, his natural intrepidity did not forsake him; and his last conversation with his friends, on the day preceding that of his death, was concerning the happiness reserved for good men in a future life, of which he spoke with the fervour and delight natural to one who expected and wished to enter soon upon the enjoyment of it. On the morning of the 18th of February, 1546, being awakened from sleep by his disorder, and perceiving his end approaching, he commended his spirit into the hands of God, and quietly departed this life, in the sixty-third year of his age. The account of his death filled the Roman-catholic party with excessive as well as indecent joy, and damped the spirit of all his followers; neither party sufficiently considering that his doctrines were now so firmly rooted, as to be in a condition to flourish independently of the hand which had planted them. The counts of Mansfeldt were desirous that he might be buried in their territories; but, by the express order of the elector of Saxony, his remains were conveyed to Wittemberg, where they were interred with more extraordinary pomp than was perhaps ever displayed at the funeral of any private person; princes, counts, nobles, and students, without number, attending the procession. Innumerable were the falsehoods invented by the papists concerning the manner of his death; and innumerable were the calumnies which they propagated concerning his principles and conduct. In Bayle the reader may meet with an ample collection and refutation of these weak efforts of malignity. He has related, however, an anecdote of the emperor Charles V. which deserves to be mentioned in honour of the generous treatment which he showed to the memory of our reformer. While, in the year 1547, his troops were quartered in Wittemberg, a soldier gave Luther's effigy in the church of the castle two stabs with a dagger; and the Spaniards were very urgent with him to cause the monument of the pretended heresiarch to be demolished, and his bones to be dug up and burnt. But the emperor instantly forbade that any insult should be offered to his tomb or remains, upon pain of death: "I have nothing farther to do with Luther," he nobly said; "and he is henceforth subject to another Judge, whose jurisdiction it is not lawful for me to usurp. I make no war with the dead, but with the living, who are still in arms against me."

We cannot bring this article to a close, without referring to the testimonies of the learned and the wise respecting the character of Luther, who introduced, not into Germany only, but into the world, a new and most important era, and whose name can never be forgotten while any thing of principle remains that is deserving of remembrance. It must not be overlooked, that the grand and leading doctrine of Lutheranism, and that on which the permanent foundation of the reformed religion was laid, is the right of private judgment in matters of religion. To this, as we have seen, he was at all times ready to devote his talents, his character, and his life; and, says the biographer of Leo X. "the great and imperishable merit of the reformer consists in his having demonstrated it by such arguments, as neither the efforts of his adversaries, nor his own subsequent conduct, have been able either to confute or invalidate." In passing judgment upon the characters of men, says Robertson, we ought to try them by the principles and maxims of their own age, and not by those of another; for, although virtue and vice are at all times the same, manners and customs are continually varying. Some parts of Luther's behaviour, which to us appear most culpable, gave no disgust to his contemporaries. It was even by some of those qualities, which we are now apt to blame, that he was fitted for accomplishing the great work in which he embarked. See KNOX, vol. xi. p. 842.

Luther himself was sensible of defects, which he pathetically acknowledges in an address to the reader of his works: "I intreat you," says he, "to read my writings with



with cool consideration, and even with much pity. I wish you to know, that, when I began the affair of indulgences, I was a monk, and a most mad papist. So intoxicated was I, and drenched in papal dogmas, that I would have been most ready at all times to murder, or assist in murdering, any person who should utter a syllable against the pope. I was always earnest in defending doctrines I professed. I went seriously to work, as one who had a horrible dread of the day of judgment, and who from his inmost soul was anxious for salvation. You will find, therefore, in my earlier writings, with how much humility, on many occasions, I gave up considerable points to the pope, which I now detest as blasphemous and abominable in the highest degree. This error my slanderers may call inconsistency; but you, my pious readers, will have the kindness to make some allowance, on account of the times, and my own inexperience. I stood absolutely alone at first; and certainly was very unlearned, and very unfit to undertake matters of such vast importance. It was by accident, not willingly or by design, that I fell into those violent disputes. God is my witness."

Dr. Campbell, in his Lectures on Ecclesiastical History, has rendered our reformer his testimony of respect and gratitude; but, as this is conveyed in sentiments and language but little different from the observations of Dr. Robertson, we shall extract the account from the latter rather than the former: "As he was raised up by Providence to be the author of one of the greatest and most interesting revolutions in history, there is not any person, perhaps, whose character had been drawn with such opposite colours. In his own age, one party, struck with horror and inflamed with rage, when they saw with what a daring hand he overturned every thing which they held to be sacred, or valued as beneficial, imputed to him not only all the defects and vices of a man, but the qualities of a dæmon. The other, warmed with admiration and gratitude, which they thought he merited as the restorer of light and liberty to the Christian church, ascribed to him perfections above the condition of humanity, and viewed all his actions with a veneration, bordering on that which should be paid only to those who are guided by the immediate inspiration of heaven. It is his own conduct, not the undistinguishing censure or the exaggerated praise of his contemporaries, that ought to regulate the opinions of the present age concerning him. Zeal for what he regarded as truth, undaunted intrepidity to maintain his own system, abilities, both natural and acquired, to defend his principles, and unwearied industry in propagating them, are virtues which shine so conspicuously in every part of his behaviour, that even his enemies must allow him to have possessed them in an eminent degree. To these may be added, with equal justice, such purity, and even austerities, of manners, as became one who assumed the character of a reformer; such sanctity of life as suited the doctrine which he delivered; and such perfect disinterestedness as affords no slight presumption of his sincerity. Superior to all selfish considerations, a stranger to all the elegancies of life, and despising its pleasures, he left the honours and emoluments of the church to his disciples, remaining satisfied himself in his original state of professor of the university, and pastor of the town of Wittenburg, with the moderate appointment annexed to each. His extraordinary qualities were allayed with no inconsiderable mixture of human frailty and human passions. These, however, were of a nature, that they cannot be imputed to malevolence or corruption of heart, but seem to have taken their rise from the same source with many of his virtues. Accustomed himself to consider every thing as subordinate to truth, he expected the same deference for it from other men; and, without making any allowances for their timidity or prejudices, he poured forth against such as disappointed him in this particular, a torrent of invective and abuse. Regardless of any distinction of rank or character when his doctrines

were attacked, he chastised all his adversaries indiscriminately, with the same rough hand; neither the royal dignity of Henry VIII. nor the eminent learning and abilities of Erasmus, screened them from the same gross abuse with which he treated Tetzel or Eckius. To rouse mankind, when sunk in ignorance and superstition, and to encounter the rage of bigotry armed with power, required the utmost vehemence of zeal, as well as a temper daring to excess. A gentle call would neither have reached nor have excited those to whom it must have been addressed. A spirit more able but less vigorous than Luther's would have shrunk back from dangers which he braved and surmounted. Towards the close of Luther's life, though without any perceptible diminution of his zeal and abilities, the infirmities of his temper increased upon him, so that he grew daily more peevish, more irascible, and more impatient of contradiction. Having lived to be a witness of his own amazing success, to see a great part of Europe embrace his doctrines, and to shake the foundation of papal Rome, before which the mightiest monarchs had trembled, he discovered, on some occasions, symptoms of vanity and self-applause. He must have been, indeed, more than man, if, upon contemplating all that he actually accomplished, he had never felt any sentiment of this kind rising in his breast."

There is yet another testimony to the life and labours of this great man that we cannot omit: "Martin Luther's life," says bishop Atterbury, "was a continual warfare; he was engaged against the united forces of the papal world, and he stood the shock of them bravely, both with courage and success. He was a man certainly of high endowments of mind, and great virtues: he had a vast understanding, which raised him up to a pitch of learning unknown to the age in which he lived; his knowledge in scripture was admirable, his elocution manly, and his way of reasoning with all the subtilty that those plain truths he delivered would bear; his thoughts were bent always on great designs, and he had a resolution fitted to go through with them, and the assurance of his mind was not to be shaken or surpris'd, and that *παρρησία* of his (for I know not what else to call it) before the diet of Worms, was such as might have become the days of the apostles. His life was holy, and, when he had leisure for retirement, severe; his virtues active chiefly, and hominical, and not those lazy sullen ones of the cloister. He had no ambition but in the service of God: for other things, neither his enjoyment nor wishes ever went higher than the bare conveniences of living. He was of a temper particularly averse to covetousness or any base sin, and charitable even to a fault, without respect to his own occasions. If, among this crowd of virtues, a failing crept in, we must remember that an apostle himself had not been irreproachable; if, in the body of his doctrine, one flaw is to be seen, yet the greatest lights of the church, and in the purest times of it, were, we know, not exact in all their opinions. Upon the whole, we have certainly great reason to break out in the phrase of the prophet, and say, How beautiful, upon the mountains, are the feet of him that bringeth glad tidings!" Gibbon, speaking of the effects produced by the exertions of Luther and his contemporaries, says, "The philosopher must own his obligations to these fearless enthusiasts. By their hands the lofty fabric of superstition, from the abuse of indulgences to the intercession of the Virgin, has been levelled with the ground. Myriads of both sexes of the monastic profession were restored to liberty and the labours of social life. The chain of authority was broken which restrains the bigot from thinking as he pleases, and the slave from speaking as he thinks. The popes, fathers, and councils, were no longer the supreme and infallible judges of the world; and each Christian was taught to acknowledge no law but the scriptures, no interpreter but his own conscience."

Luther left behind him three sons; and his wife, Catharina



tharine à Boria, survived him almost seven years. She remained during the first year of her widowhood at Wittemberg, though Luther had advised her to seek another place of residence. She went from thence in the year 1547, when the town was surrendered to the emperor Charles V. Before her departure, she had received a present of fifty crowns from Christian III. king of Denmark; and the elector of Saxony, and the counts of Mansfeldt, gave her tokens of their liberality. With these additions to what Luther had left her, she had wherewithal to maintain herself and her family handsomely. She returned to Wittemberg when the town was restored to the elector; where she lived in a very devout and pious manner, till the plague obliged her to leave it again in the year 1552. She sold what she had at Wittemberg; and retired to Torgau, with a resolution to end her days there. An unfortunate mischance befel her in her journey thither, which proved fatal to her. The horses growing unruly, and attempting to run away, she leaped out of the vehicle she was conveyed in, and got a fall, of

which she died about a quarter of a year after at Torgau, upon the 20th of December, 1552. She was buried there in the great church, where her tomb and epitaph are still to be seen; and the university of Wittemberg, which was then at Torgau because the plague raged at Wittemberg, published an account of the funeral.

The numerous works of Luther, in the Latin and German languages, which are partly exegetical, partly didactic, and partly polemical, were collected together after his death, and published at Jena, in 1556, in 4 vols. folio, and afterwards at Wittemberg, in 1572, in 7 vols. folio. We believe our readers will be gratified by being presented with a fac-simile of the hand-writing of this great reformer. It is copied from his own Bible, preserved at Erfurt in Germany, in the dissolved priory of St. Augustine, of which, as we have noticed at the beginning of this article, he was for some time a monk, and where he first had the good fortune to meet with a perfect copy of the sacred volume.

*Ab sorpla est Mors in Vitoria  
Murchy Lubber J*

**LUTHERAN**, *f.* One who professes the Christian religion as reformed by Luther.—I know her for a spleeny Lutheran. *Shakespeare's Henry VIII.*

**LUTHERAN**, *adj.* According to the doctrine of Luther.—Their religion is Lutheran, which was propagated among them by Gustavus Vasa about the year 1523. *Guthrie.*

**LUTHERANISM**, *f.* The religion of Lutherans.—Protestantism is divided into *Lutheranism* and Calvinism, so called from Luther and Calvin, the two distinguished reformers of the sixteenth century. *Guthrie.*

Lutheranism has undergone some alteration since the time of its founder. Luther rejected the Epistle of St. James, as inconsistent with the doctrine of St. Paul in relation to justification; he also set aside the Apocalypse; both which are now received as canonical in the Lutheran church. Luther reduced the number of sacraments to two, viz. baptism and the eucharist; but he believed the impanation, or consubstantiation; that is, that the matter of the bread and wine remain with the body and blood of Christ; and it is in this article, that the main difference between the Lutheran and English churches consists. Luther maintained the mass to be no sacrifice; he exploded the adoration of the host, auricular confession, meritorious works, indulgences, purgatory, the worship of images, &c. which had been introduced in the corrupt times of the Romish church. He also opposed the doctrine of free-will; maintained predestination; asserted that we are necessitated in all we do; that all our actions done in a state of sin, and even the virtues themselves of heathens, are crimes; that we are only justified by the imputation of the merits and satisfaction of Christ. He also opposed the fastings in the Romish church, monastic vows, the celibacy of the clergy, &c.

Some authors reckon thirty-nine different sects, which at different times have sprung up among the Lutherans.

The Lutherans, of all protestants, are those who differ least from the Romish church; as they affirm, that the body and blood of Christ are materially present in the sacrament of the Lord's supper, though in an incomprehensible manner; and likewise represent some religious rites and institutions, as the use of images in churches, the distinguishing vestments of the clergy, the private confession of sins, the use of wafers in the administration of the Lord's supper, the form of exorcism in the celebra-

tion of baptism, and other ceremonies of the like nature, as tolerable, and some of them as useful. The Lutherans maintain, with regard to the divine decrees, that they respect the salvation or misery of men, in consequence of a previous knowledge of their sentiments and characters, and not as free and unconditional, and as founded on the mere will of God. Towards the close of the 17th century, the Lutherans began to entertain a greater liberality of sentiment than they had before adopted; though in many places they persevered longer in severe and despotic principles than other protestant churches. Their public teachers now enjoy an unbounded liberty of dissenting from the decisions of those symbols, or creeds, which were once deemed almost infallible rules of faith and practice; and of declaring their dissent in the manner they judge the most expedient. Mosheim attributes this change in their sentiments to the maxim, which they generally adopted, That Christians were accountable to God alone for their religious opinions; and that no individual could be justly punished by the magistrate for his erroneous opinions, while he conducted himself like a virtuous and obedient subject, and made no attempts to disturb the peace and order of civil society.

**LUTHER'N**, *f.* [*lucarne*, Fr. from the Lat. *lucerna*, light, or lantern.] A kind of window over the cornice, in the roof of a building; standing perpendicularly over the naked of the wall; and serving to illuminate the upper story. Architects distinguish them into various kinds, according to their forms; as square, semicircular, bulls' eyes, flat arches, Flemish lutherns, &c.

**LUTHINGLAND**, a village in Suffolk, by the lake Luthing, near the river Yare.

**LUTI** (Benedetto), an eminent painter, born at Florence in 1666, was the disciple of Gabbiani, and from him went to Rome, to put himself under the direction of Ciro Ferri; but, being disappointed by his death, formed a style of his own, the result of various imitations; select in design, amene and lucid in colour, well contrasted by masses of light and shade, and harmonious to the eye. He painted not without merit in fresco, and with greater merit in oil: his "Cain flying from his murdered brother" has something of sublimity and pathos, breathing refinement of taste and elegance. He died in 1724, at the age of fifty-eight. *Fuseli's Pilkington.*

**LUTIANUS**, *f.* in ichthyology, a genus of fishes instituted



rated by Bloch, and adopted by Cedepe; but not by Dr. Turton in his translation of Gmelin's Linnæus, nor by Dr. Shaw in his more recent work on General Zoology. We shall follow the example of the latter, who has placed all the species under the genus SPARUS.

Nearly the same remarks will apply to the genus HOLOCENTRUS, which we omitted to notice in its proper place, at vol. x. p. 244. But it should be observed, that neither of those genera could have been known by Gmelin, as the last six parts of Bloch's great work had not then appeared; and Dr. Turton, adhering to his text, has omitted them. Dr. Shaw has adopted the Holocentrus; but, as we have passed it by, we shall place the species among those of the genus they most resemble, the PERCA.

LUTING, *f.* The method or process of closing with clay. The composition with which vessels are closed for chemical purposes. See the article CHEMISTRY, vol. iv. p. 192, 374, 5.

It is generally agreed, that the rapid progress made in chemistry within the last twenty years, is partly owing to the various apparatus invented by the celebrated Lavoisier, and to the additional precautions that have been adopted in the art of luting them. Luting has rendered essential services to chemistry; for, by facilitating the condensation of many aeriform products, it has furnished the means of determining their nature, and ascertaining their quantity and weight. This did not escape the sagacity of that ingenious French chemist M. Chaptal: "It is on the art of properly luting an apparatus," says he, "that the whole success of an operation depends." Among the substances most commonly used for this purpose are the greasy lutings, paste of almonds, or lincsed from which the oil has been expressed, and mixed with glue; that made of white of eggs, and of soft cheese mixed with lime. The use of these different kinds is attended with inconveniences which render them improper to be employed in all circumstances. The greasy luting, for instance, composed of dried clay and oil combined with an oxyd of lead, can only be applied on such parts as are not exposed to too violent a degree of heat; they melt with a high temperature, and of course do more harm than good. Those made with lincsed and almonds mixed with glue or gelatine, are frequently too porous, easily destroyed by acids, and by ammoniac reduced to a gaseous state. The inconvenience of those prepared from white of egg and cream-cheese, mixed with lime, is, that they become solid very soon after they are incorporated, so that it is extremely difficult to lay them on. The following therefore, which avoids all the above inconveniences, is recommended in the Annales de Chimie, by professor Payssé: "Take white of eggs together with the yolks; carbonated lime pulverised, or lime well flaked in the air, half the weight of the eggs; apply it to a linen cloth, and lute with it." This composition, it is observed, dries very slowly, and possesses a certain elasticity when dry; yet is so compact, that vessels impermeable to water have been formed of it, which were even capable of being highly polished; it resists any degree of heat, and the action of any vapour, even that of oxygenated muriatic acid.

LUTISPURG, a town of Switzerland, in the county of Tecklenburg: four miles north of Lichtensteig.

LUTKE, a town of Prussia, in the province of Natangen: three miles east of Johannesburg.

LUTKEN DORTMUND, a town of Germany, in the county of Mark: three miles south of Catrop.

LUTKENBORG, a town of the duchy of Holstein: thirty miles north Lubec, and fifty-five north-north-east of Hamburg.

LUTMA (Janus or John), an engraver and goldsmith of Amsterdam, in the sixteenth century, who distinguished himself by the invention of a new mode of art, which had its day of novelty, and was for a time popular among superficial connoisseurs; it was termed *opus mallei*, being performed with a hammer, and small pointed punches, which made an impression upon the copper; and, by being

repeated as occasion required, the shadows were formed either darker or fainter, at pleasure. The burr, which was necessarily raised upon the surface of the copper by such an operation, was not entirely removed by the scraper; and, in the early impressions, is the means of producing a soft and agreeable effect. He engraved four plates in this style, which are as follows: Janus Lutma; John Lutma, his father; the poet Vondel; and P. C. Hooft, the historian; all of them in folio, and apparently from his own drawings.

LUTMA (John), the son of the preceding, was born at Amsterdam, A. D. 1609. He was likewise a goldsmith, and executed some few plates; among others the following: The portrait of John Lutma the father, habited in a robe bordered with ermine, holding spectacles and a pencil; portrait of himself, seated at a table, drawing; he has on a broad-brimmed hat, which overshadows his face: this print is very rare; both in folio; and a view of a large fountain with statues, and the Antonine column, with some other ruins at Rome. It is first etched in a coarse bold style, and the shadows are worked upon with a fine mezzotinto tool. The effect produced by this mixture is confused and heavy, but not altogether disagreeable to the eye.

JAMES LUTMA was of the same family, and also resided at Amsterdam; by this artist we have a set of twelve middling-sized upright plates of ornamental shields and foliage, etched in a neat style and finished with the graver; likewise the portraits of the three Lutmas, marked "John Lutma of Oude inv. James Lutma fecit, aqua forti."

LUTOMIR'SK, a town of the duchy of Warfaw: eighteen miles south-south-east of Lencicz, and eighty west-fourth-west of Warfaw.

LUTON, a considerable market-town in Bedfordshire, situated among some hills on the banks of the river Lea; three miles from Dunstable, and thirty-one from London. The town is long and irregular, shaped something like the Roman Y, the angles branching off from the market-house, which is an extensive building. The population of the hundred of Flitt, (of which Luton is the only considerable place,) according to the returns in the year 1811, was 2597, inhabiting 1644 houses. The only structure in the town deserving attention is the church, which consists of a choir, a nave and two aisles, supported by ten pointed arches, two transepts, and a handsome embattled tower at the west end, checkered with flint and free-stone; at the corners are hexangular turrets, similar to that at Dunstable. The arch of the west door is ornamented with mouldings of various flowers, &c. Within the church is a singular piece of ancient architecture, an octagonal stone font, inclosed in a lofty wooden frame of pointed arches, terminated with elegant tabernacle-work. The consecrated water, during the prevalence of the Roman ceremonies, was kept in a large basin at the top, whence it was let down by the priest, through a pipe, into the font. On the inside of the roof a vine is represented, guarded by a lamb from the assaults of a dragon: emblematical of the defence which baptism affords to the church from the attempts of the devil. On the north side of the choir is an elegant chapel, founded by John lord Wenlock, who bore a distinguished part in the contest between the houses of York and Lancaster. The principal manufacture carried on in Luton is that of straw bonnets. A weekly market, noted for its abundant supply of corn, is held on Mondays; it is of great antiquity, being mentioned in the Domesday Survey, where the tolls are valued at 190s. per annum; and here are two annual fairs. Pomfret, the poet, was a native of this town: his father was first curate, and then vicar, of the parish.

About three miles from the town, on an elevated situation at the border of the Bedfordshire downs, in the midst of a well-wooded park, stands Luton-Hoo, the seat of the marquis of Bute. The old park, which consisted of about 300 acres, inclosed by Mr Robert Napier, was enlarged to



1200 by the late earl of Bute, and now contains about 1500 acres. The mansion was in a great measure rebuilt by the late earl, who employed Mr. Adam the architect. The principal rooms, particularly the library, drawing-room, and saloon, are on a magnificent scale. The library, which is 146 feet in length, is esteemed but little inferior to that of Blenheim. The collection of pictures is very large and valuable, chiefly of the Italian and Flemish schools. The chapel is fitted up with carving in wood, which was originally executed for sir Thomas Pope, at Tittenhanger, Herts, in 1548, and removed to Luton in perfect preservation by sir Robert Napier. In the adjoining wood is a portico, a beautiful piece of brick-building, designed for a mansion intended to have been built by lord Wenlock, but which was never completed; and in the park is a stone tower of great antiquity.

Silfoe, or Sivilsho, between Luton and Bedford, has fairs on May 12 and Sept. 20. At Pullox-Hill, near Silfoe, about eighty years ago a gold mine was discovered, which was seized for the king by the society of royal mine-adventurers; but the refiners, finding what gold they extracted from the ore did not always answer the charge of separation, did not go on with it.

Sommeris is two miles north-east of Luton, where is the elegant gate-house of brick, now belonging to the park of Luton-house, and makes one of the beauties of that delightful seat.

The river Lea, which rises near Luton, runs south-east by Wheat-Hampstead in Hertfordshire, then east through Hertford and Ware, and afterwards south, dividing Essex from Hertfordshire, and Essex from Middlesex, falls into the Thames a little below Blackwall. By this river there are large quantities of corn and malt brought out of Hertfordshire to London. A canal has lately been made from this river, which runs into the Thames near Limehouse, for the passage of barges. *British Directory*, vol. v. *Lyttons. Beauties of England and Wales*.

LUTON, a town of Bengal: thirteen miles north-west of Kishenagur.

LUTRI, a town of Swisserland, in the county of Vaud, situated on the north coast of the lake of Geneva: three miles east of Laufanne.

LUTTENBURG, or LUTEMBERG, a town of the duchy of Stiria, on the river Stantz: twelve miles east of Pettau, and one hundred south of Vienna. Lat. 46. 35. N. lon. 16. 8. E.

LUTTENBERG (Ober), a town of Stiria: three miles south of Luttenberg.

LUTTER, a river of Germany, which runs into the Bega two miles south of Hervorden.—A river of Germany, which runs into the Lachte twelve miles north-east of Zelle.—A town of Westphalia, in the duchy of Brunswick: eleven miles north-west of Goslar.

LUTTERBERG, a town of Westphalia, in the principality of Grubenhagen. It was formerly a county, and for a long time was governed by lords of its own: fifteen miles south of Goslar.

LUTTERBERG. See LAUTERBERG, vol. xii. p. 315.

LUTTEREL, an island of North America, in Machias Bay, on the coast of Maine.

LUTTERHAUSEN, a town of the duchy of Holstein: eight miles from Hamburg.

LUTTERINGHAUSER, a town of the duchy of Berg: two miles north-east of Lennep.

LUTTERLOCK, a township of America, in Orleans county, Vermont: north of Craftsborough.

LUTTERWORTH, a market-town in Leicestershire, is situated on the bank of the river Swift; about two miles from the Watling-street road; thirteen miles from Leicester, and eighty-three from London. Leland describes this "towne as scant half so bigge as Lughborrow; but in it there is an hospital of the foundation of two or three of the Verdounes, that were lords of auncient tyme of the towne." This hospital was founded in the reign of king

John, by Roise de Verdon and Nicholas her son, for a priest and six poor men, and to keep hospitality for poor men travelling that way. The parish-church of Lutterworth is a spacious structure, with a nave, two aisles, a chancel, and a tower with four turrets. The chancel, which is separated from the nave by a beautiful screen, is supposed by Burton to have been built by lord Ferrers of Groby, as his arms are cut on the outside over the great window. By the great storm, in 1703, the spire, which was forty-seven feet higher than the present turrets, was blown down, and, falling on the roof of the church, did great damage to the body, pews, &c. About the year 1740, the whole was repaired, a pavement of chequered stone laid, and all the interior made new, except the pulpit, which is of thick oak planks, of an hexagonal shape, and has a seam of carved work in the joints; this pulpit is preserved with great veneration, in memory of the distinguished reformer, John Wickliffe, who was rector of this parish, and died suddenly, while hearing mass, December 31st, 1387. The chair in which he breathed his last is also preserved with great care; as is likewise another relic used by him, the communion-cloth of purple velvet trimmed with gold. His body was buried in this church; but, his doctrines having been condemned, his remains were taken up and burned, by order of the council of Sienna, in 1428, and his ashes cast into the river. His portrait, by S. Fielding, hangs over the gallery at the west end of the church. The font was given by Basil earl of Denbigh; the canopy or covering, which is very neat, and was erected in 1704, is pretended to be an exact model of the old spire. The rectory, which is valuable, is in the gift of the crown.

A meeting-house for dissenters was built here in 1777, and is numerously attended. Here are also a school-house and alms-house built by the bequest of Mr. Edward Sherrier. Among other benefactions to this town, Mr. Richard Elkington, by his will dated May 29th, 1607, left in trust to the mayor, bailiff, and burgesses, of Leicester, 50l. to be lent in sums of 10l. each to five tradesmen of Lutterworth for one year at five per cent. the interest to be distributed among certain poor persons. The cotton-manufacture is carried on here to considerable extent; and some large buildings have been lately erected as factories and workshops. Many hands are also employed in making stockings. A weekly market is held on Thursdays, granted, with an annual fair, by king Henry V. in the second year of his reign; three other fairs have since been obtained; the fair-days are, Feb. 18, April 2, Holy Thursday, and Sept. 16.

In the year 1789, there were in Lutterworth 360 houses; which, on the average of  $4\frac{1}{2}$  to a house, would make the number of inhabitants 1620. In the return under the population-act in 1801, the number of houses is stated at only 277, and of inhabitants 1632. The whole hundred of Guthlanton, in which Lutterworth is the only market-town, is stated, in the returns of 1811, to contain 3606 inhabited houses, and 17,622 inhabitants.

The whole people of Lutterworth, till within these fifty years, were obliged to grind all their malt at one particular mill, and their corn at another; and to bake all their bread in one oven; and so very arbitrary was the proprietor, that he once brought an action against a person for having a cake baked in his house, which was deemed *town-bread*. In those days of Egyptian bondage, an inhabitant of Lutterworth durst not buy so much as a pint of flour of a neighbouring miller. The people submitted to this oppression for a long time with painful reluctance; till at length a patriot arose, whose name was Bickley, who not only roused his fellow-citizens to resistance, but had spirit enough to erect a mill of his own; his example was followed by others, and several mills soon raised their heads in defiance of the 'squire's mill, who immediately commenced actions against all who had the presumption to dispute his right. All the inhabitants entered into a bond



to defend the action; and the contest was finally decided at Leicester assizes, on July 24, 1758, and given in favour of the parishioners, with costs of suit.

Near the town formerly stood a mansion house called Spital, belonging to the Shuckburgh family.—About a mile from this place, on the London road, is Misterton-lodge, the seat of Jacob-Henry Franks, esq.—About a mile and a half south-west is Cotesbach, where resides the Rev.—Marriott, LL.D.—About five miles from Lutterworth in the Watling-street road, stands a stone which terminates the three counties of Leicester, Warwick, and Northampton. *British Directory*, vol. iii. *Nichols's Hist. of Leicestershire*.

LUTTON, a village in the parish of Steeple, and isle of Purbeck, Dorset.—A village in Northamptonshire, south-east of Oundle.

LUTTON (East and West), two villages in the east riding of Yorkshire, east of Malton.

LUTTONBORN, a village near Holbeach, Lincolnshire.

LUTREL, an island of North America, in Machias Bay, on the coast of Maine.

LU'TULENCE, *f.* [from *lutulent.*] Muddiness; dirtiness.

LU'TULENT, *adj.* [*lutulentus*, Lat.] Muddy; turbid.

LU'TUM, *f.* [Latin.] Clay; mud; loam.

LU'TUM, *f.* in botany. See RESEDA.

LU'TUM SAPIENTIAE, *f.* The hermetical seal; made by melting the end of a glass vessel by a lamp, and twisting it up with a pair of pliers.

LUTZELSTEIN, or PETITE PIERRE, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Rhine, situated on a mountain, and defended by a castle; heretofore the capital of a principality, belonging to the elector palatine, which comprehended a few villages, with the title of county. It is twenty-four miles north-west of Strasburg.

LUTZEN, a town of Saxony, in the territory of Merseburg, containing a citadel. Near this town, in 1632, happened the famous battle between the Swedes and the Imperialists, in which the former got the better, but at the same time lost their great king Gustavus Adolphus: on the spot where he was found dead, nothing more than a bare stone has been erected, which is still to be seen. Here also was fought a great battle between the French and Russians on the 2d of May, 1813, in which both sides claimed the victory, but which however seems to have belonged to the French, who lost 10,000 men, while the allied Russians and Prussians lost 25,000. See the article LONDON, vol. xiii. p. 338. Lutzen is nine miles east-south-east of Merseburg, and ten west-south-west of Leipzig. Lat. 51. 16. N. lon. 12. 8. E.

LUTZENREUT, a town of Germany, in the principality of Bayreuth: three miles north-north-east of Bayreuth.

LUVINO, a town of Italy, in the department of the Verbano, on the east bank of Lake Maggiore: twenty miles north-west of Como, and thirty-six north-north-west of Milan.

LU'VIO, a town of Sweden, in the government of Abo: nine miles south-south-west of Biornborg.

To LUX, or LUX'ATE, *v. a.* [*luxer*, Fr. *luxo*, Lat.] To put out of joint; to disjoint.—Consider well the *luxated* joint, which way it stripped off; it requireth to be returned in the same manner. *Wifeman*.

Descending carelessly from his couch, the fall  
Lux'd his joint neck, and spinal marrow bruised. *Philips*.

LUX'ATING, or LUXING, *f.* The act of putting out of joint.

LUXA'TION, *f.* The act of disjointing.—Any thing disjointed.—The undue situation or connection of parts, in fractures and *luxations*, are to be rectified by chirurgical means. *Floyer*.

LUXATION, or DISLOCATION, in surgery, denotes any case where the articular extremities of bones abandon their

natural relations, whether the head of a bone escapes from a cavity defined for its reception, or whether the surfaces of the joint cease to correspond properly one to the other. A luxation is termed *complete*, when the surfaces of the joint are totally separated; *incomplete*, when they remain partially in contact, though in a state of displacement with respect to each other. Like fractures, dislocations are also divided into *simple* and *compound*; simple, when there is no external wound communicating with the joint; compound, when the case is conjoined with such an accident. Other general differences of luxations depend upon the articulation in which they take place; the direction in which the bone is displaced; the length of time the accident has continued; the cause that has produced it, &c. &c. for all which, see the article SURGERY.

LUX'BOROUGH, a village near Dunster, Somerset.

LUX'BURG. See LYSEBURG.

LUX'E, *f.* [Fr. *luxus*, Lat.] Luxury; voluptuousness. *Not used*:

The pow'r of wealth I try'd,  
And all the various *luxes* of costly pride. *Prior*.

LUX'EMBURG, formerly a duchy of Germany, and one of the provinces of the Netherlands; bounded on the north by the bishopric of Liege and duchies of Limburg and Juliers, on the east by the electorate of Treves, and on the south and west by France. It lies in the centre of the forest of Ardennes. Its soil is not very fertile, but it produces some corn; and the country has other advantages belonging to it, as, namely, a good breed of cattle, wine, and all sorts of game, with several kinds of metals, and particularly many iron-works, and founderies for cannon, which last constitute its greatest riches. It is watered also by many small rivers, the principal of which are the Ourt, the Semois, the Sals, and the Cliers, which discharge themselves into the Meuse, with several others which flow into the Moselle. The Meuse washes this duchy on the west, and the Moselle runs through a part of it to the south-east. In the whole duchy, exclusive of the principal town, (Luxemburg,) are twenty-three smaller ones. Charles IV. emperor of the Romans, raised the county of Luxemburg, in the year 1354, to a duchy; but, he dying without heirs, it came by virtue of his testament to Wenzel, king of the Romans and Bohemia, who succeeded him; and who, by way of mortgage, ceded to the princess Elizabeth, daughter to his brother John of Luxemburg, and duke of Gorlitz, (who was first married to Anthony duke of Burgundy, and afterwards to John of Bavaria,) this duchy in lieu of the dowry of 120,000 Rhenish florins which he had promised to give her. In the year 1444, this princess ceded all her right in the duchy of Luxemburg to Philip the Good, duke of Burgundy. Afterwards this duchy underwent the same fate with the other provinces of the Netherlands. By the peace of the Pyrennees in 1659, France obtained a part thereof: the part ceded to France at that time included the districts and towns of Thionville, Montmedy, Marville, Chevancy, Carignan, and Damvilliers; but, during the late war, the whole submitted to the French *republic*; and, by a much later treaty, it was formally annexed to the French *empire*, and became a part of the Department of the FORESTS, which see, vol. vii. p. 568.—This country will certainly not now remain with its late conquerors, neither will it be restored to its former owners; but will probably form a part of the new kingdom of Belgium.

LUX'EMBURG, capital of the above province. From being anciently only a castle, built by the people of Treves, it was afterwards enlarged by the Romans, who gave it the name of *Augusta Romanorum*. When Merovingus king of France conquered the country, it changed its name, and was called *Lucis Burgum*, i. e. The City of the Sun, because the Sun was anciently adored there, as the Moon was at Arlon, Jupiter at Ivoy, now called Carignan, and Mars at Marche en Famine. The city of Luxemburg is small, but strong as well from its situation as its fortifications.



ations. Sigefroy I. comte of Luxemburg, built a wall round it in the tenth century. In 1543 Luxemburg was taken and pillaged by the French, commanded by Charles duke of Orleans, second son of Francis I. but in the year 1544, Ferdinand de Gonzago, viceroy of Sicily, and general under Charles V. retook it after a siege of fifteen days. It remained under the dominion of Spain till the year 1684, when the French came to assault it, under the command of mareschal de Crequy, after they had bombarded it the preceding year; the trenches were opened the 8th of May, and the city surrendered the 4th of June. The French continued its masters, by virtue of a treaty made at Ratisbon the same year, and very much extended the fortifications; but, by the peace of Ryswick, in 1697, it was restored to Spain in the condition it then was. It was again taken by the French in 1701, and by the barrier treaty it was ceded to the States-general; but in 1715 it was restored to the emperor, whose troops took possession of it the 16th of January, 1715. The river Alsit runs through it, and divides it into Upper Town and Lower; the former situated on a rock, the latter in a plain; the fortifications of it were thought to be almost the strongest in Europe. Luxemburg was blockaded by the French, as soon as they had made themselves masters of the surrounding country; and surrendered to them on the 7th of June, 1795, by capitulation. The surrender of Luxemburg put the French in possession of the whole country on the left of the Rhine, except Mentz. Population about 10,000. It is fifty miles south-south-east of Liege, and sixteen south-west of Treves. Lat. 49. 40. N. lon. 6. 13. E.

**LUXEMBURG** (Francis-Henry de Montmorenci, Duke of), marshal of France, and a celebrated general, was born in 1628, being the posthumous son of the count of Boutteville, who was beheaded under Louis XIII. for fighting a duel. Devoting himself to a military life, he was present in 1643 at the battle of Rocroi gained by the great Condé, whose various fortunes he followed. He resembled that hero in several of his qualities: in ardour of mind, quick and sure judgment, prompt execution, and an avidity for the acquisition of knowledge. In 1662 he was admitted a duke and peer of France; and in 1667 he was made a lieutenant-general, in which station he distinguished himself at the conquest of Franche Comté. In the war of 1672, he commanded in chief at the invasion of Holland, where in one campaign he took a number of towns, and gained the battles of Bodegrave and Woerden. He is charged by the Dutch historians with stimulating his soldiers to all manner of barbarous and licentious outrage; at least it is certain that under his command they committed every excess without restraint. When it became necessary to evacuate that country, he made a retreat which was universally admired. In 1674 and 1675 he was opposed to the prince of Orange, and by his success obtained the staff of marshal of France. After the death of Turenne he had the command of a division of the French army, with which he was unable to prevent the capture of Philipsburg by prince Charles of Lorraine.

Marshal Luxemburg was a man of a very licentious character, greatly addicted to the fair sex, though deformed in person and not agreeable in feature. The connexion of one of his agents with certain females of intrigue caused him to be involved in the horrid affair of the poisonings which excited so much alarm in 1680. He repaired voluntarily to the Bastille, where he was treated with rigour, through the dislike and jealousy of Louvois. He underwent some examinations on frivolous and ridiculous charges; and, after a detention of fourteen months, was dismissed without any sentence being given either for or against him. He was not deprived of his command in the army; and, when the war of 1690 broke out, he was sent into Flanders as general in chief. He gained the battle of Fleurus against the prince of Waldeck, and those of Leuze and Steinkerck against king William. In the latter, through the false information of a spy, he was sur-

prised, and part of his army was routed before he discovered the enemy's intention; but he exerted himself with so much vigour and ability, that he recovered the day, and repulsed the allied army with loss. In 1693 he gained against William the bloody battle of Nerwinden, and took Charleroi. He terminated his services the next year by a long march in presence of the enemy from Viganont to the Scheld near Tournay, by which he rendered abortive the designs of the allies upon the maritime places of France. He died at Versailles in January 1695, at the age of sixty-seven, and with him the victories of Louis XIV. ended. No general after him possessed to such a degree the attachment and confidence of the soldiers, who were always ready to follow whithersoever he led, and thought themselves invincible under his command. His success in the field against king William was almost invariable; and, when that prince in a fit of spleen called him hump-back—"What does he know of my back? (said Luxemburg;) he never saw it."

**LUXEU'IL**, a town of France, and principal place of a district, in the department of the Upper Saône. Near it are some chalybeate springs, and some warm baths. It is fourteen miles north-east of Vesoul, and thirty-seven north of Besançon. Lat. 47. 49. N. lon. 6. 27. E.

**LUXFORD LAKE**, an arm of the sea which encompasses the town of Pool in Dorsetshire.

**LUX'OR**, a village of Egypt, on the right side of the Nile, situated on a part of the ancient Thebes, where are the ruins of a large and magnificent temple supposed to be a part of the sepulchre of Osymandyas. See the article **EGYPT**, vol. vi. p. 347, 8. with the accompanying engraving, representing the remains of this temple or sepulchre, at the entrance of the ancient city of Thebes.

**LUX'TON**, a village in Somersetshire, near the Axeriver, between Axbridge and Uphill.

**LUXULIAN'**, a village in Cornwall, among the mineral hills, to the west of Lestwithiel.

**LUX'UR**, *f.* [from *luxure*, Fr.] A lecher.—A parch'd and juiceless *luxur*. *Revenge's Tragedy*.

**LUXU'RIANCE**, or **LUXU'RIANCY**, *f.* [*luxurians*, Lat.] Exuberance; abundant or wanton plenty or growth.—A fungus prevents healing only by its *luxuriance*. *Wise man*.

While through the parting robe th' alternate breast  
In full *luxuriance* rose. *Thomson's Summer*.

**LUXU'RIANT**, *adj.* Exuberant; superfluously plentiful.—If the fancy of Ovid be *luxuriant*, it is his character to be so. *Dryden's Pref. to Ovid's Epistles*.

Prune the *luxuriant*, the uncouth refine,  
But show no mercy to an empty line. *Pope*.

To **LUXU'RIATE**, *v. n.* To grow exuberantly; to shoot with superfluous plenty.

**LUXU'RIOUS**, *adj.* Delighting in the pleasures of the table. Administering to luxury; as, the *luxurious* board:

Those whom last thou saw'st

In triumph, and *luxurious* wealth, are they

First seen in acts of prowess eminent,

And great exploits; but of true virtue void. *Milton*.

Lustful; libidinous:

She knows the heat of a *luxurious* bed:

Her blush is guiltiness, not modesty. *Shakespeare*.

Voluptuous; enslaved to pleasure:

*Luxurious* cities, where the noise

Of riot ascends above the loftiest tow'rs. *Milton*.

Softening by pleasure:

Repel the Tuscan foes, their city seize,

Protect the Latians in *luxurious* ease. *Dryden*.

Luxuriant; exuberant:

Till more hands

Aid us, the work under our labour grows

*Luxurious* by restraint. *Milton's Paradise Lost*.

**LUXU'RIOUSLY**,



**LUXURIOUSLY**, *adv.* Deliciously; voluptuously:

He never sapt in solemn state;  
Nor day to night *luxuriously* did join.

*Dryden.*

**LUXURIOUSNESS**, *f.* The state or quality of being luxurious; luxury.

**LUXURY**, *f.* [*luxure*, old French; *luxuria*, Lat.] Voluptuousness; addictedness to pleasure.—Riches expose a man to pride and *luxury*, and a foolish elation of heart. *Addison's Spectator.*

Egypt with Assyria strove  
In wealth and *luxury*.

*Milton.*

Lust; lewdness:

Urge his hateful *luxury*,  
His bestial appetite in change of lust,  
Which stretch'd unto their servants, daughters, wives.

*Shakespeare.*

**Luxuriance**; exuberance.—Young trees of several kinds set contiguous in a fruitful ground, with the *luxury* of the trees will incorporate. *Bacon.*—Delicious fare.—He cut the side of the rock for a garden; and, by laying on it earth, furnished out a kind of *luxury* for a hermit. *Addison.*

Luxury, among the Romans, prevailed to such a degree, that several laws were made to suppress, or at least limit, it. The extravagance of the table began about the time of the battle of Actium, and continued in great excess till the reign of Galba. Peacocks, cranes of Malta, nightingales, venison, wild and tame fowl, were considered as delicacies. A profusion of provisions was the reigning taste. Whole wild boars were often served up, and sometimes they were filled with various small animals, and birds of different kinds: this dish they called the *Trojan horse*, in allusion to the wooden horse filled with soldiers. Fowls and game of all sorts were served up in whole pyramids, piled up in dishes as broad as moderate tables. Lucullus had a particular name for each apartment; and in whatever room he ordered his servants to prepare the entertainment, they knew by the direction the expense to which they were to go. When he supped in the Apollo, the expence was fixed at 50,000 drachmæ, that is, 1250l. See **LUCULLUS**, p. 752. Mark Antony provided eight boars for twelve guests. Vitellius had a large silver platter, said to have cost a million of sesterces, called *Minerva's buckler*: in this he blended together the livers of gilt-heads, the brains of pheasants and peacocks, the tongues of phenicopters, and the milts of lampreys. Caligula served up to his guests pearls of great value dissolved in vinegar; the same was done also by Clodius the son of Æsop the tragedian. Apicius laid aside 90,000,000 of sesterces, besides a mighty revenue, for no other purpose but to be sacrificed to luxury; finding himself involved in debt, he looked over his accounts, and, though he had the sum of 10,000,000 of sesterces still left, he poisoned himself for fear of being starved to death. The Roman laws to restrain luxury were *Lex Orchia*, *Fannia*, *Didia*, *Licinia*, *Cornelia*, and many others: but all these were too little; for, as riches increased amongst them, so did sensuality.

What were the ideas of luxury entertained in England about two centuries ago, may be gathered from the following passage of Holinshed; who, in a discourse prefixed to his History, (first published in 1577,) speaking of the increase of luxury, says, "Neither do I speak in reproach of any man, God is my judge; but to show, that I do rejoice rather to see how God has blessed us with his good gifts, and to behold how that, in a time wherein all things are grown to the most excessive prices, we yet do find means to obtain and atchieve such furniture as heretofore was impossible. There are old men yet dwelling in the village where I remain, which have noted three things to be marvelously altered in England within their sound remembrance. One is the multitude of chimneys lately erected; whereas in their young days there were not

above two or three, if so many, in most uplandish towns of the realm (the religious houses, and manor places of their lords always excepted, and peradventure some great personages), but each made his fire against a reredose [screen] in the hall where he dressed his meat and dined. The second is the great amendment of lodging; for, said they, our fathers and we ourselves have lain full oft upon straw pallets covered only with a sheet, under coverlits made of a dogswaine or horbarriets (to use their own terms), and a good log under their head instead of a bolster. If it were so that the father or good man of the house had a mattrafs, or flock-bed, and sheets, a sack of chaff to rest his head upon, he thought himself to be as well lodged as the lord of the town. So well were they contented, that pillows (said they) were thought meet only for women in childbed; as for servants, if they had any sheet above them, it was well; for seldom had they any under their bodies to keep them from pricking straws, that ran off through the canvas and their hardened hides. The third thing they tell of, is the exchange of treene [wooden] platters into pewter, and wooden spoons into silver or tin; for so common were all sorts of treene vessels in old times, that a man should hardly find four pieces of pewter (of which one was peradventure a salt) in a good farmer's house. Again; in times past, men were contented to dwell in houses builded of fallow, willow, &c. so that the use of oak was in a manner dedicated wholly unto churches, religious houses, palaces, navigation, &c. But now willow, &c. are rejected, and nothing but oak any where regarded. And yet see the change; for, when our houses were builded of willow, then had we oaken men; but now that our houses are come to be made of oak, our men are not only become willow, but a great many altogether of straw; which is a fore alteration. In these the courage of the owner was a sufficient defence to keep the house in safety; but now the assurance of the timber must defend the men from robbing. Now have we many chimneys, and yet our tenderliis complain of rheums, catarrhs, and poses; then had we none but reredoses, and our heads did never ach. For, as the smoke in those days was supposed to be a sufficient hardening for the timber of the house; so it was reputed a far better medicine to keep the good man and his family from the quacks or pose; wherewith, as then, very few were acquainted. Again; our pewterers in time past employed the use of pewter only upon dishes and pots, and a few other trifles for service; whereas now they are grown into such exquisite cunning, that they can in a manner imitate by infusion any form or fashion, of cup, dish, salt, bowl, or goblet, which is made by the goldsmith's craft, though they be ever so curious and very artificially forged. In some places beyond the sea, a garnish of good flat English pewter (I say flat, because dishes and platters in my time began to be made deep, and like basons, and are indeed more convenient both for sauce and keeping the meat warm) is esteemed so precious as the like number of vessels that are made of fine silver."

Particular instances of luxury, in *eating*, however, might be adduced from an earlier period, surpassing even the extravagance of the Romans. Thus, in the 10th year of the reign of Edward IV. (1470), George Nevill, brother to the earl of Warwick, at his instalment into the archiepiscopal see of York, entertained most of the nobility and principal clergy, when his bill of fare was 300 quarters of wheat, 350 tuns of ale, 104 tuns of wine, a pipe of spiced wine, 80 fat oxen, six wild bulls, 1004 weathers, 300 hogs, 300 calves, 3000 geese, 3000 capons, 300 pigs, 100 peacocks, 200 cranes, 200 kids, 2000 chickens, 4000 pigeons, 4000 rabbits, 204 bitterns, 4000 ducks, 200 pheasants, 500 partridges, 200 woodcocks, 400 plovers, 100 curlews, 100 quails, 1000 egrets, 200 rees, 400 bucks, does, and roebucks, 1506 hot venison pasties, 4000 cold ditto, 1000 dishes of jelly parted, 4000 dishes of jelly plain, 4000 cold custards, 2000 hot custards, 300 pikes, 300 breams, eight

*scale.*



seals, four porpusses, and 400 tarts. At this feast the earl of Warwick was steward, the earl of Bedford treasurer, and lord Hastings comptroller, with many more noble officers; 1000 servitors, 62 cooks, and 515 menial apparitors in the kitchen. But such was the fortune of the man, that, after his extreme prodigality, he died in the most abject but unpitied poverty.

And as to *dresses*, luxury in that article seems to have attained a great height long before Holinshed's time. For in the reign of Edward III. we find no fewer than seven sumptuary laws passed in one session of parliament to restrain it. It was enacted, that men-servants of lords, as also of tradesmen and artificers, shall be content with one meal of fish or flesh every day; and the other meals, daily, shall be of milk, cheese, butter, and the like. Neither shall they use any ornaments of gold, silk, or embroidery; nor their wives and daughters any veils above the price of twelvenpence. Artisans and yeomen shall not wear cloth above 40s. the whole piece (the finest then being about 6l. per piece), nor the ornaments before named; nor the women any veils of silk, but only those of thread made in England. Gentlemen under the degree of knights, not having 100l. yearly in land, shall not wear any cloth above 4½ marks the whole piece. Neither shall they or their females use cloth of gold, silver, or embroidery, &c. But esquires having 200l. per annum or upwards of rent, may wear cloths of five marks the whole piece of cloth; and they and their females may also wear stuff of silk, silver, ribbons, girdles, or furs. Merchants, citizens, burghers, and artificers or tradesmen, as well of London as elsewhere, who have goods and chattels of the clear value of 500l. and their females, may wear as is allowed to gentlemen and esquires of 100l. per annum. And merchants, citizens, and burghers, worth above 1000l. in goods and chattels, may (and their females) wear the same as gentlemen of 200l. per annum. Knights of 200 marks yearly may wear cloth of six marks the cloth, but no higher; but no cloth of gold, nor furred with ermine; but all knights and ladies having above 400 marks yearly, up to 1000l. per annum, may wear as they please, ermine excepted; and they may wear ornaments of pearl and precious stones for their heads only. Clerks having degrees in cathedrals, colleges, &c. may wear as knights and esquires of the same income. Ploughmen, carters, shepherds, and such like, not having 40s. value in goods or chattels, shall wear no sort of cloth but blanket and russet lawn of 12d. and shall wear girdles and belts; and they shall only eat and drink suitable to their stations. And whosoever uses other apparel than is prescribed by the above laws shall forfeit the same.

Concerning the general utility of luxury to a state, there is much controversy among the political writers. Baron Montesquieu lays it down, that luxury is necessary in monarchies, as in France; but ruinous to democracies, as in Holland. With regard therefore to Britain, whose government is compounded of both species, it is held to be a dubious question, how far private luxury is a public evil; and, as such, cognizable by public laws. And indeed our legislators have several times changed their sentiments as to this point; for formerly there was a number of penal laws existing to restrain excess in apparel, chiefly made in the reigns of Edward III. IV. and Henry VIII. a specimen of which we have inserted above; and, as to eating, see the article LONDON, p. 77. But most of them it appeared expedient to repeal at an after-period. In fact, although luxury will of necessity increase according to the influx of wealth, and it may not be for the general benefit of commerce to impose, as in the above-cited laws, an absolute prohibition of every degree of it; yet, for the good of the public, it may be necessary that such as go beyond proper bounds in eating, drinking, and wearing what by no means is suitable to their station, should be taxed accordingly, could it be done without including those who have a better title to such indulgence. This is certainly, however, a point which should be maturely

weighed before executed; and, in mercantile countries at least, such restraints may be found prejudicial, most likely impracticable, especially where true liberty is established. Sir William Temple observes, speaking of the trade and riches, and at the same time of the *frugality*, of the Hollanders, "That some of our maxims are not so certain as *current* in politics; as, that encouragement of excess and luxury, if employed in the consumption of *native* commodities, is of advantage to trade. It may be so to that which impoverishes, but not to that which enriches, a country. It is indeed less prejudicial, if it lies in *native* than in *foreign* wares: but the humour of *luxury* and expense cannot stop at certain bounds; what begins in *native* will proceed to *foreign* commodities; and, though the example arise among idle persons, yet the imitation will run into all degrees, even of those men by whose industry the nation subsists. And besides, the more of *our own* we spend, the less shall we have to send abroad; and so it will come to pass, that, while we drive a vast trade, yet, by buying much more than we sell, we shall come to be poor at last."

Luxury, says Mr. Hume, (*Essays*, vol. i.) is a word of an uncertain signification, and may be taken in a good as well as a bad sense. In general, it means great refinement in the gratification of the senses; and any degree of it may be innocent or blameable, according to the age, or country, or condition, of the person. The bounds between the virtue and the vice cannot here be exactly fixed, more than in other moral subjects. To imagine, that the gratifying of any sense, or the indulging of any delicacy in meat, drink, or apparel, is of itself a vice, can never enter into a head that is not disordered by the frenzies of enthusiasm. "I have, indeed," says our author, "heard of a monk abroad, who, because the windows of his cell opened upon a noble prospect, made a covenant with his eyes never to turn that way, or receive so sensual a gratification." Such is the crime of drinking Champagne or Burgundy, preferably to small beer or porter. These indulgences are only vices, when they are pursued at the expense of some virtue, as liberality or charity; in like manner as they are follies, when for them a man ruins his fortune, and reduces himself to want and beggary. When they intrench upon no virtue; but leave ample subject whence to provide for friends, family, and every proper object of generosity or compassion; they are entirely innocent, and have in every age been acknowledged such by almost all moralists. To be entirely occupied with the luxury of the table, for instance, without any relish for the pleasures of ambition, study, or conversation, is a mark of stupidity, and is incompatible with any vigour of temper or genius. To confine one's expense entirely to such a gratification, without regard to friends or family, is an indication of an heart destitute of humanity or benevolence; but, if a man reserve time sufficient for all laudable purposes, and money sufficient for all generous purposes, he is free from every shadow of blame or reproach. Since luxury may be considered either as innocent or blameable, one may be surpris'd at those preposterous opinions which have been entertained concerning it; while men of libertine principles bestow praises even on vicious luxury, and represent it as highly advantageous to society; and, on the other hand, men of pure morals blame even the most innocent luxury, and represent it as the source of all the corruption, disorders, and factions, incident to civil government. Our author endeavours to correct both these extremes, by proving, first, that the ages of refinement are both the happiest and the most virtuous; and, 2dly, that, wherever luxury ceases to be innocent, it also ceases to be beneficial; and, when carried a degree too far, is a quality pernicious, though perhaps not the most pernicious, to political society. Industry, knowledge, and humanity, (says he,) are linked together by an indissoluble chain; and are found, from experience as well as reason, to be peculiar to the more polished, and what are commonly denominated the more luxurious, ages. He adds, that these



these advantages are not attended with any disadvantages that bear any proportion to them. The more men refine upon pleasure, the less will they indulge in excesses of any kind; because nothing is more destructive to true pleasure than such excesses. Besides, industry, knowledge, and humanity, diffuse their beneficial influence beyond the sphere of *private* life, on the *public*, and render the government as great and flourishing as they make individuals prosperous and happy. Our author concludes his Essay on Refinement in the Arts, with the following observations: "Luxury, when excessive, is the source of many ills; but is in general preferable to sloth and idleness, which would commonly succeed in its place, and are more hurtful both to private persons and to the public. When sloth reigns, a mean uncultivated way of life prevails amongst individuals, without society, without enjoyment. And if the sovereign, in such a situation, demands the service of his subjects, the labour of the state suffices only to furnish the necessaries of life to the labourers, and can afford nothing to those who are employed in the public service."

Archdeacon Paley takes occasion, from a consideration of the mode of living which actually obtains in any country, to illustrate the true evil and proper danger of luxury. Luxury, as it supplies employment and promotes industry, assists population. But it is attended with a consequence which counteracts, and often overbalances, these advantages. When, by introducing more superfluities into general reception, luxury has rendered the usual accommodations of life more expensive, artificial, and elaborate; the difficulty of maintaining a family, conformably with the *established mode of living*, becomes greater, and what each man has to spare from his personal consumption proportionably less; the effect of which is, that marriages become less frequent, agreeably to the maxim, which lies at the foundation of this reasoning, that men will not marry to *sink* their place or condition in society, or to forego those indulgencies, which their own habits, or what they observe amongst their equals, have rendered necessary to their satisfaction. This principle is applicable to every article of diet and dress, to houses, furniture, and attendance; and this effect will be felt in every class of the community. For instance, the custom of wearing broad cloth and fine linen repays the shepherd and flax-grower, feeds the manufacturer, enriches the merchant, gives not only support but existence to multitudes of families: hitherto, therefore, the effects are beneficial; and, were these the only effects, such elegancies, or if they be so called, such luxuries, could not be too general. But here follows the mischief; when once fashion hath annexed the use of these articles of dress to any certain class, to the middling rank, for example, of the community, each individual of that rank finds them to be *necessaries of life*; that is, finds himself obliged to comply with the example of his equals, and to maintain that appearance which the custom of society requires. This obligation creates such a demand upon his income, and withal adds so much to the cost and burthen of a family; as to put it out of his power to marry, with the prospect of continuing his habits or of maintaining his place and situation in the world. We see, in this description, the cause which induces men to waste their lives in a barren celibacy; and this cause, which impairs the very source of population, is justly placed to the account of luxury. It appears, upon the whole, to be the tendency of luxury to diminish marriages, and that in this tendency the evil of it resides. Hence it may be inferred, that, of different kinds of luxury, those are the most innocent which afford employment to the greatest number of artists and manufacturers; as those, in other words, in which the price of the work bears the greatest proportion to that of the raw material. Thus, luxury in dress, in furniture, is universally preferable to luxury in eating, because the articles which constitute the one are more the production of human art and industry than those which supply the other. *Princ. of Mor. and Pol. Phil.* vol. ii.

Few writers have properly distinguished between private luxury and public; i. e. between the luxury of individuals and the luxury of the state. We shall conclude with a short extract upon this subject from a French writer. "The luxury of individuals (says Mons. Peltier) often renders effeminate those who enjoy, and humiliates those who miss, its delights; but public luxury, necessarily stamped with decency and majesty, elevates the minds of the citizens for whom it is provided, and produces an exquisite and delicate impression which humanizes the manners of the multitude. It connects, by the bands of the common enjoyments, the citizen who is *not* rich with the citizen who *is* rich. It thus enfeebles that tendency to envy which is not less painful to its subject than dangerous to its object. When I see a public garden embellished, I think it is my own that has been improved; and why not? were it exclusively my own, could I enjoy it more than by inviting my neighbours to walk there with me! Cannot every one say and feel as much?" *Paris pendant* 1796.

In our country there were formerly various laws to restrain excess in apparel; all repealed by stat. 1 Jac. I. c. 25. But, as to excess in diet, there still remains one ancient statute unrepealed, viz. 10 Ed. III. stat. 3. which ordains, that no man shall be served, at dinner or supper, with more than two courses; except upon some great holidays there specified, in which he may be served with three. 4 Com. 170, 1.

LUY'A, a town of Peru, and capital of a jurisdiction, north of Chachapoyas, bordering on Popayan: 360 miles north of Lima. Lat. 6. S. lon. 77. 45. W.

LUY'KEN (John), a Dutch engraver, was born at Amsterdam some time about the middle of the seventeenth century, and died in that city in the year 1712. He studied the arts under Martin Zaagmoelen. Baſſan ſays of his prints, "We remark in them a fertility of genius, joined with great ſpirit, judgment, and facility of execution: he is the Callot, the Della Bella, and the Le Clerc, of Holland." But this is ſaying a great deal too much. He neither drew ſo correſtly, nor etched in ſo clear and determined a ſtyle, as either of thoſe diſtinguiſhed engravers. It is true there are few of his prints, into which he has not introduced a great number of figures; but the groups are ſeldom artfully managed; the lights, for want of harmony, and being too much ſcattered, confuſe the ſubject, and fatigue the eye. This is ſpeaking of them, however, only comparatively; conſidering them by themſelves, they poſſeſs great merit. He chiefly engraved after his own deſigns, and the moſt conſiderable of his works is the large Bible, (which was publiſhed by Montier in two folio volumes,) and the following: A ſet of the Ten Commandments, in 8vo. a ſet of ſeventeen, of the Hiſtory of Lapland and Finland, in 4to. a ſet of ſeventeen views, &c. which accompany the Eaſtern Travels of M. Thevenot, in 4to. The Hiſtory of William III. king of England, in 8vo. The Republic of the Hebrews, in twenty-eight plates, in 8vo. and 4to. The Theatre of Martyrs, from the time of Jeſus Chriſt to modern times, in a ſet of 105 plates, in 4to. Jonas preaching to the Ninevites, in large folio. The Aſſaſination of Henry IV. of France, in folio. The Flight of the Reformers at the Revocation of the Ediſt of Nantes, large folio. The Maſſacre of St. Bartholomew, or the Death of Admiral Coligny, a very capital print, engraved on two large folio plates.

LUY'KEN (Gaſpar), was the ſon of John, mentioned in the preceding article, and was born at Amsterdam in the year 1660. He learned engraving from his father, and deſigned and engraved a conſiderable number of plates; but his works are neither ſo numerous nor ſo meritorious as thoſe of his father, whoſe ſtyle he imitated. Among them the following will probably be found moſt worthy of ſeleſtion: St. Francis Xavier preaching before the Emperor of Japan; the Jeſuit Miſſionaries obtaining Audience of the Emperor of China; the Emperor Joſeph I. receiving the Holy Sacrament; the Miracle of the Five Loaves; all of large folio ſize. The Twelve Months



of the Year; the Four Seasons; and the Grand Roman Cabinet; all in folio.

LUYTS (John), a philosopher and astronomer, was born in North Holland in 1665. He became professor of philosophy and mathematics at Utrecht, where he died in 1721. He wrote, 1. An astronomical work, in which he rejected the Copernican system, entitled "Institutio Astronomica, in qua doctrina spherica, atque theorica, intermixto usu spheræ cœlestis, et variis chronologicis, pertractantur." 2. An Introduction to Modern and Ancient Geography, with many plates. In all that he wrote and taught, he showed himself a great partisan of the Aristotelian philosophy, in opposition to that of Descartes. *Morevi.*

LUZ, [Heb. separation.] The original name of Bethel. —Also, a city in Arabia Petrea, built by a man of Bethel, who, while the tribe of Ephraim besieged that place, showed them a secret entrance, whereby they took the city; for which, they spared him and his family. He retired into the land of the Hittites, and there built Luz, otherwise called Lefā, Lafa, or Luffa. *Jud. i. 23-26.*

LUZ, a seaport town of the island of Canary: five miles north of Ciudad de los Palmas.

LUZ, a town of France, in the department of the Higher Pyrenées, and chief place of a canton, in the district of Argeles. The place contains 2135, and the canton 6222, inhabitants.

LU'ZA, a river of Russia, which runs into the Dwina at Uting.

LUZA'RA, a town of Italy, in the department of the Mincio. In the year 1702, a battle was fought near this town, between the troops of the empire under the command of prince Eugene, and the French and Spaniards commanded by the duke of Anjou; the dispute was long and bloody, and the victory was only known by the duke of Anjou becoming master of Luzara. It is sixteen miles south of Mantua.

LUZAR'CHES, a town of France, in the department of the Seine and Oise: fifteen miles north of Paris. Lat. 49. 7. N. lon. 2. 30. E.

LU'ZEBURG, a town of East Friesland: two miles north-east of Norden.

LUZECH', a town of France, in the department of the Lot: seven miles west-north-west of Cahors, and fifteen south of Gourdon. Lat. 44. 29. N. lon. 1. 23. E.

LU'ZERATH, a town of France, in the department of the Rhine and Moselle, and chief place of a canton, in the district of Coblenz. The place contains 614, and the canton 2525, inhabitants.

LUZER'NE, a county of Pennsylvania, bordering on New York, seventy-nine miles from north to south, and seventy-five from east to west, well watered by the Susquehanna. It contains 12,839 inhabitants. The chief town is Wilkesbarre.

LUZIL'LE, a town of France, in the department of the Indre: nine miles south of Amboise.

LUZK. See LUCKO, p. 748.

LUZO'N. See LUÇON, p. 748.

LUZURIA'GA, *f.* [so called by the authors of the Flora Peruviana, in honour of a Spanish botanist, or patron of the science, of the same name.] In botany, a genus of the class hexandria, order monogynia, natural order samentaceæ, *Linn.* (asphodeli, *Juss.* asphodeleæ, *Brown.*) Generic essential characters.—Calyx none; corolla in six deep equal spreading beardless segments, deciduous; filaments inserted into the base of each segment, thread-shaped, smooth, curved at the point; antheræ arrow-shaped, cohering, longer than the filaments; style thread-shaped, with three furrows; stigma simple; berry with a few, nearly globose, seeds.

This genus consists of climbing weak shrubs, with simple ribbed leaves. Flowers cymose or umbellate, terminal and axillary; their footstalks as it were articulated with the rather-tapering base of the flower. Berry black, sometimes enclosing only a single seed. Mr. Brown is not

quite certain of this genus being precisely the same with that of the Flora Peruviana. He defines two New-Holland species.

1. Luzuriaga cymosa: cymes terminal, deeply divided; branches round; young branches striated, smooth. Found near Port Jackson, as well as within the tropic.

2. Luzuriaga montana: umbels axillary, stalked; branches striated, rough. Found near Port Jackson. *Brown's Prodr. Nov. Holl. i. 281.*

LU'ZY, a town of France, in the department of the Nievre: fifteen miles south-south-east of Moulins en Gilbert, and sixteen south-west of Aufun.

LUZZANA, a town of Italy: twenty-two miles south of Mantua.

LUZ'ZI, a town of Naples, in Calabria Citra: four miles south of Bisignano.

LWOW. See LEMBERG, vol. xii. p. 467.

LY, a very frequent termination both of names of places and of adjectives and adverbs; when *ly* terminates the name of a place, it is derived from leag, Sax. a field. *Gibson.* When it ends an adjective or adverb, it is contracted from *lich*, like: as, *beastly*, beast-like; *plainly*, plain-like.

LY'ÆUS, a surname of Bacchus. It is derived from *λυειν*, to melt; because wine, over which Bacchus presides, gives freedom to the mind, and delivers it from all cares and melancholy. *Horace.*

LY'AM, *f.* [possibly from *lygan*, Sax. to lead.] A thong for holding a greyhound in hand:

My dog-hook at my helt to which my *lyam's* ty'd,  
My sheaf of arrows by, my wood-knife by my side,  
My hound then in my *lyam.* *Drayton's Mufe's Elizium.*

LYAU'. See LBAO, vol. xii. p. 416.

LYB'IA. See LIBYA, vol. xii.

LYB'IA, or LYBIS'SA, a small village of Bithynia, where Hannibal was buried.

LYCABETUS, a mountain of Attica, near Athens. *Statius.*

LYCÆ'A, in antiquity, an Arcadian festival resembling the Roman *lupercalia*, in which the conqueror was rewarded with a suit of brazen armour.—Also, a festival at Argos, in honour of Apollo Lycæus, who delivered the Argives from wolves, &c.

LYCÆ'UM. See LYCEUM.

LYCÆ'US, a mountain of Arcadia, sacred to Jupiter, where a temple was built in honour of the god Lycæus, by Lycaon, the son of Pelasgus. It was also sacred to Pan, whose festivals, called *Lycaea*, were celebrated there.

LYCAM'BES, the father of Neobule. He promised his daughter in marriage to the poet Archilochus, and afterwards refused to fulfil his engagement when she had been courted by a man of opulence. This irritated Archilochus; he wrote a bitter invective against Lycambes and his daughter, and rendered them both so desperate by the satire of his composition, that they hanged themselves.

LYCAN'THROPY, [*lycanthropia*, Lat. from the Gr. *λυκος*, a wolf, and *ανθρωπος*, a man; i. e. a wolf-man, or man-wolf.] A term in ancient medicine, applied to that variety of insanity or melancholy, which induced the persons affected to wander out in the night, howling and making other noises, frequenting church-yards, or places of burial; in which circumstances they were supposed to imitate or resemble wolves. Aëtius and Paul of Ægina have described such patients as pale, with dry and hollow eyes, parched tongue and mouth, excessive thirst, and perpetual sores on their legs, in consequence of the frequent accidents which they met with. The term was also applied to those maniacs, who fancied themselves transformed into wolves. The appellation of *cynanthropia* was also given to the disease, when the patients imitated the manners of dogs, or imagined themselves to be changed into these animals.—He sees like a man in his sleep, and grows as much the wiser as the man that dreamt of a *lycanthropy*, and was for ever after wary not to come near a river. *Taylor.*

LYCA'ON,



**LYCA'ON**, the first king of Arcadia, son of Pelasgus and Melibœa. He built a town called Lycosura on the top of Mount Lycæus, in honour of Jupiter. He had many wives, by whom he had a daughter, called Calista, and fifty sons. He was succeeded on the throne by Nyc-timus, the eldest of his sons. He lived about 1820 years before the Christian era. *Apollod.* 3. *Hygin.* fab. 176.—Another king of Arcadia, celebrated for his cruelties. He was changed into a wolf by Jupiter, because he offered human victims on the altars of the god Pan. Some attribute this metamorphosis to another cause. The sins of mankind, as they relate, were become so enormous, that Jupiter visited the earth to punish wickedness and impiety. He came to Arcadia, where he was announced as a god, and the people began to pay proper adoration to his divinity. Lycaon, however, who used to sacrifice all strangers to his wanton cruelty, laughed at the pious prayers of his subjects, and, to try the divinity of the gods, served up human flesh on his table. This impiety so irritated Jupiter, that he immediately destroyed the house of Lycaon, and changed him into a wolf. *Ovid. Met.*—These two monarchs are often confounded together, though it appears that they were two different characters, and that not less than an age elapsed between their reigns.

**LYCAON'IA**, in ancient geography, a province of Asia Minor, south of Galatia. According to Strabo, Mysia made a part of it. It was situated between mountains; and is supposed to have derived its name from *λυκος*, a wolf, because the country, from its situation, formed a proper retreat for those animals. The principal places of Lycaonia, according to Ptolemy, were Adopissus, Canna, Iconium, Paralais Corna, Casbia, and Baratta. The apostles of this country are said to have been St. Paul and St. Barnabas. The Notitia of Hierocles reckons in this province eighteen episcopal towns.

**LYCAON'IAN**, *f.* An inhabitant of Lycaonia, or one born there.

**LYCAON'IAN**, *adj.* Appertaining to Lycaonia.

**LYCAONIAN LANGUAGE**. St. Paul, preaching at Lystra, a town in Lycaonia, (*Acts* xiv. 8.) cured a man who had been lame from his mother's womb, and had never walked. Whereupon the inhabitants of Lystra said, *in the speech of Lycaonia*, (*ver.* 11.) "the gods are come down to us in the likeness of men." The question is, what this speech of Lycaonia was? It is generally believed to have been a corrupt Greek; and it is certain that Greek was spoken in Asia Minor. Paul Ernest Jablonki has written a learned dissertation on the Lycaonian tongue; he supposes it was the same with the Cappadocian, i. e. Greek mingled with a great deal of Syriac; an opinion which has been followed by Grotius, and is very probable, by reason of the neighbourhood of Syria, Cappadocia, and Lycaonia; for, had there been only a difference of dialect, St. Luke would not have said, that these people cried in the speech of Lycaonia; a dialect is not a particular language, or speech. *Calmet.*

**LYCASTE**, an ancient town of Crete, whose inhabitants accompanied Idomeneus to the Trojan war. *Homer.* *Il.* ii.—A daughter of Priam by a concubine. She married Polydamas, the son of Antenor.—A famous courtesan of Drepanum, called Venus on account of her great beauty. She had a son called Eryx by Butes, son of Amycus.

**LYCEUM**, [*Λυκειον*, Gr.] The name of a celebrated school, or academy, at Athens, where Aristotle explained his philosophy. The place was a grove in the suburbs of Athens, which had previously been used for military exercises. It was composed of porticos, and trees planted in the quincunx form, where the philosophers disputed walking. Hence *philosophy of the Lyceum* is used to signify the philosophy of Aristotle, or the Peripatetic philosophy. Suidas observes, that the Lyceum took its name from its having been originally a temple of Apollo Lyceus; or rather, a portico or gallery built by Lyceus, son of Apollo; but others mention it to have been built by Pisistratus, or

Pericles. Here Aristotle delivered his lectures to a promiscuous auditory in the evening, when the Lyceum was open to all young men without distinction; but in the morning his disciples were more select, and such as had been previously instructed in the elements of learning, and discovered abilities and dispositions suited to the study of philosophy. The latter he called his morning-walk, and the former his evening-walk. Aristotle continued his school in the Lyceum twelve years.

Public schools, under the name of Lyceums, were established in France by the authority of the late emperor; and in this way not fewer than 6400 scholars were maintained by the state. Even here, however, it is curious to observe the efforts of Bonaparte to escape from the performance of pecuniary obligations, and to throw the expense of these institutions on the particular quarters of the country in which they were situated. Having passed a decree commanding the mayors and municipal councils to supply the wants of young students on their arrival, this power was so far abused, that troops of boys, collected in various departments, were sent to be newly clothed and equipped at the expense of any town wherein a Lyceum was established. From M. Faber's Sketches of the Internal State of France (between the years 1807 and 1811), printed at Petersburg, we shall select some passages which will convey an idea of the course of instruction which was pursued at those Lyceums, and of the stress laid on those habits of military subordination which were always uppermost in Bonaparte's mind: "Latin and mathematics are the main objects of the Lyceums. For each of the two branches of instruction there are six classes, under the superintendance of three professors, each of whom gives instruction in arithmetic as well as Latin. In the fourth class, the Latin professor teaches geography; in the third, the elements of chronology and ancient history; in the second, those of mythology; in the first, history, and the geography and history of France. No pupil is admitted into the mathematical class, till he has passed the fifth Latin form. Two committees, one for Latin, the other for the mathematics, directed the printing of such class-books as they considered to be adapted to the system. There are as many volumes as classes, arranged in such a manner, that each volume, for Latin as well as for the mathematics, comprehends what a professor is to go through with one class; and no professor must, upon any pretext whatever, presume to teach from any other book. Besides a writing, drawing, and dancing, master, there is a military instructor, whose business it is to teach all the pupils above twelve years old their exercise; those who have attained that age he instructs in the use of arms, and in military manœuvres; and he attends all their lessons, to command the marches of the pupils in the various movements of the day. The scholars are divided into companies; for their meals, private study, school-hours, recreations, prayers, church, and bed-time, the signal is given by beat of drum. [Here we are reminded of our military asylum at Chelsea.] They rise at half-past five, and on Sundays and holidays at six: prayers, studies, and all their exercises, take place at one and the same time, and in common. The pupils are not allowed to go out of the Lyceum but by permission of the director, who sends some person with them; none of them must sleep out of the seminary. They must not have any correspondence except with their parents, or persons authorized by their parents in their stead. All letters which they write and receive pass through the hands of the censor. The access to the Lyceums is prohibited to all persons of the other sex; the mothers, sisters, and female relatives, of the pupils, are not allowed to enter without the permission of the director. The boys must not even pull off their coats in their hours of recreation without leave from the censor. Each Lyceum may have a library of fifteen hundred volumes; all these libraries must be composed of the same works, and no book must be placed in it unless by the authority of the minister of the interior."



Lyceums for the study of natural philosophy were established about the same time at Krzemnico and Winnica in Russian Poland. The library and philosophical apparatus of the late unfortunate king of Poland were purchased for their use; and the rich land-owners of the Ukraine and Volhynia contributed liberally to make the collection complete. Each has an observatory, extremely well furnished with astronomical instruments.

LY'CHEN. See LIECHEN, vol. xii. p. 627.

LYCHNANTHUS, *f.* in botany. See CUCUBALUS.

LYCHNI SCABIOSA. See KNAUTIA.

LYCHNIDE'A. See BUCHNERA, ERINUS, PHLOX, and SELAGO.

LYCHNIDUS, now *Acrida*, a city with a lake of the same name, in Illyricum. *Livy*.

LYCHNIS, *f.* [Gr. signifying a lamp; hence some have supposed that its application arose from the down of the plant having been used to make wicks for lamps. This, however, by no means appears to have been the fact; the most probable and apparent explanation of the name is from the resemblance of the calyx to a lantern, its sides being semi-transparent between the ribs or veins; or the whole, in some instances, quite membranous, round, and inflated, like the horn lanterns still used by the Chinese. Possibly the appearance of the stigmas, stamens, or crown of the corolla, in several species, might favour the idea of a lamp with its flame. See the Plate, fig. 1. We must recollect that this name of *Lychnis* has been always used, with great latitude, for all the Campion-tribe, by the old botanists; though now restricted, by Linnæus and his followers, to one particular genus of that family. The short mention in Dioscorides, of his *λυχνίς*, is quite insufficient to determine either the wild or garden plant of which he speaks.] In botany, a genus of the class decandria, order pentagynia, natural order of caryophyllei. The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium one-leaved, oblong, membranaceous, five-toothed, permanent. Corolla: petals five; claws the length of the calyx, flat, margined; border often cloven, flat. Stamina: filaments ten, longer than the calyx, alternately shorter, each of these fixed to a claw of each petal; antheræ incumbent. Pistillum: germ subovate; styles five, awl-shaped, longer than the stamens; stigmas reflex against the sun, pubescent. Pericarpium: capsule approaching to an ovate form, covered; one, three, or five, celled, five-valved. Seeds: very many, roundish.—*Essential Character*. Calyx one-leaved, oblong, even; petals five, with claws, and a subbid border; capsule five-celled; (in most one-celled. *Gartner*.)

*Species*. 1. *Lychnis Chalcedonica*, or scarlet *lychnis*: flowers fasciated, fastigiate. Of this there are three varieties; two with single flowers, and one with double. Indeed, most of the species vary with double flowers. The single scarlet *lychnis* has a perennial root: stems three feet high, upright, stiff, round, jointed, hairy; at every joint two large leaves of a brownish green colour; flowers terminating, in a large flat-topped tuft, consisting of several bundles; corolla of a scarlet or bright red orange colour, (var. *α.*) varying to white, blush, and variable, that is, pale red, growing paler till it becomes almost white, (var. *β.*) Native of Russia and Japan. Cultivated in 1596 by Gerard; in his time it was common in almost every garden; but he does not mention any of the varieties. Parkinson in 1629, and Johnson in 1633, have the varieties; but the latter says, that "the white and bluish single and the double one are not to be found but in the gardens of our prime florists." These authors call it, flower of Constantinople, *campion* of Constantinople, flower of Britow, and *nonefuch*; it seems to have lost these names, and to be known generally by the name of scarlet *lychnis*. The French call it *lychnoïde de Calcedoine*, *croix de Jerusalem*, ou de *Malthe*; the Italians also name it *croce di cavaliere*; the Spaniards *cruces de Jerusalem*; and the Portuguese *cruz de Malta*. A kind of soap is occasionally made from the flowers.

γ. The variety with double flowers is a valuable plant. The flowers are very double, and of a beautiful scarlet colour. This has a perennial root, from which arise two, three, or four, stalks, according to the strength of the roots; these, in rich moist land, grow upwards of four feet high; the stalks are strong, erect, and hairy; garnished the whole length with spear-shaped leaves sitting close to the stalks, placed opposite; and just above each pair of leaves, there are four smaller leaves standing round the stalk. The flowers are produced in close clusters sitting upon the top of the stalk; when the roots are strong, the clusters of flowers will be very large, and make a fine appearance. They appear the latter end of June, and in moderate seasons continue near a month in beauty. The stalks decay in autumn, and new ones arise in the spring.

2. *Lychnis flos cuculi*, or red-flowered meadow-*lychnis*: petals quadrid; fruit roundish, one-celled. Root perennial, brownish-white, subacrid. Stems from one to three feet high, upright, somewhat angular and grooved, swelled at the joints, purplish. Linnæus remarks, that they are procumbent, and become upright at the time of flowering. Calyx ten-angled, of a deep purple colour; corolla pink or purplish red, varying sometimes to white; the border of the petals dividing into four segments, of which the two outer are shorter and narrower; the claws have two small spear-shaped teeth at the top. Capsule one-celled, the mouth having five teeth which turn back; seeds flatish, rugged, of a brown ash-colour. Native of most parts of Europe in moist meadows; flowering in May and June. This plant has a variety of names in English; as meadow-pink, wild williams, cuckoo-flower, ragged robin, crow-flower. Parkinson calls it feathered wild *campion*; Gerard, *crow-flowers*, *wilde williams*, *marsh-gillo-flowers*, and *cockowe-gillo-flowers*; Ray, meadow-*campion*: to Mr. Curtis, meadow-*lychnis* seems most eligible. Several plants have the name of cuckoo-flower from their appearing about the same time with that bird. Gerard says the true cuckoo-flower is *Cardamine pratensis*. Shakespeare's cuckoo-buds are of a yellow hue, and probably *ranunculus*, or *crowfoot*. Goats, sheep, and horses, are said to eat it; but it seems generally agreed that none of our domesticated quadrupeds are fond of it. The beauty of the flowers entitles it to a place in the gardens of the curious.

γ. The variety with double flowers is frequently cultivated in flower-gardens for ornament. It only differs from the single in the multiplicity of the petals; and is commonly known by the title of *double ragged robin*. Some call it, says Parkinson, the *fair maide of France*. It is sometimes found wild in England, as near Bungay in Suffolk by Mr. Woodward.

3. *Lychnis alpestris*: petals four-cleft, crowned; leaves recurved. Root perennial. Stems a span high, upright, smooth. Flowers in a dichotomous panicle; calyx smooth, with blunt teeth; petals white, the length of the calyx. Native of Switzerland and Austria.

4. *Lychnis quadridentata*, or four-toothed *lychnis*: petals four-toothed; stem dichotomous; leaves smooth, recurved. Stems a span high, with the upper joints viscid. Leaves lanceolate, an inch long. Native of Austria.

5. *Lychnis coronata*, or Chinese *lychnis*: smooth; flowers axillary, and terminating, solitary; petals lacinated. The whole plant is smooth. Stem simple round upright, a foot high. Leaves opposite, embracing, oblong-ovate, acute, entire; an inch or a little more in length. Flowers aggregate, about three, sessile; calyx ten-angled. Native of China and Japan. Introduced in 1774, by John Fothergill, M.D. It flowers in June and July.

6. *Lychnis viscaria*, viscous *lychnis*, or *catchfly*: petals nearly equal. This has long narrow grass-like leaves, which come out from the root without order, sitting close to the ground; between these come up straight single stalks, which in good ground rise a foot and a half high; at each joint of the stalk come out two leaves opposite,







LYCHNIS AND LYCIUM.



*Rigid Bar-therm.*



*Four-cleft Bar-therm.*



*Alpine Campion.*

Thomson, scilicet, Dury, St. Blomond?



of the same form as the lower, but decreasing in their size upwards; under each pair of leaves, for an inch in length, there sweats out of the stalk a glutinous liquor, which is almost as clammy as birdlime, so that ants and other insects which happen to light upon these places, or attempt to creep up to the flowers, are fastened to the stalk, whence this plant has the title of *catchfly*. The stalk is terminated by a cluster of purple flowers, and from the two upper joints come out on each side of the stalk a cluster of the same flowers; so that the whole forms a sort of loose spike; these appear in the beginning of May, and the single flowers are succeeded by roundish seed-vessels, which are full of small angular seeds ripening in July. The flowers terminate in close whorls, all together forming a spike; others come out from the axis on long peduncles. Very small lanceolate red bractes separate the flowers; which are seven lines or somewhat more in diameter; calyx purple, swelling, viscid, with ten red streaks; petals entire, sometimes slightly waved about the edge and emarginate at the top, bright red-purple, with white claws, almost half an inch long, and three lines wide, having two appendices at the throat. It varies with white flowers; and is sold in foreign countries for *Centaurium minus*. Native of most parts of Europe, in dry and mountainous pastures, especially among bushes. In Britain it is rare. Llwyd and Tancred Robinfon found it in Wales; Thomas Willifell upon the rocks in Edinburgh Park; and Mr. Crow near Croydon in Surry. It flowers in May and June.

7. *Lychnis alpina*, or alpine lychnis: petals bifid; flowers four-styled. Root perennial. Root leaves in a tuft, linear, slightly keeled, acute, smooth, thickish, somewhat channelled, subciliate at the base. Stem a finger, half a foot, or a span, in height, simple, round, upright, having four or five joints flattened a little at top. Stem-leaves narrow, pointed, upright, somewhat rugged; the uppermost membranaceous. Flowers collected into a thyrse or corymb, on three-flowered very short peduncles; bractes between the flowers subdiaphanous; calyx pale, with blunt concave claws. Petals purple, cloven half way, sharp, without any crown; antheræ red. Germ roundish. Styles four or five. It resembles the preceding species very much, but is not viscid, and is only half the size; the petals are not entire, but cloven. The pistils, which are often six and even more, are shorter than the petals before the flowers open; but during the time of flowering lengthen gradually, till they become longer than the petals. See the annexed Plate, fig. 1. Native of the Alps in Europe, and Siberia. It flowers in April and May; Mr. Miller says the beginning of June; and that the seeds ripen in August.

8. *Lychnis læta*, small Portugal lychnis, or campion: petals bifid; flowers solitary; leaves linear-lanceolate, smooth; calyxes ten-keeled. This is an annual plant, native of Portugal. Introduced in 1778, by Edward Gray, M.D. It flowers in July.

9. *Lychnis Sibirica*, or Siberian lychnis: petals bifid; stem dichotomous; leaves somewhat rough-haired. Root perennial, from which arise many narrow leaves sitting close to the ground. Stalks a foot high, dividing into branches by pairs. Flowers from the divisions of the branches, and at the top of the stalks; petals white. Native of Siberia. Cultivated by Mr. Miller in 1759.

10. *Lychnis diurna*, rose-flowered lychnis, or wild red campion: flowers dioecous; capsules one-celled, roundish. Root perennial, the thickness of the little finger; white, of a slightly acrid and bitter taste, furnished with numerous fibres. Stalks several, upright, from one to three feet high, round, hirsute, jointed, purple; the joints swelled; the uppermost branches forked. Native of many parts of Europe, in moist shady ditches, by the sides of hedges, and sometimes in woods; flowering in May and June.

β. A variety of this with double flowers is cultivated in gardens by the name of *red bachelor's buttons*. It is an ornamental plant, and continues long in flower.

11. *Lychnis vespertini*, white-flowered lychnis, or wild white campion: flower dioecous; capsules one-celled, conical. The white wild campion was regarded as a distinct species from the preceding, or red, by all the old botanists. Linnæus supposed them to be only varieties, and he has been followed by most modern botanists; by several, however, with marks of doubt. The two plants agree in most points, they certainly correspond in structure; both have male and female flowers on separate roots, and both are sometimes found with hermaphrodite flowers. There are many circumstances, however, in which they differ; whether sufficiently or not to constitute different species, let others determine from more accurate examination, or from culture. Mr. Miller, who regards them as distinct species, informs us, that the stalks of this are branched out much more than in the red, the leaves are longer and more veined, the flowers stand singly upon pretty long peduncles, and are not produced in clusters as in the red; it is very hairy, the calyx is more swollen, and it flowers a month after the red. Ray observes, that in the red the stems are weaker and more flaccid than in the white. Krocker reports, that in Silesia the plant with white flowers is entirely different from that which has red: the stem being higher, more diffused, suberect; the leaves longer, but narrower, less hirsute, with whitish veins; the joints of the stalk bigger; calyxes in the male cylindrical, in the female ventricose, in both longer than in the red, whitish, with ten green veins; the claws of the petals longer, the petals themselves white, with white appendices or earlets: antheræ ash-coloured; styles white; this is common in fields, &c. that only on mountains.

The late lamented Dr. John Sibthorp is the first among the moderns who has given them as distinct species; having remarked, that in the red lychnis the capsules are roundish, and that its *scentless* flowers stand open through the day; whereas the white has conical capsules, and its *odoriferous* flowers open only towards evening. Hence his specific characters, and trivial names. The colour, with other circumstances relative to the two plants, led Mr. Curtis to suspect that they are not varieties but distinct species, and he remarks that cultivation and farther attention to them will probably enable him to speak of this with more certainty. Mr. Robson, having cultivated both, is satisfied they are distinct species, though both liable to change the colour of their flowers to flesh-colour. To all this we may add, that the red and the white affect different situations, and are never found promiscuously. The white is frequent in fallow fields, sometimes so plentifully as to make them appear at a distance quite white; but the red is never found there. The white seems to prefer dry soils, and the red moist ones. The former is very common in Sweden, not so the latter. No one ever saw the red campion in the county of Cambridge, though the white is common there, and the red no less common in some of the neighbouring counties. Mr. Lightfoot says, the rocks in the island of Ailfa are covered with the red-flowered only. According to Krocker, the white is very common in Silesia on the borders of fields, but the red is found only in the mountainous parts. So also says Allione, that the red occurs in wet shady places and springs at the foot of the Alps; but that the white is every where common in the plains by hedges, ditches, and highways. And Pollich, that the white is every where on banks, among bushes, by walls and among rubbish; the red in woods and hedges. And Villars, that the red occurs on the alps and mountains by the sides of streams; differing from the white not only in colour and place, but in having the upper leaves coloured, and the calyx villose without any distinct veins. The white is found in stony places, by way-sides, in low situations; its calyx is thicker, harder, almost cartilaginous, covered with veins forming a kind of net.

12. *Lychnis apetala*: calyx inflated; corolla shorter than the calyx; flowers hermaphrodite; one or two on the stem. Root fibrous. Stem single, upright, a span high,



high, entire, having three or four joints, scarce apparently rugged. A single flower terminates the stem, nodding horizontally. Native of the mountains of Lapland and Siberia. In the latter it occurs with several flowers on the stem.

Mr. Miller has another sort, which he calls *L. Lusitânica*, it having been introduced from Portugal by John Browning, esq. of Chelsea, a master in chancery, and a great cultivator of exotic plants, before 1759. He thinks it probably a variety of one with single flowers that is wild in that country, and that it approaches nearest to the double ragged robin. It is perennial, with many oblong narrow leaves sitting close to the ground. It divides into separate heads, like *L. vicaria*; and from each of these comes out an upright stalk nine inches high, dividing at top by pairs, and from the middle of each division comes out a slender peduncle two inches long, with one double purple flower at the top, the petals of which are much jagged, and the calyx marked with deep purple stripes; there are other peduncles from the axils, sustaining one or two flowers.—May not this be a variety of *L. læta*, N° 8?

**Propagation and Culture.** Single scarlet lychnis is easily propagated by seeds, which should be sown on a border exposed to the east, in the middle of March. The plants will appear in April, when, if the season is dry, they should be refreshed with water two or three times a-week. By the beginning of June the plants will be fit to remove, when there should be a bed of common earth prepared to receive them; into which they should be planted at about four inches apart, observing to water and shade them till they have taken root; after which time they will require no other care but to keep them clean from weeds till the following autumn, when they should be transplanted into the borders of the pleasure-ground, where they are to continue. The summer following, these plants will flower and produce ripe seeds; but the roots will abide several years, and continue to flower. This sort flowers in June and July, and the seeds ripen in autumn. It may also be propagated by off-sets; but, as the seeds ripen so freely, few persons trouble themselves to propagate the plants any other way. Double scarlet lychnis is propagated by slips taken from the roots in autumn; but, as this is a slow method of increasing the plants, the best way to have them in plenty, is to cut off the flower-stalks in June, before the flowers appear, which may be cut into small lengths, each of which should have three or four joints, which should be planted on an east border of soft loamy earth, putting three of the joints into the ground, leaving one eye just level with the surface; these must be watered, and then covered close with bell or hand-glasses, so as to exclude the outward air, and shaded with mats when the sun shines hot upon them. The cuttings so managed will put out roots in five or six weeks, when they must be exposed to the open air; and in very dry weather they should be now and then refreshed with water; but it must not be repeated too often, nor given in large quantities; for too much moisture will cause them to rot. These will make good plants by the following autumn, when they may be transplanted into the borders of the pleasure-garden, where they will flower the following summer.

The single meadow-lychnis is not kept in gardens, though by no means destitute of beauty; but the variety with very double flowers is propagated for ornament. It is commonly known by the name of double ragged robin; and is increased by slipping the roots in September. Vicarious lychnis, or red German catchfly, was formerly cultivated in flower-gardens; but, since the variety with double flowers has been produced, the single one has been neglected. It may however be propagated in plenty by parting the roots in autumn, at which time every slip will grow; or, if the seeds are sown in the same manner as is directed for the first sort, the plants with single flowers may be raised in plenty. This delights in a light moist soil and a shady situation. The double-flowering catchfly has not been known forty years in the English gardens;

but it is now so common as to have excluded that with single flowers. As this never produces seeds, it can only be propagated by parting and slipping the roots; the best time for this is in autumn, at which time every slip will grow. If this be performed in September, the slips will have taken good root before the frost, and will flower well the following summer; but, if they are expected to flower strong, the roots must not be divided into small slips, though, for multiplying the plants, it matters not how small the slips are. These should be planted on a border exposed to the morning sun, and shaded when the sun is warm till they have taken root. If the slips are planted in the beginning of September, they will be rooted strong enough to plant in the borders of the flower-garden by the middle or latter end of October. The roots of this multiply so fast, as to make it necessary to transplant and part them every year; for, when they are let remain longer, they are very apt to rot.

The double varieties of red and white wild campions, commonly called *bachelor's buttons*, are ornamental plants, and continue long in flower. They are propagated by slips, planted the beginning of August in a shady border of loamy earth, where they will take root in six weeks or two months, and may then be transplanted into the borders of the flower-garden. These roots should be annually removed, otherwise they frequently rot; and young plants must be propagated by slips to supply the decay of the old roots, which are not of very long duration. The red thrives best in a soft loamy soil, and in a shady situation, where it has only the morning sun. The double white does not make to good an appearance as the red; but it will thrive in a drier soil, and a more open exposure. See AGROSTEMMA, CERASTIUM, CHERLERIA, CUCUBALUS, FRANKENIA, GYPSOPHILA, HOLOSTEMUM, PHLOX, PLUMBAGO, SAPONARIA, SILENE, and VELEZIA.

LYCHNIS, Bate. See PHLOX.

LYCHNIS, Wild. See AGROSTEMMA.

LYCHNITIS. See AMELLUS and VERBASCUM.

LYCHNOBITE, *f.* [from Gr. *λυχνος*, a candle, and *βίος*, life.] One that turns the day into night; one that does his business by night, and sleeps by day.

LYCHNOIDES. See ARENARIA and PHLOX.

LYCIA, in ancient geography, a country of Asia Minor, bounded by the Mediterranean on the south, Caria on the west, Pamphylia on the east, and Phrygia on the north. It was anciently called *Milyæ* and *Tremile*, from the *Milyæ*, or *Solymi*, a people of Crete, who came to settle there. The country received the name of *Lycia* from Lycus the son of Pandion, who established himself there. The inhabitants have been greatly commended by all the ancients for their sobriety and justice. They were conquered by Cræsus king of Lydia, and afterwards by Cyrus. Though they were subject to the power of Persia, yet they were governed by their own kings, and only paid a yearly tribute to the Persian monarch. They became part of the Macedonian empire when Alexander came into the east; and afterwards were ceded to the house of the Seleucidæ. The country was reduced into a Roman province by the emperor Claudius.

LYCIDAS, a Centaur, killed by the Lapithæ at the nuptials of Pirithous. *Ovid*.—A shepherd's name. *Virg.*—A beautiful youth, the admiration of Rome in the age of Horace. *Horace, Ode 4.*

LYCII SIMILIS, or LYCIOIDES. See SIDEROXYLON.

LYCIUM, *f.* [so called, as is generally supposed, from Lycia, its native country; but what was the precise plant intended, has never been settled by commentators. Dioscorides describes it as a "spinous tree, with twigs three cubits or more in length, bearing thick-set leaves, like box. The fruit is like pepper, black thick-set, bitter, and smooth. Bark pale. Roots woody." This description accords in many points with some species of the received Lycium; but with none, that we are acquainted with, in every point.] BOX-THORN; in botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of luidæ,



ridæ, (solanæx, Juff.) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianth subquinquefid, obtuse, erect, very small, permanent. Corolla: monopetalous, funnel-form; tube cylindric, spreading, incurved; border five-parted, obtuse, spreading, small. Stamina: filaments five, awl-shaped, from the middle of the tube, shorter than the corolla, closing the tube with a beard; anthers erect. Pistillum: germ roundish; style simple, longer than the stamens; stigma bifid; thickish. Pericarpium: berry roundish, two-celled. Seeds: several, kidney-form: receptacles convex, affixed to the partition.—*Essential Character.* Corolla tubular, closed at the throat by the beard of the filaments; berry two-celled, many-seeded.

*Species.* 1. *Lycium Japonicum*, or Japan box-thorn: unarmed, leaves nerved, ovate, flat, flowers sessile. This shrub is scarcely a fathom in height, very much branched, upright. Branches and branchlets scattered, round, slender or filiform, ash-coloured, smooth, spreading, drooping at top. Leaves opposite, subsessile, attenuated below, blunt with a point, quite entire, smooth, spreading, dark green above, half an inch long; there are clusters of many smaller leaves in the axils. Flowers on the branchlets from a cluster of leaves, sessile, upright, solitary or aggregate, deciduous; calyx much shorter than the corolla, smooth, five-toothed; tube of the corolla greenish-white, a line in length; segments or the border ovate, pale flesh-colour, a little shorter than the tube; the opening of which is closed with villose hairs; filaments fastened to the tube longitudinally below the opening; anthers oblong, standing, a little white. Germ superior; style capillary, white, the length of the corolla; stigmas two, seldom three, oblong, whitish, villose. It varies with double flowers.

It occurs twice in the Syst. Veget. In the Supplement it was named *setidum*, Kämpfer and Kœnig having reported that the bruised leaves smell like dung; which is not true of this shrub, but of a tree called by the Dutch *Srunthout*. It is described by Retzius from Kœnig's specimens; and it is made a distinct genus under the name of *Serissa*, by l'Heritier called *Bochozi*, and by Loureiro *Dy-soda*. Native of Japan; Thouin found it in China, and Kœnig in Madeira. Introduced in 1787, by Monf. Cels. It flowers here most part of the summer; in Japan from April to November. This small handsome shrub is planted frequently for hedges in Japan.

2. *Lycium barbatum*, or fringed box-thorn: unarmed, leaves ovate, smooth; branches flexuose; flowers panicled. Native of the Cape of Good Hope, where it was found by Thunberg. This stands in Linnaeus's Supplement under the name of *L. inerme*. Mr. Miller has one with the same name; but his is a Chinese plant.

3. *Lycium Afrum*, or African box-thorn: thorny, leaves linear, fascicled, branchlets stiff. This rises with irregular shrubby stalks ten or twelve feet high, sending out several crooked knotty branches, covered with a whitish bark, and armed with long sharp spines, upon which grow many clusters of narrow leaves; these thorns often put out one or two smaller on their sides, which have some clusters of smaller leaves upon them; the branches are garnished with very narrow leaves an inch and a half long, and at the base of these come out clusters of shorter and narrower leaves. The flowers come out from the side of the branches, standing upon short foot-stalks; they are of a dull purple colour. The berry is of a yellowish colour when ripe, inclosing several hard seeds. This usually flowers in June and July, and the seeds ripen in the autumn; but frequently a few flowers come out in all the summer months. Native of the Cape of Good Hope; where sheep feed on it. Cultivated in 1712, by the dukes of Beaufort.

β. *L. falicifolium*. This has many irregular shrubby stalks, which rise eight or nine feet high, sending out several irregular branches, covered with a white bark, and armed with pretty strong thorns; the leaves are narrow at bottom, growing broader upward, and are

of a pale green colour. The flowers come out from the side of the branches; they are of a purplish-white colour and small, and make no great appearance. This sort flowers in June and July, but rarely produces any seeds in this country. The leaves remain till winter, when they fall off. It is a native of the South of France, Spain, and Italy, in hedges.

4. *Lycium rigidum*, or rigid box-thorn: leaves clustered, linear; branches straight, ending in a spine. Flowers nearly sessile. Gathered by Thunberg near Cape Town, flowering in July and August. It differs from the preceding chiefly in having the flowers nearly sessile, white with a much shorter and broader corolla; the leaves also are narrower. See the preceding Plate, fig. 2.

5. *Lycium Ruthenicum*, or Russian box-thorn: thorny; leaves linear, fascicled; branches hanging down. This is a shrub of about six feet high, if measured to the tips of the pendent branches; the stems are many, branching almost immediately from the root; branches long, dependent, or procumbent, unless supported; of the thickness of a tobacco-pipe, round, spinose, leafless; decomposed from about the middle, where they shoot into smaller branchlets, which are spiny, very spreading, and leafy towards their tips. Leaves fascicled, growing by fives, and sometimes by nines, or more, juicy, linear, glaucous, obtuse at margin and tip, attenuated towards the base. Flowers two or four together, outwardly pale, and of a greenish-purple; within purple, with a pale throat, marked by fifteen deeper streaks; stamens longer than the corolla; antheræ sulphur-colour, oblong, incumbent.

6. *Lycium tetrandrum*, or four-cleft box-thorn: thorny; leaves ovate obtuse; branches angular; corollas four-cleft. This is a rigid, branched, smooth, shrub, with the habit of the first two species; but with very small fleshy obovate leaves, and small funnel-shaped short white flowers, whose corolla is four-cleft, and stamens four only. Found by Thunberg at the Cape of Good Hope, towards the sea, flowering in June. See the Plate, fig. 3.

7. *Lycium boerhaaviaefolium*, or glaucous-leaved box-thorn: thorny; leaves ovate, quite entire, acute, glaucous; flowers panicled. Stem upright, round, branched, full of chinks, ash-coloured. Branches alternate, spreading, smooth. Spines axillary, solitary, spreading very much, awl-shaped, shorter than the petiole. Leaves alternate, spreading, from twelve to twenty lines long, from eight to fifteen lines wide. Petioles one third of the length of the leaves, spreading very much, round, pale purple. Flowers peduncled, upright, white; corolla blue, smelling very sweet. It has the flowers of *Lycium*, with bearded stamens; but the fruit of *Ehretia*, with bony, three-toothed, two-celled, seeds, but only two in number. It varies with waved leaves. Native of Peru, where it was found by Dombey; Jos. Jussieu introduced it many years since into the Paris garden, where it flowers in summer and autumn, but seldom produces berries. Introduced here in 1780, by Monf. Thouin.

8. *Lycium barbarum*, willow-leaved box-thorn, or blue jasmine: thorny; leaves lanceolate; branches loose; calyxes bifid. This is a weak shrub, nodding and decumbent unless supported. Bark of the branches whitish. Flowers from each bud from two to five, each on its proper peduncle. It differs from all the other sorts, in having the mouth of the calyx two-lobed, or sometimes three-lobed; border of the corolla spreading, with the throat pale, streaked with black, and purple or pale red within. Berries ovate, yellow, or vermillion red, fleshy, with a longitudinal depressed streak on each side, smooth, shining, two-celled; seeds about twelve in each cell, roundish, compressed, with small raised dots on them, whitish. Native of Europe, Asia, and the Cape of Good Hope; cultivated in 1709, by the dukes of Beaufort; it flowers from May to October.

β. *L. Chinense* of Miller rises with weak irregular diffused branches to a great height, requiring support; some of these branches have in one year been upwards of twelve



feet long. The lower leaves are more than four inches long and three broad in the middle; they are of a light green and a thin consistence, placed without order on every side the branches. As the shoots advance in length, the leaves diminish in size, and towards the upper part they are not more than an inch long, and a quarter of an inch broad; they sit close to the stalks on every side. The flowers come out singly at every joint towards the upper part of the branches, on short slender peduncles; they are of a pale colour, with short tubes; the brims are spread open broader than either of the former sorts, and the style is considerably longer than the tube of the corolla. It flowers in August, September, and October; and retains its leaves till November. It is a native of China, whence the seeds were brought to England a few years before 1759; and, being raised in several gardens, by some were thought to be Thea, or tea-tree. The Chinese use a decoction in wine, or an infusion in water; of the berries, as a tonic, analeptic, and cephalic.

9. *Lycium Europæum*, or European box-thorn: thorny; leaves oblique; branches flexuose, round. This differs from *L. barbarum* in being able to stand upright without assistance; in having the leaves, though lanceolate as in that, not flat, but oblique or flexuose; the branchlets flexuose, not rendered angular by a line running down from the petiole; the surface not smooth, but subtomentose; and, finally, spines from every bud. It differs from *L. afrum* in having lanceolate leaves, and round flexuose branchlets. Native of the south of Europe; as Spain, Portugal, and the south of France, observed by Clusius; and by Ray about Montpellier and Florence, flowering both in March and autumn. Clusius says they eat the tender shoots in Spain, with oil and vinegar; and Micheli, that it is used for hedges in Tuscany, where they call it *Spina da corone di crocifissi*; supposing it, in common with several other prickly shrubs, to be that which afforded the crown of thorns to our Saviour before his crucifixion. It was introduced in 1780, by Peter Simon Pallas, M. D.

10. *Lycium Tataricum*, or Tartarian box-thorn: thorny; leaves linear, fasciated; branches supine. This is an elegant shrub, on account of the whiteness of the branches, rods, or twigs, which are many, a foot or eighteen inches long or more, branched, ascending. Spines alternate, awl-shaped, rigid, spreading, white or yellowish, surrounded with leaves and flowers at the base. Flowers from the upper part of the twigs among the leaves, two or three to each spine, on short peduncles. It differs from *L. Europæum*, to which it bears great affinity, in size, and both the colour and form of the flower. Native of Tartary about the Volga; in the deserts of Turcomannia and Hyrcania, especially in sandy soils replete with nitre. When out of flower, it bears great resemblance to *Nitraria*, except that it is more thorny. Gmelin observed a dwarf and very-thorny variety in the sands near the Caspian Sea.

11. *Lycium capsulare*, or capsular box-thorn: thorny; leaves lanceolate, thin, smooth; peduncles and calyxes pubescent; pericarps capsular. This is said by Linnæus to be a native of Mexico, on the authority of Miller; but we do not find it among his species.

12. *Lycium cinereum*, or grey-barked box-thorn: thorny; leaves lanceolate, smooth; branches spineless; peduncles very short. Native of the Cape.

13. *Lycium horridum*, or succulent-leaved box-thorn: thorny; leaves obovate, fleshy, smooth; branches numerous, ending in a spine. Flowers white, on very short stalks. Grows in maritime situations at the Cape, flowering from September to November. The stem is three feet high, rigid, abounding with short spinous branches in every direction. Leaves from three to seven in a cluster, not half an inch long, sessile, thick, smooth; flattish and green above; convex, white, and marked with a green line, beneath. Flowers solitary, small, on short stalks.

14. *Lycium Cochinchinense*, or Cochin-china box-thorn: unarmed; leaves oblong, blunt; cymes termi-

nating. This shrub is four feet high, almost upright, branched. Flowers white, in peduncled cymes. Native of Cochin-china, in woods.

15. *Lycium Carolinianum*, or Carolina box-thorn: leaves spatulate-oblong; branches without spines; flowers four-cleft. Native of the rushy salt-marshes of Carolina, Georgia, and Florida; said to have been brought to England in 1806. The stem is shrubby; leaves narrow; flowers bluish, four-cleft, with four stamens. *Michaux.*

*Propagation and Culture.* Most of these plants may be increased by seeds, cuttings, or layers. If by seeds, they should be sown in the autumn soon after they are ripe; for, if they are kept out of the ground till spring, they seldom come up the first year. If the seeds are sown in pots, the pots should be plunged into some old tan in the winter, and in very severe froit covered with pease-haulm or straw; but in mild weather should be open to receive the wet: in the spring the pots should be plunged into a moderate hot-bed, which will soon bring up the plants; these must be inured to bear the open-air as soon as the danger of frost is over; and, when they are three inches high, they may be shaken out of the pots, and each planted in a small separate pot, filled with loamy earth, and placed in the shade till they have taken new root, when they may be removed to a sheltered situation, where they may remain till the autumn; then they should be either removed into the green-house, or placed under a hot-bed frame to shelter them from hard froit; for, these plants being too tender to live in the open air in England, they must be kept in pots and treated in the same way as myrtles, as other hardy green-house plants; but, when the plants are grown strong, there may be a few of them planted in the full ground in a warm situation, where they will live in moderate winters, but in hard froits they are commonly destroyed. If the cuttings of these plants are planted in a shady border in July, and duly watered, they will take root, and may then be treated in the same way as the seedling plants. This is the common mode of increasing them; for some never produce seeds in England. Several of these shrubs, from China and the Cape will bear the open air in a warm situation and dry soil, when they have once acquired strength; except in very severe winters; especially if the roots be covered with litter, and the branches with mats. See ARDUINA, BARBERIA, BERBERIS, CARISSA, CEANOTHUS, CELASTRUS, GMELENA, RANDIA, RHAMNUS, and SIDEROXYLON.

LY'CIUS, an epithet given to Apollo from his temple in Lycia, where he gave oracles; particularly at Patara, where the appellation of *Lycia sortes* was given to his answers, and even to the will of the Fates. *Virg. Æn.*

LYCK'. See LICK, vol. xii. p. 622.

LYCOCTO'NUM, *f.* in botany. See ACONITUM.

LYCODON'TES. See BUFONITIS, vol. iii. p. 493.

LYCOGA'LA, *f.* in botany, [so named by Micheli, from *λυκος*, a wolf, and *γαλα*, milk.] A genus of the fungus tribe, whose internal appearance and substance, in an early state, are like a mass of thick cream. It is included by Linnæus, Schreber, and others, under MUCOR, which see.

LYCOIDES, *f.* A term used by medical writers to express the disorders which arise in the human body by a long retention of the feed. These are sometimes madness, and very often dangerous quinies and swellings, and inflammations about the neck and throat. If we consider the natural tendency of the disorders of this kind to affect the neck, and the remarkable swelling of the necks of bucks, and some other animals, at rutting-time, it may give some rational hints towards understanding the alteration of the voice in boys who arrive at puberty. Blancard derives the word from *λυκος*, a wolf, and *ειδος*, form, from a supposition that wolves are subject to this disorder.

LYCOME'DES, in fabulous history, a king of Scyros, an island in the Ægean sea. He was son of Apollo and Parthenope. He was secretly intrusted with the care of young Achilles, whom his mother Thetis had disguised







LYCOPERDON AND LYCOPODIUM.



1. The Puff-ball or Puff-ball; 2. the same at the moment of explosion. 3. Lycoperdon of the Oak, s.w. Star Puff-ball, 8 to 11. Species of Club-moss or Wolf's-claw.

*Lycopodium puberulum* at the Act. deprec. Jan. 4. 1816. by Schimper.



in woman's clothes, to detain him from the Trojan war, where she knew he must unavoidably perish. Lycomedes has rendered himself famous for his treachery to Theseus, who had implored his protection when driven from his throne of Athens by the usurper Mnestheus. Lycomedes, as it is reported, either envious of the name of his illustrious guest, or bribed by the emissaries of Mnestheus, led Theseus to an elevated place, on pretence of showing him the extent of his dominions, and perfidiously threw him down a precipice, where he was killed. *Plut. in Theseus.*

LYCOM'ING, a county in the north part of Pennsylvania, 150 miles long, and 86 broad, with 5414 inhabitants.

LYCOM'ING, a town of Pennsylvania: 150 miles north of Philadelphia.

LYCOMING CREEK, a river of Pennsylvania, which runs into the Susquehanna in lat. 41. 10. N. lon. 77. 9. W.

LY'CON, a philosopher of Troas, in the age of Aristotle. He was greatly esteemed by Eumenes, Antiochus, &c. He died in the 74th year of his age. *Diog. in vit.*

LYCO'NE, a city of Thrace.—A mountain of Argolis. *Pauf.*

LYCOPERDAS'TRUM, *f.* in botany. See LYCOPERDON.

LYCOPERDOI'DES. See LYCOPERDON.

LYCOPER'DON, *f.* [so called by Tournefort, from *λυκος*, a wolf, and *περδω*, to explode backwards; this author having certainly improved the old foolish name, *Crepitus lupi*, by making it less generally intelligible. The French call the fungus to which it is applied *vesse-loup*, or wolf-bladder; the English, *puff-ball*; and the Germans, *böfist*; from which last Dillenius contrived the barbarous name *bovifsta*.] In botany, a genus of the class cryptogamia, order fungi, and natural order of fungi, or mushrooms. Generic essential characters—Fungus roundish, opening irregularly at the top, full of powder-like impalpable seeds intermixed with wool-like filaments.

*Species.* Eleven species are enumerated in Murray's edition of *Systema Vegetabilium*. Dr. Withering has twenty-five British species in the third edition of his *Arrangement*. And some of Linnæus's species are disposed of under other genera. Thus the most interesting of the number, *L. tuber*, with the other solid Lycoperdons, is separated, and made a distinct genus, under its old name of TUBER. Persoon has fourteen species, excluding the starchy puff-balls, which he places under a distinct genus, *GEASTRUM*; and some others under the genera TUBER, *SCLERODERMA*, and *BOVISTA*. Some of the species are caulescent; i. e. furnished with a stem; others lie flat upon the ground; others again are parasitical, being found on the bark, and even on the leaves, of trees, (as to which, see the *Linn. Transf.* vol. v. p. 305.) and also on the horns of cattle and sheep, and the hoofs of horses; (Withering.) The seed or dust is in some of the species green, but mostly black; it may vary, however, with the size and age of the fungus. The different species vary in bigness from the size of a pin's head to a diameter of fifteen inches. We shall present the description of a few species, as examples to illustrate the genus.

1. *Lycoperdon proteus*, the large puckfish, or puff-ball: roundish; white or greyish, becoming brown; opening with a rent; seeds dark. This is found often as big as a man's head, in dry upland pastures, in various parts of England and the south of Europe. When the upper part, and the whole powdery contents, are blown away, the spongy base, with a thin torn edge, remains for a considerable time. This species is shown on the annexed Plate, in its quiescent and ripe state, at fig. 1. at the moment of puffing out its dust, it assumes the appearance of fig. 2. This dust, when examined by the microscope, appears to be a multitude of regularly figured, though extremely small, bodies. These require the most powerful magnifiers to distinguish them, and are found to be little globules of an orange colour,

and somewhat transparent; and so small, that the cube of the diameter of a hair would be equal to a hundred and twenty-five thousand of them. In others of this mushroom, the globules are evidently seen to be so many puff-balls, being of a darker colour, and having each a little stalk or tail; by means of these stalks they penetrate into the ground, when shed from their parent plant. The dust of these mushrooms is very hurtful to the eyes, and we have had instances of persons being blinded for a long time by it, with violent pain, swelling and inflammation; and this is probably owing to the sharpness of these almost inconceivably minute stalks or tails. The fumes of this fungus, when burnt, have a narcotic quality, of which some people avail themselves to take a hive without destroying the bees. It is sometimes administered as a stiptic; and (Withering adds) it is used to carry fuel in from a distance.

Of this species there is a great number of varieties, differing in size and habits. Among these may perhaps be reckoned the *L. quercinum* of Albertini. These fungi generally meet in great number, and by their accidental association form large caespites. They adhere to the spot by long and copious roots on the bark of the oak-tree, in the manner represented at fig. 3.

2. *Lycoperdon coliforme*, or colander puff-ball: wrapper many-cleft, expanding; head spherical, depressed; fruit-stalks and mouths numerous. This lycoperdon springs from an egg which lies on a level with, or just below, the surface of the ground. In this state it is nearly globular, but slightly compressed, of a dirty white, wrinkled, scaly; with a short thick root terminated by a few fibres. Cut open it shows a soft leathery coat, covering another which is thicker and much more tough, filled with a white curd-like substance of a disagreeable smell. As yet there was no appearance of a head. One found in August remained in this state to the end of November before it expanded; when in a single day it was entirely raised out of the ground, and fully expanded. The root breaks off, and is left in the earth; and the inversion of the plant necessarily raises it to the surface; what was before the upper and the outer part of the wrapper being now next the ground. This description of the method of opening applies to the *L. stellatum* and *L. recolligens*, as well as to this species. The head in the larger specimens is considerably compressed, of a brownish colour, covered with a very thin pellicle of a beautiful silver grey, peculiar to this species. The apertures are very numerous, slightly elevated, and fringed with fine hairs. The pedicles, which do not appear till the thick brittle coat (which is common to this and the other stellated species) dries or peels off, are very numerous, woody, thread or strap shaped. In one specimen they filled up a circle of half an inch diameter; and this had at least forty apertures. In the small specimens the head is nearly spherical, and sometimes the pedicles and apertures are not more than three or four; but these are hardly to be considered as varieties. Notwithstanding there seems to be a sort of correspondence between the number of pedicles and of apertures, they have no direct communication, nor any corresponding cells; the head forming a single cavity, as in the other species. The apertures are not accidental ruptures, but originally formed; for in an abortive plant, in which the dust never ripened, there was observed a puckering of the skin in the same situation where the mouths usually appear. Found in the lane from Crayford to Bexley Common, Kent; on sandy banks near Mettingham, Suffolk; and Gillingham, and Earsham, Norfolk; from August to November.

3. *Lycoperdon stellatum*, or starchy puff-ball: wrapper many-cleft, expanding; segments unequal; head on a short stem, smooth; mouth tapering upwards, toothed. The head of this, when it first appears above ground, is nearly spherical, as shown at fig. 4. the volva, or sheath, entirely covering the capitulum, or head. In a little time the



wrapper bursts, and expands into many segments, which are fleshy, brittle, and of a pale brown colour; the flesh may be taken off, and a thin coriaceous substance remains. The head then becomes globose, smooth, of a bluish-brown colour; and at first appears sessile, or stemless, owing to the thickness of the interior spongy coat of the wrapper. After a few days, this cracks and peels off, the stem appears, and the whole assumes the form of fig. 5. Owing to this, some authors have described the head as sitting, and others as supported on a stem; and it is therefore very difficult to ascertain whether they speak of this plant or of the *L. recolligens*. The whole plant generally of a dirty white, but the head has sometimes a greyish tinge. The mouth is often smooth when first open, but in time splits into *teeth*. Head about one inch diameter bluish brown. Wrapper brown within, but bright silvery white on the outside. When kept under a glass in a moist state, it gets the cadaverous smell of the Phallus impudicus, but in a less degree. Found in hedge-banks and pastures, in April, September, and October.

A variety of this is figured in the Flora Danica, showing the *teeth* very evidently. This we have copied at fig. 6. and a section of the same, to show the stem at fig. 7.

4. *Lycoperdon fornicatum*, or turret puff-ball: wrapper double, four-cleft, arched; head smooth; mouth blunt, fringed; stem short. This has been often confounded with the preceding, and Bryant regards them as one species; but the double wrapper adhering by the points, which is never seen in any of the varieties of the *L. stellatum*, is a grand distinctive mark; for the outer wrapper remains sunk in the ground, not being reversed and thrown out as in the *stellatum*. This plant, in its expanded state, has a very singular and fanciful appearance. The outer coat or wrapper remains in the ground, whilst the inner, separating from it, is raised up, and bears the head upon its most elevated part, and the points of its segments remain united with those of the outer wrapper so that it is a globe supported upon four arched rays, the four points of the arches resting upon the four points of the outer wrapper which form an inverted arch. See Linn. Tr. vol. ii. p. 38. for an excellent dissertation on the stellated lycoperdons, by Thomas Jenkinson Woodward, esq.

It must have been observed, that the *lycogala* and the *lycoperdon* borrow part of their etymon from the Greek *λυκος*, a wolf. What analogy these humble and harmless inhabitants of the dampest margins of bogs and fens, in the shady bosom of forests, bear to the destructive animal whose name they retain to this day and in many languages, is not easy to perceive; yet we may suppose, that, in ancient and superstitious ages, the idea of a plant, the origin of which was perfectly unknown, its generation a mystery, its growth nearly instantaneous, and its destruction attended with a sort of explosion, might have been connected, in the imagination of the people, with the habits of the wolf, whose favourite haunts are the darkest recesses of the wood, and whose sudden appearance at night, in the neighbourhood of the penfold, is always attended with mischief to the flock, and terror to the shepherd.

**LYCOPER'SICON.** See SOLANUM.

**LYCOPHRON**, son of Periander, king of Corinth, flourished about 550 years before the Christian era. The murder of his mother Melissa, by his father, had such an effect upon him, that he resolved never more to speak to him. This resolution was strengthened by their uncle Proclus, king of Epidaurus, who took Lycophron and his brother under his protection. When the infirmities of Periander obliged him to look for a successor, Lycophron, who was then in the island of Corcyra, refused to come to Corinth while his father was there, and he was induced to promise to settle in that city, only on condition that his father would come and dwell on the island which he left. So fearful, however, were the Corcyrians of the tyranny of Periander, that they killed the son to prevent the meditated exchange from taking place.

**LYCOPHRON**, a Greek grammarian and poet, was a native of Chalcis in Euboea, and flourished about B. C. 504. He appears to have attained a considerable degree of poetical reputation, as his name occurs among the seven who formed what is called the *Pleias* at the court of Ptolemy Philadelphus. Suidas has preserved the titles of twenty tragedies composed by him; but the only work of Lycophron's which has come down to modern times is a very singular poem entitled "Alexandra," or Cassandra, the subject of which is a series of predictions feigned by him to have been uttered by that daughter of Priam. This obscure topic is treated in a more obscure style; and it is thought that the writer's purpose was to puzzle the critics. It would perhaps have been wise to have defeated his design by total neglect; but the pride and curiosity of learned men has not suffered the work to sink into merited oblivion. On the contrary, it has furnished a frequent trial of skill to Greek scholars. Ovid, who terms Lycophron *cothurnatus*, (the buckined or tragic,) mentions that he is recorded to have been slain by an arrow. The Cassandra of Lycophron has been several times edited. The best edition is accounted that of bishop Potter, Oxon. folio, 1697 and 1702. *Vossii Poet. Græc. Bibliograph. Dicct.*

**LYCOPODIODES.** See LYCOPODIUM.

**LYCOPODIUM**, *f.* [from the Gr. *λυκος*, a wolf, and *πους*, the foot, from the incurved, and often finger-like, shape of the spikes or extreme branches.] **CLUB-MOSS**, or **WOLF'S-CLAW**; in botany, a genus of the class cryptogamia, order musci, Linn. (filices, Smith,) natural order of musci, Linn. (musci spurii, Juss. lycopodineæ, Brown.) Generic essential character—Capsules axillary, sessile, naked, mostly solitary, of one cell; some kidney-shaped, of two elastic valves, and full of fine powder; others two or three-lobed, of two or three valves, lodging from one to six globose bodies.

This genus holds as it were an intermediate place between the ferns and mosses. Some botanists have therefore been most inclined to refer it to one tribe, others to the other. Its habit, most like the mosses, does yet by no means strictly accord with that order; and their fructification, being now well understood, separates them distinctly from Lycopodium, whose nature in that respect is almost totally in the dark, agreeing so far with ferns. The seeds of the latter, however produced, agree as nearly as can be with the powder found in the compressed or kidney-shaped capsules of the genus in question, which powder moreover has been likewise proved, by experiment, to be real seed. But the globular bodies found in peculiar capsules upon *L. denticulatum* and other species, proved themselves seeds by germinating, according to Brotero, (Linn. Transf. v. 162.) yet such species are furnished besides with what seems to be the genuine fruit of the genus. In this difficulty, Swartz and Brown have prudently contented themselves, in the generic character, with mentioning these two kinds of apparent capsules and seeds, without positively asserting either to be such. Joseph Fox, a poor journeyman weaver of Norwich, is the first person upon record who ever raised plants of Lycopodium selago from the dust of the kidney-shaped capsules. See Linn. Transf. ii. 314. where Mr. Lindsey's account of having succeeded equally well with the dust of *L. cernuum* in Jamaica, is also to be found. Sprengel cites the authority of professor Willdenow in confirmation of this. We cannot but admit therefore that this dust, so exactly resembling the known seed of ferns, is real seed. This is the *pulvis lycopodii*, formerly kept in the apothecaries' shops, on account of some reputed qualities long since disbelieved. It is still used in Germany to produce the appearance of lightning upon the stage; for, being very light and highly inflammable, it takes fire instantaneously, with a sort of hissing explosion, while floating in the air. The dust of *L. clavatum* is collected and sold on the continent, for this purpose. With respect to the globular bodies, whose bulk is beyond all measure greater than that of these minute seeds, it is impossible to doubt the assertion of Brotero, who in the fifth volume of the Linn. Transf. describes



scribes their germination, radicle, cotyledons, &c. so that we must allow the existence of two kinds of seed on the same plant. The same phenomenon has been suspected in the genera *Fucus* and *Conserva*; though botanists have been so justly cautious of admitting it, that they have not dared to trust their own eyes. Perhaps the actual existence of the fact in *Lycopodium* may sanction our belief of it in these other instances. The difference however between these two kinds of seeds in *Lycopodium* is far more essential than Sprengel seems to insinuate, when he says it "only proves that the capsules of several species of this genus are of two different shapes." Nothing can be greater than the apparent difference betwixt the two kinds of seeds themselves, which is such as to overstep all analogy hitherto known. We ought not to omit that Dillenius first observed these different kinds of seeds in *Lycopodium*, and has founded upon them the different genera into which he has divided it.

The 14th edition of the *Syst. Veg.* contains 29 species of *Lycopodium*, six of which are British. Professor Swartz defines 65; exclusive of the Linnæan *rudum*, which he establishes as a distinct genus, by the name of *Psilotum*; as well as of several others, which he finds mentioned in books, but could not satisfactorily ascertain. Fifteen species have axillary sessile capsules, all uniform, of two valves, containing the above-described powdery kind of seeds. The remaining 50 bear their capsules in terminal spikes, each capsule being accompanied by a peculiar scale or bractea, generally toothed or fringed, totally unlike the leaves, and mostly of a paler or more tawny colour. Of these 50, twenty-six have the same kind of capsules and seeds as the above 15, and no other; one, *L. selaginoides*, has, besides such capsules, very remarkable four-lobed ones, of two three-lobed valves, and containing four globose white seeds. The remainder have kidney-shaped as well as roundish, rarely three-lobed, capsules, either intermixed in the same spike, or the former are in the upper part, the latter in the lower. By this statement it appears, that no known species is without the kidney-shaped compressed capsule, bearing the minute dust-like seed, analogous to that of ferns; the larger globose seed being, as it seems, more of an adventitious nature.

Dr. Weftring, physician to the king of Sweden, has obtained excellent dyes from different species of *Lycopodium*. The following is the method which he has found to be the most simple: Take a quantity of this moss, dried and chopped, nearly double the weight of the cloth to be dyed. Put them into a proper vessel, a stratum of the moss between every fold of the cloth, and pour on a quantity of water sufficient to cover the whole. Boil them together for two or three hours, adding more water from time to time, to supply the place of what is waisted by evaporation. Take out the cloth thus prepared, wring it, and hang it up to dry without rinsing. When the cloth is to be dyed, it must be rinsed carefully in cold water, put into a well-tinned copper with cold water, and a small quantity of brasil-wood, and then boiled gently for half an hour or more, according as the tint is to be deeper or lighter. If too much brasil be used, the dye will have a violet hue. When it is taken from the fire, the cloth is to be rinsed in cold water. Care must be taken that none of the common mordants, either saline or astringent, are used; for they would alter the colour.

M. Buchholz has, from various experiments upon the seeds of *Lycopodium*, found that they contain, 1. a sixteenth part of a fat oil of brownish yellow, and soluble in alcohol; 2. a portion of real sugar; 3. a viscous extract of a brownish yellow, and an insipid taste; 4. the residue, after being treated with alcohol and water, may be regarded as a peculiar product of the vegetable kingdom; 5. the yellowish aspect of the seed in this latter state indicates the union of a species of pigment with the first principle of the seed, or, at least, a very intimate union of the constituent parts of this seed; 6. the oily part which enters into the composition of this seed

occasions its lively combustion, and its constant separation from water.

We shall now, as in the case of *Lycoperdon*, select a few species as examples, and illustrate them with figures; but these figures would not bear us out in joining with a brother cyclopædist, who calls this genus "one of the most elegant in the whole vegetable kingdom."

1. *Lycopodium linifolium*, or flax-leaved club-moss: leaves alternate, remote, lanceolate. Native of South America and the West Indies. The root is fibrous. Stems seemingly pendulous, above two feet long, slender, slightly branched, leafy throughout. Leaves scattered, half an inch at least distant from each other, often near two inches long, entire, taper-pointed, somewhat ovate, and twisted at the base. Capsules axillary, solitary, kidney-shaped. No other known species can vie with this in the size and distance of its leaves.

2. *Lycopodium gnidioides*: leaves three in a whorl, imbricated, ovate-lanceolate, obtuse, entire. Branches elongated. Gathered in the island of Mauritius by Sonnerat or Commerçon, and given by Thouin to the younger Linnæus. No other botanist seems to have seen the plant. It appears to be very tall, with the habit of the former, but differs essentially in its much closed and whorled leaves, not half an inch long, blunt and concave, without rib or vein; the upper ones very gradually shorter and more ovate, with solitary, palish, axillary, roundish, slightly-reniforme, capsules.

3. *Lycopodium selago*, or fir-leaved club-moss: leaves scattered; pointing eight ways; stem forked, upright; branches all of the same height; flowers scattered. The leaves are obliquely disposed in eight rows, which may be best observed by holding the ends of the branches perpendicular to the eye. Stems upright, branched, from three to seven inches high, forked; branches again forked, closely covered with leaves. Leaves spear-shaped, sharp-pointed, stiff, smooth, shining, scolloped or serrated, and cartilaginous at the edge. Capsules in the bosom of the upper leaves, kidney-shaped, flattened, yellow, opening like an oyster, and pouring out a pale yellow powder. Root dividing into forks like the stem. The whole plant very firm and stiff; from two to five inches high. Inhabits mountainous heaths, in the clefts of rocks, in Yorkshire, Lancashire, Westmoreland, Cumberland, the Highlands and Hebrides; near the top of Ingleborough, Yorkshire; mountains in the north; and on Dartmoor; flowers from April to October. It purges, vomits, and destroys worms. A decoction of it is a cure for lice in swine and cattle. Its properties seem to challenge further inquiry.

4. *Lycopodium phlegmaria*: leaves ovate, heart-shaped, entire; the lower ones four in a whorl. Spikes thread-shaped, forked. This grows in various parts of the East Indies, as well as in the Isle of Bourbon; Mr. Menzies gathered it in Otaheite. It is eighteen inches or more in height, slightly forked or branched, clothed with numerous shining leaves, not so regularly whorled, at least the upper ones, as Dillenius found them. The long, terminal, slender forked spikes, with their little roundish bracteas scarcely broader than the accompanying capsules, are very singular.

5. *Lycopodium alpinum*, or mountain club-moss: leaves pointing four ways; tiled, acute; stems upright, cloven; spikes sitting, cylindrical. The stem creeping, from a span to a foot long. Branches alternate, at an inch distance from each other, upright, forked, length of a little finger. Little branches bundled, from twenty to thirty together, exactly four-cornered, the angles blunt. Leaves thickish. Fruit-stalks terminating a branch here and there, scarcely two or three lines high, forked, scarcely distinguishable from the branches, covered with smaller leaves, bearing as many spikes. Spikes egg-shaped, nearly smooth. All the branches divided, and frequently subdivided into forks. Upright shoots one and a half to three inches long; thinner than the spikes which they support. Inhabits mountainous heaths in Yorkshire, Cumberland,



and the mountains of Wales, the Highlands and Hebrides, found near the Holme, about five miles from Burnley, Lancashire, by Mr. Woodward; on Yew-barrow, in Furness Fells, along with *L. selago*, by Mr. Jackson; from July to October.

6. *Lycopodium annotinum*, or Welsh club-moss: leaves scattered, pointing five ways; somewhat serrated; stem jointed at each year's shoot; spikes terminating, smooth, upright. The branches contracted at the last year's shoots, as in the female of the *Polytrichum commune*. Root branched; trailing stem very long; upright shoots from one to two and a half inches high, generally branched, supporting the spikes of fructification. Found on the mountains of Caernarvonshire, as about two hundred yards south-west of *Llyn y Cwn*; from June to September. A branch of this, magnified, is shown on the preceding Plate, at fig. 8. and a leaf more highly magnified, at *a*.

7. *Lycopodium clavatum*, common club-moss, or wolf's-claw: leaves scattered, terminating in threads; spikes cylindrical, on fruit-stalks, in pairs. Stem creeping. Shoots from one to several feet in length, firmly attached to the earth by woody fibres. Branches expanding, distant, trailing; the lower ones again subdividing into forks. Leaves closely tiled, strap-spear-shaped, pointed, and hooked; with long white hairs at the end. In the summer, from the ends of the branches, the fruit-stalks rise up, almost leafless, jointed, straight, rigid, from two to four inches high, bearing at the top one, two, or three, cylindrical flowering spikes, closely tiled with scales or hooks pointed, hairy at the end, ragged at the edges. Each of these scales incloses a kidney-shaped yellow capsule, exploding when ripe a yellow powder, which resembles sulphur, and burns with an explosion. Grows abundantly in dry places on mountains, heaths, and woods; as on Hampstead and Hounslow heaths, near Esher; Monksfold-heath, near Norwich; Cannock-heath, Staffordshire, &c. flowers in July and August. In Sweden they form it into mats or busses, which lie at their doors to clean shoes upon. It restores ropy wine in a few days. The seeds are with difficulty made wet; and, if scattered upon a basin of water, you may dip your hand to the bottom of the basin without wetting it. See a branch magnified at fig. 9.

8. *Lycopodium inundatum*, or marsh club-moss: leaves scattered, very entire; spikes terminating leafy. Stem creeping; spikes solitary, sitting, smooth. Branched; the length of a finger or more; cylindrical. Leaves awl-shaped, pointed, smooth, on the creeping shoots, pointing one way, two lines long, and one broad at the base. Shoots creeping, pointing one way; those bearing spikes an inch long, upright, cylindrical; spikes not different from the shoots except in being thicker. Capsules compressed, roundish, not kidney-shaped. Found on moist heaths and turfy bogs, from June to September. See fig. 10.

9. *Lycopodium selaginoides*, or prickly club-moss: leaves scattered, fringed, spear-shaped; spikes solitary, terminating, leafy. The capsules, those at the base of the lower leaves when viewed sideways apparently in threes, but really in fours, one pair above and the other pair below; at length gaping, and disclosing as many large solid seeds; those at the base of the upper leaves yellower, of a looser texture, entirely simple, round, not containing seeds, but pollen. Plant from one to three inches high. Inhabits mountainous heaths and pastures, in Scotland, the north of England, and Wales; from June to September.

10. *Lycopodium complanatum*; leaves in two rows, united, superficial ones solitary; spikes in pairs, each on a distinct peduncle. See the Plate, fig. 11.

11. *Lycopodium flabellatum*, or fan club-moss: leaves in two rows, ovate, oblique, fringed at the base, accompanied by a double row of smaller imbricated ones in front. Stem round, repeatedly branched, flattened above. The figures of this species, which is found in the West Indies,

give but an inadequate idea of its beauty. Its flat fan-like shape, and the exquisitely neat arrangement of the innumerable little shining leaves, give it a peculiar and striking aspect. The spikes are small, and sparingly produced the root fibrous. The whole plant from one to two feet high.

LYCOP'OLIS, [Gr. the City of the Wolves.] An ancient city of Upper Egypt, in the Thebais, situated on the western side of the Nile, at the foot of the Libyan chain of mountains; and so called, because extraordinary worship was paid here to wolves, which, according to Diodorus Siculus, drove back the Ethiopians when they invaded Egypt, and pursued them to Elephantina, on the borders of Ethiopia. This city is supposed to have stood where the town of *Siat* now stands. See the article EGYPT, vol. vi. p. 359.—Some authors mention another Lycopolis, in the Delta, or Lower Egypt, near the Mediterranean.

LYCOP'SIS, *f.* [so called by Pliny and Dioscorides; owes its derivation to *λυκος*, a wolf, and *οψη*, a face, or countenance, from the circumstance of the flowers being ringent, and having the appearance of a grinning mouth; the herbage is also furnished, says Ambrosinus, with a sort of rigid hairiness similar to the coat of a wolf.] WILD BUGLOSS; in botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of asperifoliae, (borraginæ, *Juss.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium five-parted; segments oblong, acute, spreading, permanent. Corolla: one petalled, funnel-form; tube cylindrical, from curved bent; border half five-cleft, blunt; throat closed with five convex prominent converging scales. Stamina: filaments five, very small, at the bending of the tube of the corolla; antheræ small, covered. Pistillum: germs four; style filiform, the length of the stamens; stigma blunt, bifid. Pericarpium: none; calyx very large, inflated. Seeds: four, longish. The essence of the genus consists in the curvature of the tube of the corolla.—*Essential Character.* Corolla with the tube bent in.

*Species.* 1. *Lycopsis vesicaria*, or bladder-podded wild bugloss: leaves quite entire; stem prostrate; fruiting calyxes inflated, pendulous. Root annual. It resembles the next species very much; but the stem is prostrate, the root not creeping or abiding, the habit smaller and less villose, the corollas small and brown. Stem angular, hirsute, solid, weak, a long span or more in length. Leaves an inch and a half or two inches long, half an inch wide, sessile, lanceolate, pubescent, with a short soft hoary wool. Flowers axillary, from the top of the stem and branches, in swelling hirsute striated calyxes, on short peduncles; corolla very small, scarcely appearing out of the calyx. As the flower withers, the calyx swells very much into a sort of bladder. Native of the south of Europe, in dry hilly situations; it flowers in June and July.

2. *Lycopsis pulla*, or dark-flowered wild bugloss: leaves quite entire; stem upright; fruiting calyxes inflated, pendulous. Root creeping, perennial, (or rather biennial.) Stem upright, branched. Leaves and calyxes rough; corolla small, dark blackish purple. More villose than the preceding. Gartner considers the seeds of this natural order as nuts. They are four in number (except when some are abortive) in every calyx. These are middle-sized, crustaceous, ovate-acuminate, oblique, incumbent on their umbilicus, obsoletely netted-wrinkled above, grooved on the sides with parallel streaks, straw-coloured, one-celled, valveless; aperture of the umbilicus very wide, above the base of the nut, on the inner side. Seeds solitary, that is, one within each cell or crust, ovate-acuminate, turbidly lenticular, dark or black-brown. Native of Germany and Austria, in dry pastures, flowering in May and June; with us in June and July.

3. *Lycopsis Ægyptia*, or Egyptian wild bugloss: leaves quite entire, rugged; stems ascending; fruiting calyxes inflated, pendulous. This plant in reality appears to be the *Asperugo Ægyptiaca* of Linnæus's *Spec. Pl.* edit. 2.

4. *Lycopsis variegata*, or variegated wild bugloss: leaves repand,



repand, toothed, callous; stem decumbent; corollas drooping. This is a low trailing annual plant, the branches seldom extending more than six inches, and thinly set with small spear-shaped warty leaves, half surrounding the stalk. Flowers small, bright blue, collected into small bunches at the extremity of the branches. Native of Nice, and the island of Candia, on the walls of the city.

It varies with red flowers, elegantly streaked with white. Sir George Wheeler found a variety of it on Mount Hy-mettus near Athens.

5. *Lycopsis arvensis*, or small wild bugloss: leaves lanceolate, hispid, flowering; calyxes upright. Root annual, simple, fibrous, whitish. It is an extremely-harsh, rough, and bristly, plant. Stems thick, cylindrical, or slightly angular, upright, hispid, a foot or more in height, branched for the most part at top only. Flowers in spikes, all one way, sessile, and turned backward; corolla sky-blue, but varies, like many others of this colour, to red and white. When the plants grow on dunghills, the leaves are often an inch and a half broad. Native of most parts of Europe, in corn-fields, especially where the soil is sandy, and on dry banks. It flowers from May to July, as Mr. Curtis says; from June to September, according to Dr. Withering and Mr. Hudson. It has lately been recommended as a remedy against the *anthrax*, or corrosive ulcer, commonly called a carbuncle, by laying the bruised plant on the tumour.

6. *Lycopsis bullata*, or bladdery-leaved wild bugloss: leaves lanceolate-ovate, hispid, bladdery; stem procumbent. Root annual, simple. Stems clustered, nine inches or a foot high, round, hispid, purple, procumbent. Root-leaves numerous, lanceolate-ovate, hispid, dark green, with prominent white bladders. Stem-leaves sessile, somewhat stem-clasping, with a few teeth, acuminate. Flowers several, at the extremity of the stem; calyx erect, hispid, ferruginous; corolla at first purple, then blue. It differs from the preceding in having the leaves constantly bladdery. Common on waste-grounds about Naples; flowering from February through the whole summer.

7. *Lycopsis orientalis*, or oriental wild bugloss: leaves ovate, quite entire, rugged; calyxes upright. This is an annual plant, a native of the Levant.

8. *Lycopsis Virginica*, or Virginian wild bugloss: leaves linear-lanceolate, clustered, tomentose; soft; stem upright. A perennial plant; native of Virginia, by way-sides.

*Propagation and Culture.* See ANCHUSA. They are hardy plants, will generally rise from scattered seeds, and do not bear transplanting well. See ASPERUGO, ECHIUM, and MYOSOTIS.

LYCO'PUS, *f.* [said to be derived from *λυκος*, a wolf, and *πους*, a foot; though we are perfectly incompetent to trace the origin of such a derivation.] WATER HOREHOUND; in botany, a genus of the class djandria, order monogynia, natural order of verticillatæ, (labiatæ, *Tourn. Juss. &c.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium one-leaved, tubular, half-five-cleft; segments narrow, acute. Corolla: one-petalled, unequal; tube cylindrical, the length of the calyx; border four-cleft, blunt, spreading; segments almost equal; upper broader, emarginate; lower smaller. Stamina: filaments two, commonly longer than the corolla, inclining to the upper segments; antheræ small. Pistillum: germ four-cleft; style filiform, straight, the length of the filaments; stigma bifid, reflex. Pericarpium: none; calyx containing the seeds in its bottom.—*Essential Character.* Corolla four-cleft, with one division emarginate; stamina distant; seeds four, retuse.

*Species.* 1. *Lycopus Europæus*, water horehound, or gypsy-wort: leaves sinuate-ferrate. Root perennial, creeping. This plant has the square stalks, opposite leaves, inflorescence, flowers, and seeds, of the natural order verticillatæ; differing only in having two stamens, whence it is separated in the artificial system of Linnæus from its congeners, with which this, as well as Verbena, might be united; Dr. Withering having remarked, that it is not uncommon between the two stamens to find two shorter

filaments without antheræ; and that he once found them with antheræ. Stems commonly from one to four feet in height, upright, the sides deeply channelled, rough-haired at the corners, branched from the bottom. Branches opposite, brachiate, axillary, almost erect, the lower ones reaching almost as high as the main stem. Leaves ovate, ovate-oblong, or almost lanceolate, pointed, sessile, somewhat wrinkled, slightly hirsute, dark green above, pale green beneath, the midrib and veins very strong, the edge cut with deep serratures; many of the leaves of the main stem, especially the lower ones, pinnatifid at the base; these are five inches long and two broad; the upper ones and those on the branches are from three to four inches in length, and not pinnatifid, but simply serrate. Flowers small, many together, disposed in dense whorls, at each joint, from the axils of the leaves, almost from top to bottom of the branches, and in the main stem great part of the length; calyx hirsute, divided into five (sometimes four) unequal awned clefts; corolla white with a tinge of purple, somewhat hairy or villose within; the upper segment slightly notched, the lower dotted with purple; filaments first bent in, then straight; antheræ somewhat crescent-shaped and whitish. Germ set upon a yellow glandular receptacle. Seeds brown, shining, subtriangular, outwardly flatish, impressed with a subcordate line in the middle; inwardly the middle running out to a point, and the sides somewhat rolled in. The leaves vary, in being more or less hairy, and more or less divided. Leers mentions a variety, with all the flowers female, or without stamens. It is common in most parts of Europe in meadows, and on the banks of streams and ponds; flowering from July to September. In some meadows it abounds so much as to be noxious. Cattle appear not to touch it; and its root being of the creeping kind, renders it difficult of extirpation. It dyes black, and gives a permanent colour to linen, wool, and silk. Gypsies are said to stain their skin with it. This common plant, which on trial might probably be found useful to dyers, is called by all English writers *water-horehound*; in German it is *wolfsfuß*, *wasserandorn*, *sumpsandorn*, *bruchandorn*, *wieswandorn*, *weiherandorn*, *wolfsbein*, *sparrsaden*, *zigennerkraut*, *ghedkraut*, *Christusflanze*; in Dutch, *wolfsfoot*, *waterandorn*; in Danish, *vandmarru*; in Swedish, *varg fot*; in French, *marrube aquatique*, *licope*, *patte de loup*; in Italian, *licopo*.

2. *Lycopus Virginicus*, or Virginian water-horehound: leaves equally serrate. Native of Virginia. The leaves are lanceolate, and very finely serrate.

3. *Lycopus exaltatus*, or lofty water-horehound: leaves pinnatifid-serrate at the base. Stem the height of a man, branched, angular, rugged. Leaves deeply serrate, the lowest serratures deeper, so as to be almost pinnatifid at bottom, with subserrate segments. Corollas four-cleft, white, the segments dotted with red, the uppermost emarginate, the lowest broader. Native of Italy.

4. Besides the three species above described, Mr. Brown, in his Prodrômus to the Flora of New Holland, mentions another, which he calls *australis*, with the following character: "Leaves lanceolate, pointed, serrated, downy, roughish above, glandular beneath, entire, and attenuated at the base: serratures remote, equal, very acute. Stems striated." This is found all over New Holland; and in Mr. Brown's opinion is very nearly allied to *L. Europæus*.

5. Michaux has another species under the name of *uniflorus*, which is thus characterized: "Plant very small; root tuberous; stems simple; leaves oval, obtuse, obsoletely toothed; flowers axillary, solitary." This is a native of North America.

LYCORE'A, a town of Phocis, at the top of Parnassus, where the people of Delphi took refuge during Deucalion's deluge, directed by the howlings of wolves. *Pausanias*.

LYC'ORIS, a freedwoman of the senator Volumnius, also called *Cytheris*, and *Volumnia* from her master. She is celebrated for her beauty and intrigues. The poet Gallus was greatly enamoured of her; and his friend Virgil comforts him in his 10th Eclogue for the loss of the favours.



of Cytheris, who followed Mark Antony's camp, and was become the Aspasia of Rome. The charms of Cleopatra, however, prevailed over those of Cytheris; and the unfortunate courtisan lost the favours of Antony and of all the world at the same time. Lycoris was originally a comedian.

**LYCORMAS**, a river of Ætolia, whose sands were of a golden colour. It was afterwards called *Evenus* from king Evenus, who threw himself into it. *Ovid. Met.*

**LYC'OROUS**, *adj.* Dainty; gluttonous; lewd. *Chaucer.*

**LYCORTAS**, the father of Polybius, who flourished B. C. 184. He was chosen general of the Achæan league; and revenged the death of Philopœmen, &c. *Plutarch.*

**LYCOSU'RA**, a city built by Lycaon, on Mount Lycæus in Arcadia.

**LYC'TUS**, a town of Crete, the country of Idomeneus, whence he is often called *Lyctius*. *Virg. Æn.*

**LYCUR'GUS**, the celebrated legislator of Sparta, is reckoned by the best chronologers to have been born about B. C. 926. He is commonly said to have been the son of Eunomus king of Sparta, who was succeeded by Polydectes, his eldest son; on the death of whom, Lycurgus, his brother, was called to the succession. The pregnancy of the widow of Polydectes, however, being soon made known, Lycurgus publicly declared that he should only hold the crown in trust for the child, provided it should prove a son. It did prove a son; and Lycurgus now contented himself with being tutor to his nephew Charillus, and restored to him the government when he came of age; but, notwithstanding this regular and generous conduct, he was accused of a design to usurp the crown. This calumny obliged him to retire to the island of Crete, where he applied himself to the study of the laws and customs of nations. At his return to Lacedæmon, he reformed the government; and introduced those admirable laws which (a few excepted) have been celebrated by all historians. He was equally averse to a tyranny and a democracy; and to one who once extolled the latter form, he shrewdly recommended to *try it first in his own family*. Indeed the wisdom of Lycurgus, and the excellency of his polity, chiefly appeared in effectually guarding against the licentiousness of democracy on the one hand, and the oppression of despotism on the other. Power was so exactly balanced, and so checked and guarded on every hand, that no sooner did one branch of the body politic overstretch its just limits, and aim at the ascendancy, than the others combined to curb and restrain it. This afforded the surest pledge of stability and almost invincible power; this rendered Sparta the bulwark of all Greece; this constituted the inhabitants of Lacedæmon a band of heroes, who feared not to combat singly the innumerable myriads of Persia. The British constitution, which has been so long and deservedly admired through the whole world, is formed in a great degree upon this model; since the three branches of the executive power amongst us bear a close analogy to those of Sparta, and are calculated in the same manner to preserve the balance of power.

Besides the grand outline sketched by the masterly hand of Lycurgus, some of the more minute features of this civil code have been held in universal admiration. The influence of education upon the national character, and its importance to the state, did not escape the penetrating sight of this truly-wise man. He felt the necessity of cleansing the fountain-head, in order that the streams might be rendered pure, or (to borrow a metaphor from the sacred Scriptures) first to make the tree good, that its fruit might be good also. Such were the designs of those laws which rendered the children the property of the state, which provided for their public education, by means of which patriotism, magnanimity, and subordination, were instilled into their minds from the tenderest infancy. Some of these minor regulations proved very grievous to the richer classes, and even produced a tumult, in which Lycurgus had one of his eyes struck out by a violent youth. His behaviour under this outrage was truly phi-

losophical. He showed his face streaming with blood to the people, who were struck with shame and grief at the spectacle, and delivered up the offender to his disposal. Lycurgus took him home; and, without offering him any injury, employed him to dress his wound and wait upon him, till by his mild demeanour he had entirely converted the youth into a peaceable and orderly citizen. Every particular concerning this great man's life and government has been given (with his portrait) under the article **GREECE**, vol. viii. p. 838-841. and some remarks upon his laws, as contrasted with those of Solon, will be found under the article **LAW**, vol. xii. p. 353-355. Upon the whole, if an estimate of the excellence of a constitution be deduced from its permanent effects, that of Lycurgus has no common claims. It stood upwards of five hundred years, during which period intestine commotions were scarcely known, nor did hostile armies dare to invade them. If any foe presumed to attack them, they were either completely subdued, or, covered with shame, retreated. Sparta stood alone when all the other states of Greece bowed either to the shrine of wealth or to the sceptre of despotic power, and defended with her blood the expiring liberties of Greece. Nor was she weakened by intestine commotions, or subjugated to a foreign yoke, till the spirit and force of these wise laws enacted by Lycurgus were lost, and her rigid simplicity was exchanged for the inebriating luxuries of foreign courts. Plutarch affirms that Lycurgus voluntarily put an end to his life by abstinence, while he was yet of an age to enjoy it; yet Lucian says that he died at the age of eighty-five. The place of his death is differently stated to have been Cirrha, Elis, and Crete. His memory was honoured at Sparta by an anniversary festival, at which his praises were recited, and which was observed for several ages.

**LYCUR'GUS**, an Athenian orator, son of Lycophon, flourished in the time of Philip of Macedon, about B. C. 356. He studied philosophy under Plato, and oratory under Isocrates; and, attaching himself to a political life, rose to public employments. The superintendance of the public revenue was entrusted to him; in which office he conducted himself with strict integrity, and augmented the marine of Athens. He was also appointed one of the judges, or magistrates; and exercised his charge with great vigour and severity. He banished from the city all persons of dissolute character, and made a number of useful regulations. Persuaded of the utility of the higher kinds of poetry to the public morals, he favoured dramatic exhibitions, and caused statues to be erected in honour of the principal tragedians. He was a friend to philosophers; and, being once present when Xenocrates was dragged to prison because he had not paid the tribute exacted from strangers, he liberated him, and confined the farmer of the tax in his stead. He kept an exact register of all the acts of his administration, which, after the period of his office, he fixed to a column, that all the citizens might make their remarks upon it. In his last illness he caused himself to be carried to the senate, in order to give an account of all his actions; and, having refuted the charge of a single accuser, he was brought back, and died soon after. Lycurgus was one of the thirty orators whom the Athenians refused to deliver up to Alexander. Some of his orations are preserved, and have been printed in collections of the Greek orators. *Plutarch Vit. Orator.*

**LYC'US**, a king of Bœotia, successor to his brother Nycteus, who left no male issue. He was entrusted with the government only during the minority of Labdacus, the son of the daughter of Nycteus. He was farther enjoined to make war against Epopeus, who had carried away by force Antiope the daughter of Nycteus. He was successful in this expedition: Epopeus was killed; and Lycus recovered Antiope, and married her, though she was his niece. This new connection highly displeased his first wife Dirce; and Antiope was delivered to the unfeeling queen, and tortured in the most cruel manner. Antiope at last escaped, and entreated her sons, Zethus and Am-

phion,



plion, to avenge her wrongs. The children, incensed on account of the cruelties which their mother had suffered, besieged Thebes, killed Lycus, and tied Dirce to the tail of a wild bull, who dragged her till she died. *Paus. Apollod.*

LY'CUS, a king of Libya, who sacrificed whatever strangers came upon his coast. When Diomedes, at his return from the Trojan war, had been shipwrecked there, the tyrant seized him and confined him. He, however, escaped by means of Callirhoe, the tyrant's daughter, who was enamoured of him, and who hung herself when she saw herself deserted.

LY'CUS, a son of Neptune by Celæno, made king of a part of Mysia by Hercules. He offered violence to Megara, the wife of Hercules, for which he was killed by the incensed hero. Lycus gave a kind reception to the Argonauts. *Apollodorus.*

LY'CUS, in ancient geography, a river of Sarmatia, south-west of Rhodus, which discharged itself into the Euxine sea. It is mentioned by Ovid.—A river, which, according to Herodotus, took its rise in the country inhabited by the Thyrsagetæ, and, traversing that of the Mæotæ, ran into the Palus Mæotis. Ptolemy mentions this river, which is supposed to be the same with the preceding.—A river of Asia, in Phrygia.—A river of Asia Minor, in Caria, the source of which was in mount Cadmus, and it formed a lake in Latmicus Sinus.—A river in Sicily, the same with Halycus.—A river of Macedonia, mentioned by Plutarch.—A river of Asia Minor, in Mysia, in the canton of Pergamus.—A river of Asia, which, proceeding from Armenia, watered the plain near the town of Heraclea, and discharged itself into the Iris.—A river of Asia, in Bithynia, the same with Rhyndacus, according to Pliny.—A river of Asia, in Pontus, which mixed its waters with those of the Iris.—A river of Asia, in Cappadocia, according to Ptolemy, who says that it was one of the branches of the Aborrus, which fell into the Euxine sea.—A river of Asia, in Assyria, according to Polybius and Ptolemy.—A river of Asia, in Syria, near the gulf of Issus, according to Pliny.—A small river of the island of Cyprus, which had its source in the interior of the island at mount Olympus, and discharged itself into the sea to the west of Amathus.—A river of Phœnicia, which ran between Byblos and Beryta, according to the Itinerary of Antonine.

LYD. See LID, vol. xii. p. 623.

LYDD, a small market-town in the county of Kent, occupies a low site near the south-western extremity of the county, where a point of land running out into the sea forms Dengeness-bay, which, though very open, is of great service for vessels when the wind sets violently from particular quarters. Leland says, "Lydd is counted as a part of Rumney, is iii myles beyond Rumney town, and is a market. The town is of a pretty quantite, and the townesh men uses botes to the se, the which at this time is a myle of. The hole town is conteyned in one parochie, but that is very large. Ther is a place beyond Lydde, wher at a great nombre of holme trees groueth upon a banke of baches throwen up by the se: and ther they bat fowle, and kill many birdes." The church, which is a spacious edifice, consists of a nave, chancel, and aisles, with a massive tower, ornamented with pinnacles at the west end. The monuments are numerous, and among them are many brasses, chiefly for bailiffs and jurats of the town. Lydd is a corporate town by prescription, and, like Romney, of which it is a member, is governed by a bailiff, jurats, chamberlain, and commonalty. The inhabitants are chiefly engaged in fishing, and other maritime employments, of which smuggling is considered as forming a material branch. Lydd has a small market on Thursdays, and an annual fair on the first Monday in September. The holm-trees, or sea-hollies, mentioned by Leland, still grow on the beach near the town. On the point of land called Dengeness, is a light-house, 110 feet high, erected a few years ago, in place of a more ancient one, from which the sea had retired so far as to require a

new one in a more advanced situation. This point is also defended by a fort, and several ranges of barracks have been erected in the vicinity. The distance from Lydd to Rye is twelve miles, Tenterden sixteen, Appledore ten, Brookland five, Brenset five, Old Romney three, and New Romney three and a half. The town of Lydd was for many years remarkable for a fishery carried on at the Ness Beach; but it has lately decreased, and is not now of much account. In the beach near Stone-end, is a heap of stones, fancifully called the tombs of Crispin and Crispianus.

Promhill, or Bromhill, in Kent and Suffex, is three miles south-west of Lydd. The least part of it, which is in Kent, is said to be a member of the town and port of New Romney, but is claimed by the corporation of Lydd. It was a pretty town, and much resorted to, before it was drowned by the sea in the reign of Edward the First. *British Directory. England's Gaz. Beauties of Engl.*

LYDDA, in Hebrew LUD or LOB, by the Greeks and Latins called *Lydda* and *Diospolis*; a town of Judea, in the way from Jerusalem to Cæsaria Philippi. It lay east of Joppa, four or five leagues from that city, and belonged to the tribe of Ephraim; but seems to have been inhabited by the Benjamites at the return from the Babylonish captivity. *Neh. xi. 35.* Lydda is one of the three toparchies which were dismembered from Samaria, and given to the Jews. *1 Macc. xi. 34. Joseph. Antiq. lib. xiv. cap. 8.* St. Peter, coming to Lydda, cured a man there sick of the palsy, whose name was Æneas. *Acts ix. 32, 33, 34.* The Jews inform us, that, after the destruction of Jerusalem, they set up several academies in different places of Palestine, and in particular at Lydda, where the famous Akiba was a professor for some time. Gamaliel succeeded him; and after them appeared Taspho, or Trypho, another famous rabbin, whom some have confounded with Trypho the Jew who has a part in Justin's Dialogue.

LYDDAM, a village in Shropshire, north of Bishop's Castle.

LYDDEN, a village in Kent, south-east of Barham Downs.

LYDDON, a river in Dorsetshire, which rises on the western side of a ridge of hills in Buckland hundred, and continues running, in a northern direction, about five miles to Bagborough, where it is joined by a considerable brook, and falls into the Stour a little above Sturminster Newton.

LYDE, a woman's name; the wife of Antimachus.

LYDFORD. See LIDFORD, vol. xii. p. 624, 5.

LYD'GATE (John), an early English versifier, was born at Hatfield Broadoak in Essex, and became a black monk of the Benedictine abbey at Bury St. Edmund's; he flourished in the earlier part of the fifteenth century, and reign of Henry VI. He received part of his education at Oxford; and then travelled into France and Italy, from which countries he brought an acquaintance with polite literature, such as it was, of the times. It is affirmed by some biographers that he was well versed in languages; yet he himself, in his "Fall of Princes," mentioning that he translated it out of the French, says, "Of other tongue I have no suffisance." He was, however, regarded in his age as an extraordinary proficient in learning; and is said to have been not only a poet and rhetorician, but a geometrician, astronomer, theologian, and dialectic. He opened a school in his monastery for teaching the sons of the nobility the arts of versification and composition. He was himself an imitator of Chaucer; and, though he possessed very little invention or poetical spirit, yet he may be reckoned among those who contributed to the improvement of the English language and versification. His style, though rude and prolix, is perspicuous, and sufficiently intelligible at the present day. That he versified with great facility is evident from the prodigious number and variety of his performances; but it is rarely that a melodious or elegant line cheers the dryness and ruggedness of his tedious pages. His principal pieces are the Fall of Princes, from Boccaccio; the Story of Thebes,

chiefly



chiefly from Guido Colonna; and the Troy Boke, or Destruction of Troy, from the same writer: the two latter have been printed. Of his other pieces Mr. Ritson has given a list amounting to 251, existing in MS. in different libraries. *Warton's Hist. of Engl. Poetry.*

LYDIA, in ancient geography, a celebrated kingdom of Asia Minor. All the ancient writers tell us, that Lydia was first called *Mæonia* or *Meonia*, from Meon king of Phrygia and Lydia; and that it was known under no other denomination till the reign of Atys, when it began to be called *Lydia* from his son Lydus. Bochart, finding in his learned collection of Phœnician words the verb *luz*, signifying "to wind;" and observing that the country we are speaking of is watered by the Mæander, so famous for its windings; concludes that it was thence named *Lydia*, or *Ludia*. As to the ancient name of Mæonia, he takes it to be a Greek translation of the Phœnician word *lud*; wherein he agrees in some measure with Stephanus, who derives the name of *Mæonia* from Mæon, the ancient name of the Mæander. Some take the word *mæonia* to be a translation of a Hebrew word signifying "metal," because that country, say they, was in former times enriched above any other with mines. Though Lydia and Mæonia are by most authors indifferently used for one and the same country, yet they are sometimes distinguished; that part where Mount Tmolus stood, watered by the Pactolus, being properly called *Mæonia*; and the other, lying on the coast, *Lydia*. This distinction is used by Homer, Callimachus, Dionysius, and other ancient writers. In after-ages, when the Ionians, who had planted a colony on the coast of the Egean Sea, began to make some figure, that part was called *Ionia*, and the name of *Lydia* given to the ancient Mæonia.—Lydia, according to Pliny, Ptolemy, and other ancient geographers, was bounded by Mysia Major on the north, by Caria on the south, by Phrygia Major on the east, and Ionia on the west, lying between the 37th and 39th degrees of north latitude. What the ancients style the kingdom of *Lydia*, was not confined within these narrow boundaries, but extended from Halys to the Egean Sea. Pliny's description includes *Æolia*, lying between the Hermus and the Caucasus.

As to the origin of the Lydians, Josephus, and after him all the ecclesiastical writers, derive them from *Lud*, Shem's fourth son; (*Gen. x. 22.*) but this opinion has no other foundation than the similitude of names. Some of the ancients will have the Lydians to be a mixed colony of Phrygians, Mysians, and Carians. Others, finding some conformity in religion and religious ceremonies between the Egyptians and the Tuscans, who were a Lydian colony, conclude them, without any farther evidence, to be originally Egyptians, descending from *Ludim*, the son of Mizraim, (*Gen. x. 13.*) and famed for their skill in the use of the bow, (*Isa. lxvi. 19. Jer. xlvi. 9. See also Ezek. xxx. 5. and 1 Macc. viii. 8.*) All we know for certain is, that the Lydians were a very ancient nation, as is manifest from their very fables; for Atys, Tantalus, Pelops, Niobe, and Arachne, are all said to have been the children of Lydus. And Zanthus, in his *Lydiaca*, quoted by Stephanus, informs us, that the ancient city of Apsalon, one of the five satrapies of the Philistines, mentioned in the books of Joshua and the Judges, was built by one Apsalon, a Lydian, whom Achiamus king of Lydia had appointed to command a body of troops which he sent, we know not on what occasion, into Syria. The Heraclidæ, or kings of Lydia descended from Hercules, began to reign before the Trojan war; and had been preceded by a long series of sovereigns sprung from Atys, and hence styled *Atyadæ*; a strong proof of the antiquity of that kingdom.

The Lydians began very early to be ruled by kings, whose government seems to have been truly despotic, and the crown hereditary. We read of three distinct races of kings reigning over Lydia, viz. the *Atyadæ*, the *Heraclidæ*, and the *Mermnadæ*.

The *Atyadæ* were so called from Atys the son of Cotys,

and grandson of Manes the first Lydian king. But the history of this family is obscure and fabulous.

The *Atyadæ* were succeeded by the *Heraclidæ*, or the descendants of Hercules. For Hercules being, by the direction of the oracle, sold as a slave to Omphale, a queen of Lydia, to expiate the murder of Iphitus, had, during his captivity, by one of her slaves, a son named *Cleolæus*; whose grandson Argon was the first of the *Heraclidæ* that ascended the throne of Lydia. This race is said to have reigned five hundred and five years, the son succeeding the father for twenty-two generations. They began to reign about the time of the Trojan war. The last of the family was the unhappy Candaules, who lost both his life and kingdom by his imprudence: an event of which we have given an account under the article *GREECE*, vol. viii. p. 819. and *GYGES*, vol. ix.

Gyges, having thus possessed himself of the kingdom of Lydia, sent many rich and valuable presents to the oracle of Delphos; among others, six cups of gold weighing thirty talents, and greatly esteemed for the workmanship. He made war on Miletus and Smyrna, took the city of Colophon, and subdued the whole country of Troas. In his reign, and by his permission, the city of Abydus was built by the Milesians. Plutarch and other writers relate his accession to the crown of Lydia in a quite different manner; and tell us, without making any mention of the queen, that Gyges rebelled against Candaules, and slew him in an engagement. In Gyges began the third race, called *Mermnadæ*; who were also, properly speaking, *Heraclidæ*, being descended from a son of Hercules by Omphale. Gyges reigned thirty-eight years, and was succeeded by his son Ardyes.

This prince carried on the war against the Milesians which his father had begun; and possessed himself of Priene, in those days a strong city. In his reign the Cimmerians invaded and overran all Asia Minor; but what battles were fought between the Lydians and these invaders, and with what success, we find no where mentioned. Herodotus only informs us, that in the time of Ardyes they possessed themselves of Sardis, the metropolis of Lydia, but could never reduce the castle. Ardyes reigned forty-nine years, and was succeeded by his son Sadyattes, who reigned twelve years, and warred most part of his reign with the Milesians.

After him came his son Alyattes, who continued the war which his father had begun against the Milesians, ravaging their country, and about harvest-time carrying away all their corn yearly, in order to oblige them, for want of provisions, to surrender their city, which he knew he could not reduce any other way, the Milesians being at that time masters of the sea. In the twelfth year of this war, Alyattes having (for the reason assigned under the article *GREECE*) dispatched ambassadors to Miletus, to conclude a truce; Thrafsybulus, then king of Miletus, commanded all the corn that was at that time in the city to be brought into the market-place, ordering the citizens to banquet in public, and revel as if the city were plentifully stored with all manner of provisions. This stratagem Thrafsybulus practised, to the end that the ambassadors seeing such quantities of corn, and the people every where diverting themselves, might acquaint their master with their affluence, and divert him from pursuing the war. As Thrafsybulus had designed, so it happened; for Alyattes, who believed the Milesians greatly distressed for provisions, receiving a different account from his ambassadors, changed the truce into a lasting peace, and ever afterwards lived in amity and friendship with Thrafsybulus and the Milesians. He was succeeded, after a reign of fifty-seven years, by his son Croesus, whose uninterrupted prosperity, in the first years of his reign, far eclipsed the glory of all his predecessors. He was the first that made war on the Ephesians, whose city he besieged and took, notwithstanding their consecrating it to Diana, and fastening the walls by a rope to her temple, which was seven stadia distant from the city. After the reduction of Ephe-



fus, he attacked, under various pretences, the Ionians and Æolians, obliging them, and all the other Greek states of Asia, to pay him a yearly tribute.

Cræsus continued in this prosperous and happy state, till the conquests of Cyrus, and growing power of the Persians, began to give him uneasiness. He apprehended that the success which attended Cyrus in all his undertakings, might at last prove dangerous to himself; and therefore resolved to put a stop, if possible, to his progress. In taking this resolution, which might probably be attended with the most important consequences, he was desirous to learn the will of heaven concerning the issue of the war. The principal oracles which he consulted were those of Branchis in Ionia, of Ammon in Libya, and of Delphi in Greece. Among these respected shrines, the oracle of Delphi maintained its ascendancy, as the most faithful interpreter of fate. Cræsus was fully persuaded of its veracity; and, desirous generously to compensate for the trouble which he had already given, and still meant to give, the priests of Apollo, he sacrificed three thousand oxen to the god, and adorned his shrine with dedications equally valuable for the workmanship and for the materials; precious vessels of silver, ewers of iron beautifully inlaid and enamelled; various ornaments of pure gold, particularly a golden lion weighing ten talents, and a female figure three cubits or near five feet high. In return for these magnificent presents, the oracle, in ambiguous language, flattered Cræsus with obtaining an easy victory over his enemies, and with enjoying a long life and a prosperous reign. The god at the same time enjoined him to contract an alliance with the *most powerful* of the Grecian states. Elevated with these favourable predictions of Apollo, Cræsus prepared to yield a ready obedience to the only condition required on his part for the accomplishment of his aspiring purpose. Not deeming himself sufficiently acquainted with the affairs of Greece, to know what particular republic was meant by the oracle, he made particular inquiry of those best informed concerning the state of Europe; and discovered that, among all the members of the Grecian confederacy, the Athenians and Lacedæmonians were justly entitled to the pre-eminence. In order to learn which of these communities deserved the epithet of *most powerful*, it was necessary to send ambassadors into Greece. The Lydians dispatched with this important commission, soon discovered that the Athenians, after having been long harassed by internal dissensions, were actually governed by the tyrant Pisistratus. The Spartans, on the other hand, though anciently the worst regulated of all the Grecian communities, had enjoyed domestic peace and foreign prosperity ever since they had adopted the wise institutions of Lycurgus. After that memorable period, they had repeatedly conquered the warlike Argives; triumphed over the hardy Arcadians; and, notwithstanding the heroic exploits of Aristomenes, subdued and enslaved their unfortunate rivals of Messene. To the Lydian ambassadors, therefore, the Spartan republic appeared to be pointed out by the oracle as the community whose alliance they were enjoined to solicit. Having repaired accordingly to Sparta, they were introduced not only to the kings and senate, but, as the importance of the negotiation required, to the general assembly of the Lacedæmonians, to whom they, in few words, declared the object of their commission: "We are sent, O Lacedæmonians! by Cræsus, king of the Lydians and of many other nations, who, being commanded by the oracle of Apollo to seek the friendship of the most powerful people of Greece, now summons you, who justly merit that epithet, to become his faithful allies, in obedience to the will of the god whose authority you acknowledge." The Lacedæmonians, pleased with the alliance of a warlike king, and still more with the fame of their valour, readily accepted the proposal. To the strict connexion of an offensive and defensive league, they joined the more respected ties of sacred hospitality. A few years before this transaction, they had sent to purchase gold at Sardis for making

a statue of Apollo: Cræsus had on that occasion gratuitously supplied their want. Remembering this generosity, they gave the Lydian ambassadors at their departure, as a present for their master, a vessel of brass, containing three hundred amphoras (above twelve hogheads), and beautifully carved on the outside with various forms of animals. Cræsus, having thus happily accomplished the design recommended by the oracle, was eager to set out upon his intended expedition. He had formerly entered into alliance with Amasis king of Egypt, and Labynetus king of Babylon. He had now obtained the friendship of the most warlike nation of Europe. The newly-raised power of Cyrus and the Persians seemed incapable of resisting such a formidable confederacy.

Elevated with these flattering ideas of his own invincible greatness, Cræsus waited not to attack the Persian dominions until he had collected the strength of his allies. The sanguine impetuosity of his temper, unexperienced in adversity, unfortunately precipitated him into measures no less ruinous than daring. Attended only by the arms of Lydia, and a numerous band of mercenaries, whom his immense wealth enabled him at any time to call into his service, he marched towards the river Halys; here he was deceived by an oracle; (see Cræsus, vol. v. p. 372.) and, having crossed with much difficulty that deep and broad stream, entered the province of Cappadocia, which formed the western frontier of the Median dominions. That unfortunate country soon experienced all the calamities of invasion. The Pterian plain, the most beautiful and the most fertile district of Cappadocia, was laid waste; the ports of the Euxine, as well as several inland cities, were plundered; and the inoffensive inhabitants were either put to the sword or dragged into captivity. Encouraged by the unresisting softness of the natives of those parts, Cræsus was eager to push forwards; and, if Cyrus did not previously meet him in the field, he had determined to proceed in triumph to the mountains of Persia. Against this dangerous resolution he was in vain exhorted by a Lydian, named Sandanis; who, when asked his opinion of the war, declared it with that freedom which the princes of the east have in every age permitted, amidst all the pride and caprices of despotic power, to men distinguished by the gifts of nature or education. "You are preparing, O king, to march against a people who lead a laborious and a miserable life; whose daily subsistence is often denied them, and is always scanty and precarious; who drink only water, and who are clothed with the skins of wild beasts. What can the Lydians gain by the conquest of Persia; they who enjoy all the advantages of which the Persians are destitute? For my part, I deem it a blessing of the gods, that they have not excited the warlike poverty of these miserable barbarians to invade and plunder the luxurious wealth of Lydia." The moderation of this advice was rejected by the fatal presumption of Cræsus; who, confounding the dictates of experienced wisdom with the mean suggestions of pusillanimity, dismissed the counsellor with contempt.

Meanwhile, the approach of Cyrus, who was not of a temper to permit his dominions to be ravaged with impunity, afforded the Lydian king an opportunity of bringing the war to a more speedy issue than by his intended expedition into Persia. The army of Cyrus gradually augmented on his march: the tributary princes cheerfully contributing with their united strength towards the assistance of a master whose valour and generosity they admired, and who now took arms to protect the safety of his subjects, as well as to support the grandeur of his throne. Such was the rapidity of his movement, especially after being informed of the destructive ravages of the enemy in Cappadocia, that he arrived from the shores of the Caspian to those of the Euxine sea, before the army of Cræsus had provided the necessaries for their journey. That prince, when apprised of the neighbourhood of the Persians, encamped on the Pterian plain; Cyrus likewise encamped at no great distance; frequent skirmishes hap-



pened between the light troops; and at length a general engagement was fought with equal fury and perseverance, and only terminated by the darkness of night. The loss on both sides hindered a renewal of the battle. The numbers, as well as the courage, of the Persians, much exceeded the expectation of Cræsus. As they discovered not any intention to harass his retreat, he determined to move back towards Sardis, to spend the winter in the amusements of his palace; and, after summoning his numerous allies to his standard, to take the field early in the spring with such increase of force as seemed sufficient to overpower the Persians.

But this design was defeated by the careful vigilance of Cyrus. That experienced leader allowed the enemy to retire without molestation; carefully informing himself of every step which they took, and of every measure which they seemed determined to pursue. Patiently watching the opportunity of a just revenge, he waited until Cræsus had re-entered his capital, and had disbanded the foreign mercenaries who composed the most numerous division of his army. It then seemed the proper time for Cyrus to put his Persians in motion; and such was his celerity, that he brought the first news of his own arrival in the plain of Sardis. Cræsus, whose firmness might well have been shaken by the imminence of this unforeseen danger, was not wanting on the present occasion to the duties which he owed to his fame and the lustre of the Lydian throne. Though his mercenaries were disbanded, his own subjects, who served him from attachment, who had been long accustomed to victory, and who were animated with a high sense of national honour, burned with a desire of enjoying an opportunity to check the daring insolence of the invaders. Cræsus indulged and encouraged this generous ardour. The Lydians in that age fought on horseback, armed with long spears; the strength of the Persians consisted in infantry. They were so little accustomed to the use of horses, that camels were almost the only animals which they employed as beasts of burden. This circumstance suggested to a Mede, by name Harpagus, a stratagem, which being communicated to Cyrus, was immediately adopted with approbation by that prince. Harpagus, having observed that horses had a strong aversion to the shape and smell of camels, advised the Persian army to be drawn up in the following order: All the camels which had been employed to carry baggage and provisions were collected into one body, arranged in a long line fronting the Lydian cavalry. The foot-soldiers of the Persians were posted immediately behind the line, and placed at a due distance. The Median horse (for a few squadrons of these followed the standard of Cyrus) formed the rear of the army. As the troops on both sides approached to join battle, the Lydian cavalry, terrified at the unusual appearance of the camels, mounted with men in arms, were thrown into disorder, and, turning their heads, endeavoured to escape from the field. Cræsus, who perceived the confusion, was ready to despair of his fortune; but the Lydians, abandoning their horses, prepared with uncommon bravery to attack the enemy on foot. Their courage deserved a better fate; but, unaccustomed as they were to this mode of fighting, they were received and repelled by the experienced valour of the Persian infantry, and obliged to take refuge within the fortified strength of Sardis, where they imagined themselves secure. The walls of that city bade defiance to the rude art of attack, as then practised by the most warlike nations. If the Persian army should invest it, the Lydians were provided with provisions for several years; and there was reason to expect, that in a few months, and even weeks, they would receive such assistance from Egypt, Babylonia, and Greece, (to which countries they had already sent ambassadors,) as would oblige the Persians to raise the siege. The Lydian ministers dispatched into Greece met with great sympathy from the Spartans. That people were particularly observant of the faith of treaties; and, while they punished their enemies with unexampled severity, they behaved with generous compassion

towards those whom they had once accepted for allies. They immediately resolved therefore to send him a speedy and effectual relief; and for this purpose assembled their troops, made ready their vessels, and prepared every thing necessary for the expedition. The valour of the Spartans might perhaps have upheld the sinking empire of Lydia; but, before their armament could set sail, Cræsus was no longer a sovereign. Notwithstanding the strength of Sardis, that city had been taken by storm on the twentieth day of the siege; the walls having been scaled in a quarter, which, appearing altogether inaccessible, was too carelessly guarded. This was effected by the enterprize of Hyreades a Mede, who accidentally observed a sentinel descend part of the rock in order to recover his helmet. Hyreades was a native of the mountainous province of Mardia; and, being accustomed to clamber over the dangerous precipices of his native country, resolved to try his activity in passing the rock upon which he had discovered the Lydian. The design was more easily accomplished than he had reason to expect: emulation and success encouraged the bravest of the Persians to follow his example; these were supported by great numbers of their countrymen; the garrison of Sardis was surprized; the citadel stormed; the rich capital of Lower Asia subjected to the vengeful rapacity of an indignant victor. Thus ended the ancient kingdom of Lydia, which continued subject to the Persians till they also were conquered by the Macedonians. For the fate of the Lydian monarch, see the article CRÆSUS, vol. v. p. 372, 3.

The religion of the Lydians seems to have been much the same with that of the Phrygians: they worshipped Diana, Jupiter, and Cybele, at Magnesia. Their customs were similar to those of the Greeks, except that they used to prostitute their daughters, who had no other fortune but what they earned in this way. They punished idleness as a crime, and inured their children from their infancy to hardships. Their arms were not so much bows and arrows as long spears used by the cavalry; and, if we may believe Herodotus, the Lydians excelled all other nations in horsemanship. They were the first that introduced the art of coining gold and silver, for facilitating trade; the first that sold by retail, that kept eating-houses and taverns, and that invented public sports and shows, which were therefore called *ludi* by the Romans, who borrowed them of the Tuscans, the descendants of the Lydians. To these diversions they recurred for relief at a time, during the reign of Atys, when a great scarcity of provisions prevailed through the whole kingdom of Lydia. Having contrived various kinds of diversions, as Herodotus informs us, they used to play one whole day without intermission, eating and drinking the next day without other amusement. After they had continued thus alternately fasting and feasting, and finding that their calamities increased rather than abated, the king divided the whole nation into two bodies, commanding them to determine by lot, which of the two should remain at home, and which should go abroad in quest of new habitations, since their native country could not afford them sufficient maintenance. Those who by lot were constrained to abandon their country, after many adventures, arrived in that part of Italy which was then called Umbria, and is now named Tuscany. Thus they changed their name, being no longer called Lydians, but Tyrrhenians, from their leader Tyrrhenus.

Although the trade of the Lydians is no where particularly mentioned, we may well imagine that it was considerable, especially under their latter kings, when Lydia was in the meridian of its glory; on account of the splendour of this monarchy and the advantageous situation of the country. The same inference is justified by adverting to the immense riches, not only of the Lydian princes, but of several private persons. Herodotus (lib. vii. c. 23.) mentions one, named Pythius, who not only entertained Xerxes and his whole army, while he was marching with innumerable forces to invade Greece, but made him an offer of 2000 talents of silver, 3,993,000 pieces of gold, bearing



bearing the stamp of Darius. This same Pythius was reckoned the richest man in the then known world.

LYD'IA, a woman of Thyatira, a seller of purple, who dwelt in the city of Philippi in Macedonia. *Acts* xvi. 14, 40. She was converted by St. Paul's preaching, and was baptized, she and all her family. She offered her house to St. Paul so earnestly, that he was prevailed upon by her entreaties. This woman was not by birth a Jewess, but a profelyte. The Roman martyrology commemorates her on Aug. 3d. Lydia is perhaps the name of her country; and she might thence have been called Lydia, or the Lydian.

LYD'IAN, *s.* An inhabitant or a native of Lydia.

LYD'IAN, *adj.* Brought from, made at, or appertaining to, Lydia; as,

LYDIAN GAMES, a name given to the exercises and amusements invented by the Lydians; they are said to have invented the quoit, and games of chance played with dice. These Asiatics, after they had lost their city, emigrated into Etruria, whither they carried their ceremonies and games. Some Romans, having a passion for foreign play, adopted the Lydian method of gaming, which in the time of the emperors was pursued with such excess, that Juvenal is very severe on the great number of those who were hastening to ruin by that means. The Lydian games were at first called *Lydi* by the Romans, but afterwards, by corruption, *Ludi*.

LYDIAN MODE, in the Greek music, occupied the middle place between the Æolian and Hypodorian. It was also sometimes called the Barbarian mode, from its being invented by a people of Asia. It corresponded with our key of E. Euclid distinguishes two Lydian modes; that of which we have been speaking, and another called a *low Lydian*, and which is the same as the Æolian mode, at least as to its fundamental. The character of the Lydian mode was animated and interesting, yet melancholy, pathetic, and proper for voluptuous occasions; on which account Plato banished it his republic. It was said that by this mode Orpheus tamed wild beasts, and Amphion built the walls of Thebes. Some say that it was invented by Amphion, the son of Jupiter and Antiope; others by Olympus the musician, and disciple of Marfyas; while there are still others who assign it to Melampides. Pindar says, that it was first used at the nuptials of Niobe. See the article MUSIC.

LYDIAN STONE. See LYDIUS.

LYDIAT (Thomas), a learned English divine, and eminent mathematician and chronologer, was the son of a citizen of London, who was lord of the manor of Alkington, or Okerton, near Banbury, in Oxfordshire, where the subject of this article was born in the year 1572. As he gave early indications of good natural abilities, his father determined to give him a learned education, and sent him to Winchester school, where he was admitted a scholar upon the foundation when he was thirteen years of age. After having made a sufficient progress in grammar-learning, he was elected thence to New College, Oxford, where he was placed under doctor, afterwards the famous sir Henry, Martin; and was chosen fellow in 1593: he took the degree of B. A. in 1595, and that of M. A. in 1598. He applied himself with great assiduity to the study of the languages, philosophy, astronomy, the mathematics, and divinity, and felt a strong inclination to become intimately conversant in the latter science; but he was discouraged from pursuing it by the circumstances of his having a defective memory and imperfect utterance. In the year 1603, therefore, he resigned his fellowship, which by the statutes of the college he could not retain without proceeding in divinity; and contented himself with living on the income arising from a small patrimonial estate. The seven following years he spent in finishing and publishing such books as he had begun in the college, particularly his "Emendatio Temporum ab Initio Mundi huc usque Compendio facta, contra Scaligerum et alios," 1609, 2vo. By his animadversions in this, and some other pieces,

Scaliger was highly exasperated against him, and replied in his usual haughty manner, affecting to treat his character and chronological learning with the utmost contempt. His Emendatio was dedicated to Henry prince of Wales, who entertained a great regard for him, and appointed him his chronographer and cosmographer; and, if he had lived, would most probably have proved his generous patron; but the premature death of this promising prince put an end to any expectations which he might have formed of a provision from royal munificence. About the year 1609, he became acquainted with Dr. James Usher, afterwards archbishop of Armagh, who carried Lydiat with him to Ireland, and placed him in the college at Dublin, where he continued about two years, according to Anthony Wood's account. Soon after his return to his native country in 1612, a vacancy having taken place in the rectory of Okerton, an offer was made him of that benefice. This preferment he had formerly refused, when fellow of New College, and his father was patron; but he was now persuaded to accept of it, though, Wood says, after several demurs, and with much reluctance. No sooner, however, had he undertaken the duties of a parish-priest, than he entered on the discharge of them with the utmost diligence and fidelity; and in the course of less than twelve years composed and preached more than six hundred sermons on the harmony of the gospels. During that time, he also wrote several learned works, and laid the foundation of several others; all of which he would have completed and published, had he not unfortunately been prevented by the involved state of his circumstances. For his little patrimony was exhausted by the expense of what he had already printed; and, having unwarily become responsible for the debts of a near relation, which he was unable to pay, in the year 1629 or 1630 he was arrested and thrown into prison at Oxford, and afterwards into the King's Bench. Here he remained in confinement till sir William Boswell, a generous patron of learned men, Dr. Pink, warden of New College, and Dr. Usher, released him by discharging the debt; and Dr. Laud also, at the request of sir Henry Martin, contributed to his assistance on this occasion. When the civil wars commenced in 1624, he adhered steadily to the cause of the king, and was a considerable sufferer from the exactions and depredations of the parliament-party. From a letter written by him in 1644, to sir William Compton, governor of Banbury Castle, it appears, that his rectory-house at Okerton was four times pillaged by the parliament-garrison at Compton-house in Warwickshire, to the amount of at least seventy pounds; and that they had so completely stripped him of decent necessaries, that for a quarter of a-year together he was obliged to borrow a shirt, to be able to change his linen. He was also twice forced away from his own house; once to Warwick, and another time to Banbury; and he was personally ill-used by the soldiers, for refusing them money, defending his books and papers, and speaking boldly in favour of the king and of the bishops, while he was a prisoner in Warwick Castle. At length, after he had lived several years at Okerton, in great indigence and obscurity, he died there in 1646, when about seventy-four years of age. In 1669, a stone, with an inscription, was placed over his grave, at the expense of the warden and fellows of New College, Oxford; and an honorary monument was also erected to his memory by the same society, in the cloister of their college. Wood says, that he was "a person of small stature, but of great parts, and of a public soul; and, though a poor and contemptible priest to look upon, (for he was so held by the vulgar,) yet he not only puzzled Christopher Clavius, and the whole college of mathematicians, but also that great goliath of literature Joseph Scaliger." He was, indeed, a man of considerable and various erudition; and held in high estimation by learned men, both at home and abroad. By some learned foreigners he has been ranked with lord Bacon and Mr. Joseph Mede; and, when speaking of the trifling prefer-



ment which Mr. Mede and Mr. Lydiat obtained, they have observed, that the neglect of so much merit proved the English to be unworthy of having such eminent scholars among them. Mr. Lydiat was the author of a great number of books, besides that already referred to; as, 1. *De variis annorum formis*; and a defence of the same in reply to Clavius and Scaliger. 2. On the Origin of Fountains. 3. Several treatises on Philosophy and Astronomy, &c. &c. He also left behind him a number of manuscripts, many of which are enumerated by Anthony Wood in his *Athen. Oxon.* vol. ii.

LYD'IUS, *f.* LYDIAN STONE, or TOUCHSTONE; in mineralogy, a genus of siliceous earth—Consisting of silica, a small quantity of lime, magnesia, oxyd of iron and inflammable matter; hard, lightish, opaque, compact, cinereous, black or greenish-black, slaty, of a common form, breaking into indeterminate fragments, detached or constituting mountains; not fusible *per se*. There are two species.

1. *Lydias siliceus*, or siliceous lydian stone: subopaque, of a splintery fracture, without internal lustre. Found in various parts of Europe, in blocks and amorphous masses of various sizes, and very often in the beds of rivers; colour blackish-grey or greenish, often intersected with veins of grey quartz or blood-red iron-stone. This is a variety of primitive schistus, the structure of which is so compact, that the schistose character is often not distinctly perceptible, except in great masses; its texture in particular parts is as close as flint; and hence the term *siliceous schistus* is applied to it.

2. *Lydius genuinus*, genuine lydian-stone, basanite, or touchstone: of an even texture, sometimes approaching to the conchoidal, shining a little internally. Found in various parts of Europe, detached or in masses, and is commonly intersected by veins of quartz; colour dark-greyish-black; its powder black. Specific gravity 2.596. It is called *basanite* from its occasional use in assaying the purity of gold and silver. The use of the *touchstone* for the purpose of ascertaining the degree of purity of gold and silver is spoken of frequently in the writings of the ancients. Theophrastus gives an accurate description of its use; and describes an apparatus very analogous to the touching-needles of the present day; by which, in employing various artificial alloys as a standard of comparison, the purity of gold was readily ascertained by the colour of the streak impressed on the stone. But it is to be observed, that both this name and *Heracius lapis* were also applied by the ancients to the loadstone; and hence has arisen no small misunderstanding of their works. Pliny has observed, that both the loadstone and touchstone were at times called *Lydius* and *Heracius lapis*. The true *lapis Lydius*, or touchstone, was anciently found only in the river *Tmolus*; but was afterwards found in many other places, and is now very common in many of the German rivers. The ancients give us very remarkable and circumstantial accounts of the uses they made of it; and it is plain they were able to discern the alloys of gold by means of it with very great exactness. We at present use several different stones under this name, and for the same purpose. In Italy, a green marble called *verdello* is most frequently used; and with us, very frequently small pieces of *basalt*.

LYD'IUS, an epithet applied to the Tyber, because it passed near *Etruria*, whose inhabitants were originally a Lydian colony. *Virgil*.

LYD'IUS (Balthazar), the son of a German protestant minister in the Palatinate, who took refuge from persecution in the United Provinces, and became professor of divinity in Franeker. We are not furnished with any other particulars concerning the life of the subject of the present article, than that he began the exercise of the ministerial functions at Dort, about the year 1603, and died in 1629. Among other works, he was the author of some pieces interesting to the ecclesiastical historian, entitled "*Waldensia, id est, Conservatio veræ Ecclesiæ demon-*

*strata ex Confessionibus Taboritarum et Bohemiorum*," 2 vols. 8vo. the first of which was published at Rotterdam in 1619, and the other at Dort in the following year; and "*Facula accensa Historiæ Valdensium*." He also published a treatise relating to the first visits paid by the Europeans to the new world, entitled "*Novus Orbis, seu Navigationes primæ in Americam*."

He had a younger brother, named JOHN LYDIUS, who was minister at Oudewater in Holland, and published a work of Prateolus, entitled "*Concilia Ecclesiæ Christianæ*," with his own critical remarks, 1610; an edition of "*Nicol. de Clemangis de Corrupto Ecclesiæ Statu*," with notes, and a glossary, 1613; and "*The Lives of the Popes*," by Robert Barnes and John Bale, with a continuation to his own time by himself, in 1615.

LYD'IUS (James), son of Balthazar, and like him a minister at Dort, was distinguished for his acquaintance with criticism and polite literature, as well as divinity. Besides several controversial pieces against the Catholics, and several poems in the Dutch language, he published some works abounding in learned and curious research: such as, 1. *Sermonum convivalium Libri duo, quibus variarum Gentium Mores et Ritus in Uxore expectanda, Sponsalibus contrahendis, Nuptiisque faciendis et perficiendis, enarrantur*, 1643, 4to. 2. *Agonistica Sacra*, 1657, 12mo. After his death, professor Van Till, of Dort, printed from his manuscripts, with notes by the editor, 3. *Syntagma sacrum de Re militari*; 1698, 4to. *Gen. Biog.*

LYDOWI'ANY, a town of Samogitia: eight miles north-west of Rostenne.

LY'DUS, a son of Atys and Callithea, king of Mæonia, which from him received the name of Lydia. His brother Tyrrhenus led a colony to Italy, and gave the name of Tyrrhenia to the settlement he made on the coast of the Mediterranean. See the article LYDIA, p. 822.

LYD'SING, a village in Kent, near Gravesend; here it was that 600 Norman young gentlemen, who came over with the young princes Alfred and Edward, the sons of king Ethelred, after the death of the Danish king, Canute, to take possession of their father's throne, were massacred by Godwin earl of Kent, who sought thereby to secure it to himself and his family. Here is a chapel of ease to Gillingham.

LYE, *f.* [*lize*, Sax.] Water impregnated with the salts of ashes. In husbandry, the term is generally applied to such fluids as are employed for the purpose of steeping grain; in which cases the best criterion of their strength is that of the swimming of an egg.

LYE (Edward), a learned antiquary and great master of the Gothic and Saxon tongues, was born in 1694, at Totness in Devonshire, where his father kept a school. His early education was chiefly domestic; but at the age of nineteen he was admitted at Hertford-college, Oxford, where he took a bachelor's degree in 1716. He was ordained priest in 1719, and presented to the living of Houghton-parva in Northamptonshire. In this retreat he employed himself in a profound study of the Anglo-Saxon language. His first literary undertaking was to publish an edition of the *Etymologicum Anglicanum* of Francis Junius, from the author's manuscript in the Bodleian library. This he completed in the seventh year from the commencement of his task, prefixing to the work an Anglo-Saxon grammar. It was very well received by the learned; and, in 1750, Mr. Lye was made a member of the Society of Antiquaries, and was presented to the vicarage of Yardley-Hastings. On this promotion he resigned his former living, though he had hitherto maintained his mother, and had two sisters dependent upon him. His next publication was of the Gothic Gospels, at the request of Eric Benzelius, bishop of Upsal. This appeared from the university-press of Oxford, with a Gothic grammar prefixed. The great labour of the latter part of his life was his Anglo-Saxon and Gothic Dictionary, which he had finished and put to the press at the time of his death in 1767. About thirty sheets were then



printed; and it was his dying request to his friend the Rev. Owen Manning, that he would undertake the charge of seeing it brought to publication. This was effected in 1772, when the work appeared with the title of "Dictionarium Saxonico et Gothico Latinum, auctore Edwardo Lye, A.M." 2 vols. folio. There are added to it some fragments of the Ulphilian version, and other pieces in the Anglo-Saxon; and a grammar of both languages is prefixed. *Life by Mr. Manning prefixed to the Dict.*

LYE, a village north-west of Cheltenham, Gloucestershire.—A village south of the Teme, near Worcester.—A village near Ryegate in Surry.

LYE (North and South), villages near Witney in Oxfordshire.

LYEHOUSE, a village near Bolney in Suffolk.

LYEMMER, or LEV'NER, *f.* A kind of hound.

LYEDEN, a village in Northamptonshire, south-west of Oundle.

LYFORD, a village near Wantage, Berks.

LYGDOMIUS, a man's name.

LYGE, a town of Norway, near a lake of the same name: sixteen miles north-west of Christianfand.

LYGEUM, *f.* [from *λυγος*, Gr. a rod or twig, in allusion to the tough pliant rushy nature of the plant.] In botany, a genus of the class triandria, order monogynia, natural order gramina, or grasses. The generic characters are—Calyx: glume of one ovate convoluted pointed permanent valve, at length inflexed, separating at the lower side, and containing two equal opposite parallel level florets. Corolla: of two valves, very hairy at the base, permanent; the outermost ovate, pointed, convex, awnless; inner twice as long, linear, narrow, acute, cloven at the summit, awnless. Stamina: filaments (in each floret) three, equal, longer than the corolla, flattish, very narrow; antheræ vertical, linear, cloven at each end. Pistillum: germen *superior*, oblong, convex at the outside, flat at the inner; style simple, compressed, the length of the stamens; stigma simple, taper-pointed, incurved. Pericarpium: none, except the hardened hairy base of the corolla of each floret, united longitudinally to the other. Seeds: solitary, linear-oblong, convex at the outside, flattish, with a longitudinal furrow, at the inside.—*Essential Character.* Glume of one valve, convoluted, two-flowered; corolla of two valves, the innermost twice as long as the outer, awnless; seed solitary, inclosed in the hardened combined base of each floret.

*Lygeum spartum*, or bastard mat-weed: the only known species. Observed by Loefling to be very abundant in the south of Spain, always growing in low places, on a clay soil, where the water stands after much rain. The root is creeping and perennial. Stems about a span high, erect, rushy, round, slender, smooth, nearly naked, with one joint, above which they are much extended after flowering. Leaves sheathing the lower part of the stem, and about equal to it in height, narrow, convoluted, taper-pointed, rushy, smooth; the upper or floral one shorter, with a longer sheath. Flower large, terminal, solitary, at first erect, inclining as the seeds ripen, with a knot at the base; calyx smooth, delicately striped with green, at length opening and exposing the long dense hairs which clothe the base of the permanent corolla, investing the seed. The error of Linnæus and Loefling, who supposed the germen to be inferior, and common to two florets, is properly corrected by Richard, who shows the supposed two-celled nut to be formed merely of the hardened combined bases of the corollas of the two florets. This is analogous to many other true grasses, (as this is,) whose hardened corolla becomes a husk or shell to the seed. This plant, being far inferior in tenacity, as well as length, to the true mat-weed, *Stipa tenacissima* of Linnæus, serves chiefly in Spain for making baskets and ropes, and also for stuffing the inferior kinds of mattresses. It flowers in May and June, ripening seed in autumn, and often retaining its empty sheath or calyx till the following summer. The

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parts of fructification are, on the whole, perhaps larger than those of any other grass.

LYGH, a village in Hampshire, on the border of Suffex toward Eastbourn.

LY'GIL, or LUGII, in ancient geography, a people of Germany, to the west of the Vistula, where it forms a bend like a crescent; called *Ligii* by Dio, *Lugii* by Strabo, and *Logiones* by Zofimus. Their name *Lugii* is conjectured to be derived from their mutually-close confederacy or league. The Vistula was their boundary to the north, east, and south, with Mount Asciburgius to the west. Now the whole of that country lies in Poland, on this side the Vistula.

LYGIN'IA, *f.* [*λυγινος*, Gr. twiggy, alluding to its hard tough rushy habit.] In botany, a genus of the class dioecia, order monadelphia, natural order of tripetaloidææ, *Lin.* (junci, *Juss.* restiææ, *Brown.*) Essential character—Male: spatha of one valve; petals six; filaments united lengthwise; antheræ three, didymous, cloven at each end. Female: spatha of one valve; petals six; style in three deep divisions; capsule three-lobed, three-celled, bursting at the prominent angles; seeds solitary. The root is scaly, creeping, with thick downy fibres. Stems simple, round, leafless, with several sheathing scales, easily breaking at the joints. Spike terminal, of several crowded tufts of flowers, each accompanied by a common sheathing bractæa, the female flowers sometimes solitary.

*Species.* 1. *Lyginia imberbis*, or unarmed lyginia: bractæas and spathas beardless; male and female tufts many-flowered. Native of the south part of New Holland. This is *Schœnodum tenax*, the male plant of Labillardiere. Mr. Brown observes, that this supposed species of the French author is made up of two different genera; he therefore thinks it safer to reject the generic name entirely, than to retain it for either the male or female plant, which might lead to error.

2. *Lyginia barbata*, or bearded lyginia: bractæas and spathas bearded; male tufts of few flowers; female ones single-flowered, nearly solitary. From the same country. These plants have much of the habit of *RESTIO*, *ELEGIA*, &c. See also *LEPYRODIA*, vol. xii. p. 523.

LYGIS'MUS, *f.* [from *λυγίζω*, Gr. to distort.] A distortion of the limbs; sometimes a luxation.

LYGIS'TUM, *f.* in botany. See *PETESIA*.

LYGMOIDES, *f.* [from *λυγίζω*, Gr. a hiccup, and *ειδος*, a form.] A fever attended with a hiccup.

LYG'MUS, *f.* [Greek.] A hiccup.

LYGODIUM, *f.* in botany. See *OPHIOGLOSSUM*.

LYGUM, a town of Denmark, in the duchy of Sleswick: fourteen miles west of Apenrade.

LYGUS'TRUM, *f.* in botany. See *LIGUSTRUM*, vol. xii. p. 700.

LY'HAM, a village in Northumberland, north-east of Woller.

LY'ING, *f.* [from *lie.*] The act of telling untruth.—They will have me whipt for speaking true, thou wilt have me wipt for *lying*, and sometimes I am whipt for holding my peace. *Shakespeare's King Lear.*

LY'ING, *f.* [from *to lie.*] The act of placing one's self in a recumbent posture.—Many tears and temptations besal me by the *lying* in wait of the Jews. *Acts* xx. 19.

LYING *to*, denotes the situation of a ship when she is retarded in her course, by arranging the sails in such a manner, as to counteract each other with nearly an equal effort, and render the ship almost immovable, with respect to her progressive motion or head-way. A ship is usually brought-*to* by the main or fore-top-sails, one of which is laid a-back, whilst the other is full; so that the latter pushes the ship forward, whilst the former resists the impulle, by forcing her a-sterm. This is particularly practised in a general engagement, when the hostile fleets are drawn up in two lines of battle opposite to each other; it is also used to wait for some other ship, either approaching or expected; or to avoid pursuing a dangerous course, especially in dark or foggy weather, &c. *Falconer.*

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LYK'SBORG,



LYK'SBORG, or LUX'BURG, a town of Denmark, in the duchy of Sleswick, on a point of land near the Baltic: seven miles north-east of Flensborg.

LYK'SELE, a town of Sweden, in the lapmark of Umea: eighty miles south-south-west of Umea.

LYL'BORN, a village in Northamptonshire, to the north-east of Hilmerton, near Dow-Bridge, over the Avon. It is supposed to have been one of the Roman stations, by its situation on the Watling-street, one of their highways, and by the pavements, trenches, ruins of walls and houses, hills for castles, hillocks for bastions, &c. at and near it, and particularly by the vestigia of a fort at the town called Round-Hill.

LY'LESHILL, a village to the south of Newport in Shropshire.

LY'LY. See LILLY, vol. xii. p. 708.

LYM, *f.* [*limier*, Fr.] A bloodhound:

Mastiff, greyhound, mungrel grim, Hound or spaniel, brache or *lym*. *Shakespeare's King Lear*.

LY'MAN, a town of the province of Maine: six miles north of Wells.

LYM'BERG (Great and Little), villages in Lincolnshire, west of Great Grimsby.

LYME, a village in Cheshire, east of Warrington.

LYME, a river of England, which for some distance divides the county of Dorset from Devonshire, and runs into the sea near the town of Lyme.

LYME, or LYME REGIS, a seaport, borough, and market, town, in Dorsetshire; twenty-three miles from Dorchester, twenty-eight from Exeter, and 148 from London. This town was, at the conquest, part of the demesne lands of the convent of Sherborne, and probably so continued until 12 Edward I. when it was annexed to the crown, and thus derives the title of *Lyme Regis*, or King's Lyme. We read, that, in 774, the Saxon king Kinwulf gave land hereabouts to the church of Sherborne, for the boiling of salt there to supply its necessities. Edward I. made it a free borough, and granted it every privilege that is enjoyed even by the city of London, with a court of hustings, and freedom from all tolls and lastage. These privileges were confirmed by the succeeding princes; and Edward II. also granted to the burgesses the town in fee-farm, upon paying thirty-three marks every year into the exchequer. In the reigns of Henry IV. and V. the French attacked, plundered, and burnt it; upon which, the king forgave the inhabitants all their arrears, and reduced their fee-farm rent from 21l. to 5l. which sum was, in consequence of their misfortunes, again lessened to 3l. 6s. 8d. which they still continue to pay. In Camden's time (James I.) it was a small inconsiderable place, inhabited by fishermen; but it has since greatly improved, and grown a considerable sea-port. During the civil war in the reign of Charles I. Lyme was a place of great consequence to the contending parties, especially to the royalists; great part of their dependence on the west of England arising from being in possession of this town. The siege of Lyme was one of the most remarkable that occurred during that eventful period.

The privileges granted by Edward I. to this town have been confirmed and increased by several succeeding sovereigns. Lyme may be deemed one of those many dependant boroughs, which is wholly under the controul of an individual; the earl of Westmoreland and his ancestors having had the entire influence in the corporation for the last century. It was represented in parliament as early as 23 Edward I. The last charter was granted by William III. by which it is governed by a mayor, who is a justice of peace during his mayoralty and the year following; and in the third year he is both justice and coroner. Here also are a recorder, fifteen capital burgesses, two of whom are justices, a town-clerk, and other officers. There having been a contest, time immemorial, between the corporation and the freeholders of the borough, for the right of election; on the 21st of May, 1689, it was determined to be

in the corporation and freeholders. On the 28th of February, 1727, it was resolved to be in the corporation. The same question has been twice agitated before committees of the house of commons, constituted under the Grenville act. In the first of these, Lionel Darel, esq. and Henry Harford, esq. were petitioners; when, upon hearing, it was determined by a committee of the house of commons, that the right was in the corporation only; and that the hon. Henry Fane, and David Robert Mitchell, esq. the sitting members, were duly elected. The right of the freeholders was again contested at a general election in 1784, and tried before a second committee, on the 15th of February, 1785, when Robert Wood, esq. and John Cator, esq. were petitioners, and the hon. Henry Fane and the hon. T. Fane, were the sitting members. The claims of each party were the same in both petitions; each contending for the right of election in the freeholders of the borough as well as the corporators, superadding to both the qualification of residents; but in both these cases, as in the remarkable one of Poole, the committees determined, that an usage of eighty years superseded the ancient right, which was proved to have been in the freeholders, the same as was proved to be in the commonalty of Poole. The capital burgesses make a certain number of freemen; resident or non-resident, who elect the members of parliament. Number of voters, thirty-one. The present members are—Lord Burghersh, eldest son of the earl of Westmoreland; and major-general H. Fane, aid-de-camp to the king.

Lyme lies near the sea, on the very borders of Devonshire, in a cavity between two rocky hills, which makes it difficult of access. It is about five furlongs long, and contains about three hundred houses. As it lies on the declivity of a hill, the houses make a good show, one above another; and some of them are built of free-stone, and covered with blue slate. This place had formerly a very flourishing trade to France, Spain, the Straits, Newfoundland, and the West Indies; during which, the customs amounted some years to 16,000l. but it stands on such a high steep rock, that the merchants are obliged to load and unload their goods at a place a quarter of a mile off, called the *Cobb*, originally built in the reign of Edward III. which costs a great sum to maintain, but forms such a harbour as perhaps is not to be equalled in the world, the ships being sheltered by a high thick stone wall, raised in the main sea a good way from the shore, broad enough for carriages and warehouses; and the custom-house officers have one upon it. The materials for this singular work were vast rocks weighed up out of the sea with empty casks, (at what time we know not;) which casks being placed in a regular order to a considerable breadth, and carried out a great way, some say three hundred yards, the interstices being filled up with earth, high and thick walls of stone were built upon those rocks, and so thick that large buildings (among them a handsome custom-house upon pillars, with a corn-market under it) have been erected thereon. Opposite to this, but farther into the sea, is another wall of the same workmanship, which crosses the end of the first, and comes about with a tail parallel to that. But the point of the first or main wall is the entrance into the port; and, the second or opposite wall breaking the violence of the sea from the entrance, the ships go into the basin, and, being defended from all winds, ride there as secure as in a mill-pond or wet-dock. For keeping it in constant repair, there are annually chosen two cobb-wardens. The cellars of the low part of the town, near the sea, are often overflowed by the spring-tides ten or twelve feet.

Lyme might be strengthened by a fort; but, as the walls of the Cobb are firm enough to carry what guns they pleased to plant upon them, they did not think it needful, especially as the shore is convenient for batteries; they have therefore some guns planted in proper places, for the defence of the Cobb and the town. Nevertheless



it suffered by the French war in the reign of queen Anne; but has recovered since. Many handsome stone houses have been lately built by merchants residing there; and it might be rendered of much greater importance than it is, if any new manufacture could be introduced in the country behind it; which is certainly plentiful enough to admit not only of one, but of many improvements. It is not however unlikely, that, if the inhabitants of this part recurred to the very arts from which, according to the best authorities, the town derived its existence near 1000 years ago, that is, making salt, it might very speedily and effectually answer their purposes, since by the help of shallow marshes, (into which the sea-water being admitted, the rest of the work could be easily performed by the heat of the sun, as is done on the opposite coast of France), as good salt as any might be produced; for which the place seems to be exceedingly well situated, and to have very commodious advantages, as their concern in the fishery would furnish an immediate market for all they could possibly make. Before we leave the subject of the pier, it may not be amiss to mention, that, notwithstanding modern as well as ancient writers speak of the construction of this port as something very singular and extraordinary, yet none have proposed the imitation of it, though there cannot be a more pregnant instance than this of the possibility of making (though it may be in a better manner) a port upon almost any part of our coast where the conveniency of the country required, or the opening such a port should appear the most probable means of improving it; one or other of which circumstances would turn such ports to the advantage of most of all the maritime counties in this island. After all, Lyme, considering the largeness of it, may pass for a place of wealth. The unfortunate duke of Monmouth, having with him a frigate of thirty guns and two merchant-ships, landed here June 11, 1685. Many of his party were afterwards put to death on the spot, and their limbs hung up in the town.

Here was formerly a house of Carmelite friars, of which there are no remains. There is an almshouse in Church-street; also presbyterian and anabaptist meeting-houses. The town-hall is near Broad-street. The church stands at the east end of the town, on a rising ground, moderately large, but not high: the western end is the most ancient. Adjoining the church is a large stone building, and over it a school. The market is on Friday; the fairs, Feb. 2 and Sept. 21. April 28, 1786, above 2000l. worth of silver and gold coin of Charles I. and II. was discovered here by some labourers.

Lyme was the birth-place of Thomas Coram, the benevolent patron and contriver of the Foundling Hospital. See CORAM, vol. v. p. 192. and the article LONDON, p. 587 of this volume.

Marshwood, with its vale and park, is between Lyme and Beminster. This formerly was a barony of great honour. The vale includes the parishes of Whitchurch, Bettecomb, and Pillefson; and extends into several adjacent ones. Marshwood had formerly a chapel of ease to Whitchurch; but it was destroyed in the civil wars. *Wilkes's British Dictionary*, vol. v. *Oldfield's Hist. Bor.*

LYMEGRASS. See ELYMUS.

LYMFIO'RD, or LYMFUR'T, a gulf of Denmark, near the west coast of North Jutland, which communicates with the Cattegat, and runs eighty miles inland, widening gradually, and forming several branches; it is separated from the North Sea only by a narrow bank. Lat. 56. 59. N. lon. 10. 20. E.

LY'MING, a village in Kent, two miles from Elham, in the road to Hythe.

LYMINGTON, a borough and market-town in the parish of Boldre, in the New Forest of Hampshire, is situated on the declivity of a rising ground, on the eastern bank of the Lymington river, about a mile from its confluence with the sea; sixteen miles from Southampton, and ninety-five from London. It is of remote, though

unknown, origin; from a consideration of local circumstances, Mr. Warner supposes that a town or village was formed near this spot by the Britons. That the Romans were acquainted with it, is evinced by the contiguity of an encampment called Buckland Rings, or Cattle Field, and by the evidence of Roman coins, nearly 200lbs. weight of which, of the Lower Empire, were discovered here in two urns in the year 1744. Lymington occurs in Domesday-book under the name of *Lentune*, (which probably denoted the whole manor;) but it does not seem to have attained any considerable importance till it became the property of baron de Redvers, in the time of Henry I. when, a port being established, the wines of France, and other foreign commodities, were unshipped at its quays. It then also became famous for its salt-works; though its manufacture is, with great probability, supposed to have been established at a much earlier period. A very extensive manufacture of marine salt is now carried on here; the works are situated on the borders of the sea-shore, and reach nearly three miles in a south-west direction.

Little of the local history of Lymington is to be found on record. It is said to have been thrice plundered by the French; and it was invaded a fourth time, but saved from pillage by the address of a woman. The story is thus related by Mr. Warner: "A party of these marauders had landed on a similar scheme of depredation; but the leader of it, being extremely hungry, determined to satiate his appetite before he completed the purpose of his visit. The tutelary genius of the place directed him to the habitation of a Mrs. Dore, a person of some consequence, who at that instant was seated at a plentiful table. The abrupt entrance of the foreign visitor discovered to her in a moment the danger which threatened the town and its inhabitants. There was no time for deliberation. An intuitive quickness of thought, and an uncommon degree of fortitude, pointed out to her, immediately, the proper line of behaviour. She received the Frenchman, and his boisterous retinue, with the greatest affability; produced all the delicacies of her house; and enlivened the repast with many sprightly remarks, and the most unrestrained pleasantry. The commander, who possessed, I presume, a large share of national gallantry, was so fascinated by the winning manners and profuse bounty of this generous hostess, that he sacrificed his interest to his gratitude, and left the town without perpetrating the least act of devastation or exaction." The name of Dore was again remarkable in the history of this place in the time of James II. When the duke of Monmouth rebelled against the government, Col. Thomas Dore, being then mayor of Lymington, declared for the duke immediately on his landing at Lyme, and raised a hundred men to join and assist him; but, before he put his purpose into execution, the king's army was victorious and prevented him; and, because he was not actually but only intentionally in the rebellion, king James pardoned him.

The town is situated about a mile from the channel which runs between the main land of England and the Isle of Wight. It consists principally of one long street; and is divided into the new and old town by the church, which, though originally a regular pile, consisting of a nave, chancel, and aisles, with a spire in the centre, is now, through successive alterations, become extremely informal. The town-hall is a neat building; and here are two sets of baths, which are rendered very convenient, and are much frequented. The situation of Lymington, on the banks of a navigable river, and so contiguous to the sea, is extremely favourable to trade; but this advantage was formerly much greater than at present, as, by the injudicious construction of a causeway, the depth of the river has been considerably lessened, and its channel contracted. Previous to the making of this causeway, which was about the year 1730, vessels of upwards of 500 tons burthen could be brought up to the quay; though now one of 300 tons can scarcely be navigated.

Lymington



Lymington is a borough by prescription. It was first summoned to send members to parliament in the reign of Edward III. but the first actual return of members was 27 Eliz. The corporation consists of a titular mayor, aldermen, and burgesses, without limitation; the mayor is annually chosen by the burgesses within and without the borough, and sworn at the court-leet of the lord of the manor. The number of voters is about eighty; "all (says Mr. Oldfield in his Hist. Bor.) under the influence of sir Harry Burrard Neale, bart. who is one of the members, and by whose means the majority of them have obtained a number of those benevolences, which render them indeed obnoxious to Mr. Crew's bill; but are, notwithstanding that, liberally distributed by the treasury amongst the immaculate boroughs." The market is on Saturdays; fairs May 12 and Oct. 13.

The Roman encampment before alluded to is about three quarters of a mile to the north of Lymington; and is now called Castle-field, or Buckland-rings. Its dimensions are as follow: length, from east to west, 200 yards; breadth, towards the west, 125 yards, and towards the east, 135. The whole camp, in its original state, might cover about twenty acres of ground. Mr. Warner is inclined to think it a work of Vespasian, intended for the protection of such Roman ships as might have accompanied him in his expedition.—At the distance of two miles from this camp, are the tumuli of Sway-common: Mr. W. thinks they are partly British and partly Saxon.

Boldre, late the residence of the elegant, the venerable, the pious, Gilpin, is near Lymington. The house, which is sweetly sheltered from the road, stands on a gently-rising ground, bounded by a sweeping wood of oaks. The arm of the sea separating the Isle of Wight from the main land is seen from the windows, and the island with its white cliffs bounds the picture. Pomegranates and myrtles adorn the front of the house; and its apartments are ornamented with the elegant drawings of him who could furnish views for "Forest Scenery," and write initiatory books for parish-children. This elegant retirement seems the abode of peace, taste, and virtue; and its last proprietor possessed that refined wisdom, which enabled him to make it such. The hamlet of Boldre is at some distance in the back ground: the cottages are neat and comfortable. Here is a school for the children of the poor, built and endowed by Mr. Gilpin. It is situated on a little knoll, ornamented with shrubs. The apartments of the boys and girls are separate; and the walls are hung round with tablets containing appropriate texts of Scripture, and printed instructions for the children, which breathe the benevolence and piety of their revered pastor. Few parishes perhaps can equal Boldre in their readiness to confirm that interesting and important truth, "The memory of the just is blessed." The heart-felt encomiums poured into the ear of a stranger, confirm the conviction of the powerful permanent influence which one individual may have, who is habitually and judiciously aiming to do all the good he can. Boldre church is a mile from the hamlet, situated in a sequestered and romantic part of the New Forest. The silence and solitariness of the spot, the deep shade of the woods, the last memento of him who has taught the love of heavenly wisdom to the inhabitants, and immortalized the scenery, all conspire to render Boldre church-yard a spot not to be visited without enthusiasm, nor quitted without regret.

LYMINSTER, a village near Arundel in Suffex.

LYMPH, [*lympa*, Lat.] A term given to the transparent fluid conveyed in the absorbing vessels of the body; also to a part of the blood. It is often applied also to other animal fluids, chiefly when clear and nearly transparent.—When the chyle passeth through the mesentery, it is mixed with the *lymph*, the most spirituous and elaborated part of the blood. *Arbutnot on Aliments.*

LYMPHA, in heathen mythology, a goddess worshipped by the shepherds when they wanted rain.—Also, among the Romans, a kind of grotto or artificial cave,

so called from *lympa*, water; because furnished with a great many tubes, canals, and secret passages, through which the water suddenly gushed upon the spectators, while busy in admiring the great variety and beautiful arrangement of shells, with which the grotto was adorned.

LYMPHAD, *f.* An ancient ship or sloop of war, peculiar to Scotland, and particularly to the Isle of Arran; whence it is borne in the arms of Hamilton duke of Brandon and earl of Arran, and of Hamilton marquis of Abercorn. See the article HERALDRY, vol. ix. Plate XVIII. XIX.

LYMPHA'TI, or LYMPHA'TICI, in antiquity, a name given by the Latins to possessed or mad persons, because they were thought to be gifted with divination. *Plin. Nat. Hist.* lib. xxv. c. v. These answer to the *νεμφολατῆσαι* of the Greeks. The ancient Greeks called water *lympa*, which the Latins changed into *lympa*. "The term *omphi* (says Mr. Bryant) is of great antiquity, and denotes an oracular influence, by which people obtained an insight into the secrets of futurity: it was written *omphi* or *amphi*, and signified the Oracle of Ham, who, according to the Egyptian theology, was the same as the Sun, or Osiris; and, as fountains were deemed sacred, these were styled by the Ammonians *Ain Omphi*, or the Fountains of the Oracle; from the divine influence with which they were supposed to abound, which terms were afterwards contracted by the Greeks into *νυμφη*, a nymph, who supposed such a person to be an inferior goddess who presided over waters. In the same manner from *al omphia* was derived *lympa*, which differed from *aqua*, or common water, because it was of a sacred or prophetic nature. *Analysis of Ant. Myth.* vol. i.—It appears likely, that distracted people were called *lymphati*, from the circumstance of madmen being affected with the *hydrophobia*, or dread of water, after the bite of a mad dog; for this peculiarity, in cases of canine madness, was not unknown to the Romans. *Ency. Brit.*

LYMPHAT'IC, *f.* [*lymphatique*, Fr. from *lympa*, Lat.] The *lymphatics* are slender pellucid tubes, whose cavities are contracted at small and unequal distances: they are carried into the glands of the mesentery, receiving first a fine thin lymph from the lymphatic ducts, which dilutes the chylous fluid. *Cheyne.*

The lymphatics are the absorbing vessels. This system is an assemblage of numerous small vessels, arising from all parts of the body, carrying from them various fluids, which they pour into the venous system, after making them pass through certain small bodies called lymphatic glands, and forming part of the same system with them. The term lymphatics was applied to these tubes in consequence of their containing, in general, a transparent fluid, or *lymph*; and it designates, therefore, properly speaking, only those absorbents of which the contents resemble lymph. The vessels, which take up the chyle from the intestines, are called *lacteals*, from the appearance of their contents. As the structure and offices of the organs are the same in all parts, these distinctions might lead to erroneous views of the subject; and the term *absorbents*, which denotes their general function, seems the most appropriate. Names derived from the nature of the fluid absorbed are more particularly objectionable, because that is very imperfectly known to us. We cannot suppose that one and the same fluid is absorbed from ferous cavities, from the adipous cells, from muscles, glands, bones, &c. yet in all these cases it goes under the common and very indefinite term *lymph*. See the article ANATOMY, vol. i. p. 629-632.

LYMPHAT'IC, *adj.* [*lymphaticus*, Lat.] Enthusiastical.—Horace either is or teigns himself *lymphatic*. *Shafesbury.*

LYMPHATIC, *f.* A mad enthusiast; a lunatic.—All nations have their *lymphatics* of some kind or other. *Shafesbury.*—From Bethlem's walls the poor *lymphatic* stray'd. *Shenstone.*

LYMPHEDUCT, *f.* A vessel which conveys the lymph:

The glands,  
All artful knots of various hollow threads,  
Which *lympheducts*, an artery, nerve, and vein,  
Involv'd and close together wound, contain. *Blackmore.*



LYN'BRIDGE, a village near Harbottle-castle, on the river Coquet, in Northumberland.

LYNCE'US, in fabulous history, one of the fifty sons of Ægeus, married Hypermetra, one of the fifty daughters of DANAEUS. See that article.

LYNCE'US, one of the Argonauts, who went with Jason in the expedition to obtain the golden fleece. He was of great use to the Argonauts, by enabling them to avoid the sand-banks and rocks they found in their way. The poets say, that Lynceus had so piercing a sight, that it could not only penetrate to the bottom of the sea, but even to hell. Some mythologists suppose, that this fable is taken from Lynceus's skill in observing the stars, and discovering the mines of gold and silver concealed in the earth.

LYNCH, a town of South Carolina: eleven miles south of George Town.

LYNCHBURG, a town of Virginia, beyond the north-west mountains: 150 miles west of Richmond.

LYNCHES CREEK, a river of South Carolina, which runs into the great Pedee in lat. 33.44. N. lon. 79. 15. W.

LYNCHES RIVER, a river of Virginia, which runs into James River in lat. 37.42. N. lon. 78. 21. W.

LYN'CHET, *f.* Among farmers, a line of green-sward, serving as a boundary to separate ploughed land in common fields.

LYNCHVILLE, a post-town of Marion county, South Carolina, 450 miles from Washington.

LYNCURIUM, or LYNCURIUS, *f.* [from the Gr. λυγξ, lynx, and *ουρος*, urine; as being supposed to be produced from the urine of the lynx.] A mineral substance, respecting the nature of which the wildest conjectures have been broached from the time of Pliny down to the present day. The opinions of the modern mineralogists appear to be divided between amber and hyacinth; but it is most probable that both these substances have been confounded under the name of Lyncurium. Pliny, in speaking of the mineral in question, is inclined to deny its very existence: (*Hist. Nat.* xxxvii. 3.) and it is remarkable that he, whose incredulity upon other occasions, was certainly not over great, should have treated the whole of what has been said of the lyncurium as a mere fable, when his scepticism might have more properly been confined to that part of the story which relates to the origin of the substance in question. Instead of this, in speaking of the lynx, he actually gives credit to what has been said of the extraordinary quality of its urine. "Lyncum humor (he says) ita redditus ubi gignuntur glaciatur, arefcitve in gemmas, carbunculis similes, et igneo colore fulgentes, lyncurium vacatas, atque ob id succino a plerisque ita generari prodito." *Ib.* viii. 38. Theophrastus, from whom Pliny has principally derived his information respecting lyncurium, mentions among its qualities that of attracting, like amber, particles of straw, and even thin laminæ of copper or iron. Our hyacinth does not possess the quality of becoming electric by friction; a circumstance to which sir John Hill does not advert in his observations on this stone, which he considers as the only one that can be said to answer the description given of the lyncurium by Theophrastus. On the other hand, it must be confessed that its remaining qualities, as mentioned by that philosopher, viz. the considerable hardness attributed to it, and the consequent use made of it for engraving seals on, do not exactly square with the well-known characters of amber, which is moreover separately described in his work as a substance perfectly distinct from lyncurium. It is more than probable, that in this case, as in many others, the qualities of two distinct substances have been erroneously combined by the ancients, who, in their attempt to identify natural bodies, were but too often strangely misled by a fancied similarity of characters, where the eye of a modern naturalist would scarcely discover traces of the most distant resemblance. See LYDIUS.

It would appear that the finest amber, and a particular deep-coloured variety of it, was formerly obtained from  
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Liguria, where, indeed, it still occurs, though not in the same quantity in which it is found on the sea-coast of Prussia. If we may suppose the word *lycurium* to have been derived from that part of Italy, it is certainly equally probable that ignorance and the love of the marvellous may afterwards have substituted that of *lyncurium*, implying the fabulous origin of this substance from the urine of the lynx. Similarity of colour appears to have been sufficient afterwards to affix the same appellation to the hyacinth; and it is probably this confusion which produced the description of Theophrastus above alluded to, and which is partly applicable to amber, and partly to the hyacinth, or any other hard stone of similar colour and transparency, such as yellow garnet, yellow calcedony, &c. Among the authors who have considered amber to be the lyncurium of the ancients, are Geoffroy, Gesner, Beckman, and Napione; most of the other modern writers on mineralogy follow St. Epiphanius, Lefler, and Hill, who are decidedly of opinion that the hyacinth alone could have been meant by it. Sir William Watson supposes that Theophrastus's description is applicable to the *tourmalin*, the electrical phenomena of which are however of a peculiar nature; not to mention other objections that may be urged against the identity of the two substances. In the Vulgate, mention is made of the *lygurius*, as one of the twelve precious stones in the breast-plate of the high priest. In the version of Septuagint, it is called the *λυγκουριον*. St. Epiphanius and St. Jerome suspect the lyncurium to be the hyacinth; but how unsettled the ideas of St. Epiphanius were respecting the latter gem, appears from the following account he gives of it: "Hyacinthus igitur diversa habet formas; quo enim reperitur colore profundior, eo cæteris præstantior est. Similis est lanæ quæ subpurpurascit aliquate- nus." *Ib.* c. p. 110.

But the ancients had not exhausted all the absurdities upon this subject: it remained for the moderns to discover that the lyncurium lapis was a stone capable of producing mushrooms. In the "Ephemerides of the Curious," we find mention made of a stone, so called by Dr. John George Wolckamerus, who saw one in Italy, which never ceases to produce in a few days mushrooms of an excellent flavour by the most simple and easy process imaginable. "It is (says he) of the bigness of an ox's head, rough and uneven on its surface, and on which also are perceived some clefts and crevices. It is black in some parts, and in others of a lighter and greyish colour. Internally it is porous, and nearly of the nature of the pumice-stone, but much heavier; and it contains a small piece of flint, which is so incorporated with it as to appear to have been formed at the same time the stone itself received its form. This gives room to judge, that those stones have been produced by a fat and viscid juice, which has the property of indurating whatever matter it filtrates into. The stone here spoken of, when it has been lightly covered with earth, and sprinkled with warm water, produces mushrooms of an exquisite flavour, which are usually round, sometimes oval, and whose borders, by their inflexions and different curvities, represent in some measure human ears. The principal colour of these mushrooms is sometimes yellowish, and sometimes of a bright purple; but they are always disseminated with different spots, of a deep orange-colour, or red brown; and, when these spots are recent, and still in full bloom, they produce a very agreeable effect to the sight. But what appears admirable is, that the part of the stalk which remains adhering to the stone, when the mushroom has been separated from it, grows gradually hard, and petrifies in time, so that it seems that this fungites restores to the stone the nutritive juice it received from it, and that it thus contributes to its increase." John Baptist Porta pretends, that this stone is found in several parts of Italy; and that it is not only to be met with at Naples, taken out of Mount Vesuvius, but also on Mount Pantherico, in the principality of Arellino; on Mount Garganus, in Apulia; and on the summits of some other very high mountains. He adds, that the mush-



rooms which grow on those sorts of stones, and are usually called *fungi lycurii*, have the property of dissolving and breaking the stone of the kidneys and bladder; and that, for this purpose, nothing more is required than to dry them in the shade, and, being reduced to powder, to make the patient, fasting, take a sufficient quantity of this powder in a glass of white wine, which will so cleanse the excretory ducts of the urine, that no stones will ever after be collected in them. As to the form of those mushrooms, their root is stony, uneven, divided according to its longitudinal direction, and composed of fibres as fine as hairs, interwoven one with another. Their form, on first shooting out, resembles a small bladder, scarcely then larger than the bud of a vine; and, if in this state they are squeezed between the fingers, an aqueous subacid liquor issues out. When they are at their full growth, their pedicle is of a finger's length, larger at top than at bottom, and becomes insensibly slender in proportion as it is nearer the earth.

LYNCUS, LYNCÆUS, or LYNX, a cruel king of Scythia; or, according to others, of Sicily. He received, with feigned hospitality, Triptolemus, whom Ceres had sent all over the world to teach mankind agriculture; and, as he was jealous of his commission, he resolved to murder this favorite of the gods in his sleep. As he was going to give the deadly blow to Triptolemus, he was suddenly changed into a lynx, an animal which is the emblem of perfidy and ingratitude. *Ovid.*

LYNCUS, a town of Macedonia, of which the inhabitants were called Lyncestæ. *Pliny.*

LYNDALS, a river of Norway, which runs into the sea ten miles north-north-west of Christianfand.

LYN'DEBOROUGH, a township of North America, in Hillsborough county, New Hampshire, about seventy miles from Portsmouth; incorporated in 1764, and containing 976 inhabitants.

LYN'DEL, a village near Cartmel in Lancashire.

LYN'DHURST, a village in the parish of Minsted, in the New Forest of Hampshire, situated nine miles from Southampton and eighty-six from London, nearly in the centre of the New Forest, of which it has been, from the formation of the forest, considered as a sort of capital; and here was exercised the jurisdiction of the chief justice in eyre for this forest, so long as he continued to exercise it, of which there are no traces subsequent to the reign of Charles II. All the forest-courts under the verderors are still held here; as well as those of attachment, &c. and the swanimote; the former are held on such days as the presiding judges appoint, three times in a year; the latter on the 14th of September annually. See the article FOREST, vol. vii. p. 566. The king's house in this village, though but an indifferent residence, is occupied by the lord warden whenever he visits the Forest. The late duke of Gloucester was lord-warden; and, Lyndhurst being situated about midway between Windsor and Weymouth, his majesty George III. &c. in his visit to the latter place, took up a short residence here in June 1789. An ancient stirrup is preserved here, said to have been worn by William Rufus at the time he was shot by sir Walter Tyrrell. The king's stables are very large, and were probably considered as magnificent when first erected, which appears to have been about the time Charles II. From the hotel at Lyndhurst, which is newly built, and fitted up with every convenience, is a fine view of the sea, and of the Needle rocks at the west end of the Isle of Wight.

About one mile west of Lyndhurst is Cuffnells, the seat of the right honourable George Rose, who has been here honoured with two visits from their majesties and the royal family, in the years 1801 and 1804.

What is now called the New Forest is a tract of at least forty miles in compass, which had many populous towns and villages, till (as is said) it was destroyed and turned into a forest by William the Conqueror. But Mr. Warner (*Topographical Remarks on Hampshire*) is of opinion with Voltaire and Warton, that the monkish accounts of

its formation are greatly exaggerated. We believe that they are; and we are not much disinclined to fall in with Mr. W.'s conclusions: namely, "1st, That, in times previous to the reign of William, the tract of country, now denominated New Forest, was a sterile and woody district, with a few spots, here and there, of the rude tillage of that age. 2dly, That William fixed on this corner of Hampshire as a spot proper for hunting; and converted, accordingly, a large portion of it into a forest. 3dly, That the afforestation was made without much injury to the subject, or offence to religion." Our author, however, allows that it was a despotic act; but, in those days, what king was not a despot? Overcharged as the crime of William in making his great forest may have been by his irritated enemies the monks, yet his injustice and cruelty in forming his forest-laws admit of no apology nor extenuation. It is when beheld in this character, that he appears the sanguinary and vindictive tyrant; oppressing his people, perverting justice, and trampling upon the most sacred rights of man. The institutions which he framed for the correction of offenders in hunting, breathe a spirit of refined cruelty, only to be equalled by the severity with which they were enforced. Confiscation of goods, loss of liberty, and mutilation of person, form the fearful list of punishments which awaited those who had dared to infringe on the sports of royalty. Well might an early author, (Matthew Paris,) when adverting to this sanguinary code, exclaim—"Dreadful are the distresses of that land, whose monarch is the careful preserver of noxious animals, and the unmerciful destroyer of his own subjects."

The following correct particulars respecting the New Forest are copied from Wilkes's British Directory, now become a scarce book.—There are nine walks in it; and to every one a keeper, under the lord warden, besides two rangers and a bow-bearer. As this large tract lay many ages open and exposed to invasions from foreigners, king Henry VIII. built some castles in it; and it has now several pretty towns and villages. It is situated in that part of Hampshire which is bounded on the east by Southampton River, and on the south by the British Channel. It possesses advantages of situation, with respect to the convenience of water-carriage and nearness to the dock-yards, superior to every other forest, having in its neighbourhood several ports, and places of shelter for shipping timber, among which Lymington is at the distance of only two miles, Bewley about half a mile, and Redbridge three or four miles, from the Forest; and the navigation to Portsmouth, the most considerable dock-yard in the kingdom, is only about thirty miles from the nearest of those places. This is the only forest belonging to the crown of which the origin is known. Domesday book contains the most distinct account of its afforestation by William the Conqueror; the contents of every field, farm, or estate, afforested, in hides, carucates, or virgates, by which the extent of land was then computed, together with the names of the hundreds and villages, and of the former proprietors (which are for the most part Saxon), the rent or yearly value of each possession, and the tax which had been paid for it to the crown during the reign of Edward the Confessor before the inhabitants were expelled and that part of the country laid waste, are all to be found in that most curious and venerable record. Wishing to discover the original extent of the forest, we extracted for our own information all that relates to it in that ancient survey. The extract is by far too voluminous to be inserted. The names of many of the places having been changed since that time, it is difficult to ascertain with precision what were then the limits of the forest. The oldest perambulation we have met with is among the Pleas of the Forest, in the eighth year of king Edward I. preserved in the chapter-house at Westminster. The boundaries there described include all the country from Southampton-river on the east, to the Avon on the west, following the sea-coast as far as the southern boundary between those rivers, and



and extending northwards as far as North Chardeford, or North Charford, on the west, and to Wade and Orebrugg, or Owerbridge, on the east; and the greatest part, if not the whole, of that extensive district is mentioned in Doomsday-book to be forest belonging to the crown. Another perambulation was however made in the 29th of the same king, which leaves out a great part of the country contained within the former. This perambulation which is preserved in the Tower of London, confines the forest to limits which, as far as we can trace them, appear to have been followed in the 22d year of Charles II. when the forest was again perambulated. By the Charta de Foresta, all lands not belonging to the crown, which had been afforested by Henry II. Richard I. or king John, were to be disafforested; but, as no provision was made for the reduction of the more ancient afforestations, it is not easy to account for the great diminution of this forest in the reign of Edward I. who was not a prince likely to submit to any encroachment on his rights. The perambulation of the 22d Charles II. is the last we find on record; it contains the present legal bounds of the forest, and was given to the surveyors as their guide, in taking the plan which they made some years ago by order of the government. From that plan, with the approbation of the lords commissioners of his majesty's treasury, an engraving was made. According to the last-mentioned perambulation, and the plan, the forest extends from Godshill on the north-west to the sea on the south-east, about twenty miles; and from Hardley on the east to Ringwood on the west, about fifteen miles; and contains within those limits about 92,365 acres, statute-measure. The whole of that quantity, however, is not forest-land, nor now the property of the crown: there are several manors and other considerable freehold estates within the perambulation, belonging to individuals, to the amount of about 24,797 acres; about six hundred and twenty-five acres are copyhold or customary lands belonging to his majesty's manor of Lyndhurst; about one thousand and four acres are leasehold under the crown, granted for certain terms of years, and forming part of the demised land-revenue, under the management of the surveyor general of crown-lands; about nine hundred and one acres are *purprestures*, or encroachments on the forest; about one thousand one hundred and ninety-three acres more are inclosed lands held by the master-keepers and groom-keepers, with their respective lodges; and the remainder, being about 63,845 acres, are woods and waste lands of the forest. To perpetuate the spot where William Rufus was killed, by the glance of an arrow shot at a stag, a triangular stone was erected in 1745. His majesty George III. visited this spot in 1789. In August 1782, a curious ancient golden cross was found here by a labouring man digging turf. It weighed above an ounce of gold, and had on one side an engraving of our Saviour, and on the other the ladder, spear, nails, and other emblems of his sufferings.

"A proposal was made to the lord-treasurer Godolphin, for re-peopling this forest. The celebrated Daniel de Foe drew up the scheme, and argued it before that noble lord and some others, who were principally concerned at that time in bringing over, or rather providing for when they were come over, the poor inhabitants of the Palatinate; a thing in itself commendable, but, as it was managed, made of no benefit to England, and miserable to those poor people. Some persons being ordered, by the noble lord above-mentioned, to consider how those people should be provided for without injury to the public, the New Forest in Hampshire was singled out to be the place for them. Here it was proposed to draw a great square line, containing four thousand acres of land, marking out two large highways or roads through the centre, crossing both ways; so that there should be one thousand acres in each division, exclusive of the land contained in the said cross-roads. Then to single out twenty men and their families, who should be recommended as honest in-

dustrious people, expert in husbandry, or at least capable of being instructed in it. To each of these should be parcelled, but in equal distributions, two hundred acres of this land; so that the whole four thousand acres should be distributed to the said twenty families; for which they should have no rent to pay, and be liable to no taxes but such as would provide for their own sick or poor, repair their own roads, &c. this exemption to continue for twenty years, and then to pay each fifty pounds to the crown. To each of these families it was proposed to advance two hundred pounds in ready money, as a stock to set them to work, and to hire and pay labourers to inclose, clear, and cure, the land; which, it was supposed, the first year, could not be so much to their advantage as the following years; allowing them timber out of the forest to build themselves houses and barns, sheds, and offices, as they should have occasion; also for carts, waggons, ploughs, harrows, and the like necessary implements. These twenty families would, by the consequence of their own settlements, employ and maintain such a proportion of others of their own people; that the whole number of Palatines would have been provided for, had they been many more than they were, and that without being any burden upon, or injury to, the people of England; on the contrary, they would have been an advantage, and an addition of wealth and strength, to the nation, and to the county in particular where they should be thus seated. Two things would have been answered by the execution of this scheme; viz. 1. That the annual rent to be received in all these lands, after twenty years, would abundantly pay the public for the first disbursements. 2. More money than would have done this was thrown away upon them here, to keep them in suspense, and afterwards starve them; sending them begging all over the nation, and shipping them off to perish in other countries. The spot where the design was laid out was near Lyndhurst, in the road from Romsey to Lymington."

**LYNDHURST WOOD**, east of Mansfield in Nottinghamshire.

**LYNDON**, a village in Rutlandshire, five miles from Stamford, in the great north road.

**LYNDRIDGE**, a village in Kent, between Tunbridge and Rye.

**LYNDSAY** (Sir David.) See **LINDSAY**, vol. xii. p. 742.

**LYNE**, a town of Scotland, in the county of Peebles, at the conflux of the Lyne and the Tweed: three miles west of Peebles.

**LYNE**, or **LYNNE**, a river of Scotland, which runs into the Tweed at Lyne.

**LYNE**, a river of England, which runs into the Trent near Nottingham.

**LYNEMERSTOCK**, a member of the lordship of Woller, Northumberland.

**LYNER**, **LYNER**, or **LI'NER**, a river of England, in the county of Cornwall, which rises about five miles north of Likeard, and runs into the river Tamar a little below Saltash.

**LYNEY**, a township of England, in Gloucestershire, with 783 inhabitants: twenty miles south-west of Gloucester.

**LYNFORD** (Great and Little), villages in Buckinghamshire, near Newport-Pagnel. At the former is a charity-school: the latter was anciently a chapelry, in the parish of Newport.

**LYNHA'VEN BA'Y**, a bay or harbour at the south end of Chesapeake Bay, on the coast of Virginia, between Cape Henry and the mouth of James River. Here de Grasse moored the principal part of the French Fleet, at the blockade of York Town, in the year 1781: Lat. 36. 58. N. lon. 76. 7. W.

**LYN'IEL**, a village in Shropshire, north-west of Wen. **LYNK'HOORN BAY**, a bay on the coast of Virginia, at the bottom of Chesapeake Bay, two or three miles west of Cape Henry. Lat. 76. 56. W. lon. 76. 6. W.

**LYNLEY**,



LYNLEY, a village in Shropshire, north of Bishop's Castle.

LYNN, a river of England, which runs into the Ouse at Lynn Regis.

LYNN, a river of America, in Norfolk county, Upper Canada, which rises in Windham township, and discharges itself into lake Erie, affording a good harbour for batteaux.

LYNN, called SAGUS by the Indians, a maritime post-town of North America, in Essex county, Massachusetts, on a bay about nine miles north-by-east from the town of Boston. The township was incorporated in 1637, and contains 2837 inhabitants, in two parishes. The principal manufacture is that of women's silk and cloth shoes, which are sold for home use, and shipped to the southern states and to the West Indies. Lynn-beach, which is a mile in length, connects the peninsula, called Nahant, with the main land. In the summer season it is a place of great resort from neighbouring towns, and used as a race-ground.

LYNN CANAL, an inlet on the west coast of North America, and upper arm of Cross Sound; extending about sixty miles north from the north extremity of Chatham Sound: so named by Capt. Vancouver, from his native place Lynn in Norfolk. Lat. 58. 12. N. lon. of the entrance to the south 225. 12. E.

LYNN REGIS, or KING'S LYNN, a large respectable sea-port, borough, and market-town, in the county of Norfolk, is situated ten miles from the British ocean, on the eastern bank of the Great Ouse river, which at this place is nearly the breadth of the Thames above London-bridge. Camden was of opinion that Lynn derived its name from the British word *Lhynn*, which means spreading waters; but Spelman affirms that the right name is *Len*, in Saxon "a Farm or Tenure in Fee;" and *Len Episcopi*, as it was formerly called, meant "the Bishop's Farm." It retained the name of *Bishop's Lynn* till the time of Henry VIII. who exchanged the monastery of St. Bennet in the Holme, and other lands, for the revenues of the bishopric, when this town, among the rest, came into his hands, and, with the possessor, changed its name to *Lynn Regis*, or King's Lynn.

Lynn is a rich and populous town, containing 10,253 inhabitants; and is one mile and a quarter long from the south gate to the Block-house, and about half a mile from the river to the east gate, which is the broadest part. It is encompassed on the land-side by a deep ditch and an ancient wall, which was formerly defended by nine bastions, and it might now be made a place of considerable strength. This town is divided by four small rivers, called *fleets*, over which there are fifteen bridges; and at the north end of it there is a platform of twelve cannon, (18-pounders), called St. Anne's Fort.

King John, because it adhered to him against the rebellious barons, made it a free borough; and also presented the corporation with an elegant double-gilt embossed and enamelled silver-cup and cover, weighing seventy-three ounces, which is well preserved, and upon all public occasions and entertainments used, with some uncommon ceremonies, at drinking the health of the king and queen; and whoever goes to visit the mayor drinks out of this cup. He likewise gave them, from his own side, it is said, a large sword with a silver mounting, to be carried before the mayor, who is chosen annually on the 29th of August, and sworn into office on the 29th of September. Henry III. made it a mayor-town, for its serving him against the barons. It has had fifteen royal charters; and is governed by a mayor, high-steward, under-steward, recorder, twelve aldermen, and eighteen common-councilmen; and sends two members. This borough was always attached to the Walpole family, under whose influence it continues at this time. Sir Robert Walpole was member for this place at the time of his famous expulsion, in 1711, for alienating five hundred pounds of the public money; the words of his expulsion being "for breach of trust, and notorious corruption, when secretary at war." And it was resolved,

"that he was, and is, incapable of being elected a member to serve in parliament." The electors of Lynn, however, choose him again; but the house declared the election void. The mayor is the returning-officer; the number of voters about 300. The members are—Lord Walpole, eldest son of the earl of Orford, and sir M. B. Folkes, bart.

The harbour is capable of containing 300 sail of ships. The spring-tides flow nearly eighteen feet perpendicular; and, if at those times there happens to be a strong northerly wind, they come in with such rapidity as to force the ships in the harbour from their moorings, though they lie ten miles distance from the sea. There are no fresh-water springs in this town; but the inhabitants are plentifully supplied with that necessary article from the Gaywood-river, by the water-works near the east gate, called Kettle-mill.

St. Margaret the Virgin being the tutelary saint and patroness of this town, in honour of her, its arms are three dragons' heads, each wounded with a cross; and its public and common seal is the effigies of St. Margaret standing in a triumphant manner, wounding the dragon with a cross, and treading him under foot, with this inscription round it: *Stat Margareta, draco fugit in cruce laeta*. The principal church is of course dedicated to St. Margaret; it was built by Herbert de Losinga, bishop of Norwich, about the year 1100; and then had a lofty lantern in the middle of the cross aisle, and at the west end two towers, in one of which are eight bells; on the other there was a very elegant spire, which, from the foundation, was 258 feet high, and equal to the length of the church and chancel; but this being blown down in the year 1741, and greatly damaging the body of the church, the ruins were entirely taken down, when it was rebuilt with three large aisles, and is now one of the largest parochial churches in England, the breadth of it to the outside of the foundation of the walls being 130 feet.—St. Nicholas's chapel, supposed to have been built between the years 1327 and 1377, in the reign of Edward III. is 200 feet long and 78 broad; it is reckoned one of the fairest and largest of the kind in England, and has a bell-tower of free-stone, and an eight-square spire over it, both which together are 70 feet from the ground. There is a library in it, that was erected by subscription; also another at St. Margaret's.—The chapel of St. James, since the dissolution of the priories, being in part demolished, and the rest become ruinous, was rebuilt in the year 1682, by the liberal benefactions of the mayor, burgessees, and principal inhabitants, and converted into a workhouse for fifty decayed old men, women, and poor children; where good endowment and provision is made for their work, instruction, and maintenance, and for putting the children out to trades. Great additions have been made to this place; and it is now the general workhouse for the whole town. The Exchange, or Custom-house, which was erected in 1683, by sir John Turner, is a neat free-stone building, with two tiers of pilasters, the lower in the Doric, and the upper in the Ionic, order; it occupies the site of an old religious house, which was appropriated to the Trinity-guild. Two markets are held, on Tuesdays and Saturdays, in different places: the Tuesday market-place comprises an area of three acres, surrounded by some good houses; near the centre, on an ascent of four steps, stands a building called the Market-cross, of free-stone, erected in the year 1710; the lower part is encompassed by a peristyle formed by sixteen Ionic columns; the upper part is finished with a cupola, and the whole is seventy feet in height. The Saturday market is kept in a convenient area recently opened near St. Margaret's church-yard. The Guildhall is an ancient structure of stone and flint; it contains a large stone hall, courts for the administration of justice, and three spacious assembly-rooms. By the second charter of king Henry VIII. to this town, in the twenty-ninth year of his reign, two fairs or marts were granted: one to be held on Aug. 27, (since changed to the



the 17th of October,) which is called the cheese-fair, and is kept in Chequer-street; the other on February 14, which is called the mart, and proclaimed for six days, is kept in the Tuesday market-place, and is much resorted to by genteel company from most parts of the country; it generally holds a fortnight.

About half way betwixt the south and east gates stand the remains of an ancient oratory, an odd sort of building, with several vaults and cavities under ground, over which are some dark cells for the priests to take confessions in; and above them is a small chapel in the figure of a cross, arched above, and enriched with carvings; it is dedicated to the Blessed Virgin, and commonly called the Lady's or Red Mount, whither the Romish penitents, in their pilgrimage through this town to the holy wells and monastery of Our Lady at Walsingham, used to resort and perform their devotions. In this town there have been several priories, oratories, and religious houses, which are now demolished, except a hexagon-steeple of the Grey Friars, near the workhouse, still remaining, and serving as a land-mark to vessels entering the harbour. The situation of this town, near the fall of the Ouse into the sea, gives it an opportunity of extending its trade into eight different counties; so that it supplies many considerable cities and towns with heavy goods, not only of our own produce, but such as are imported from abroad. Its trade in wine and coals is such, that from 90,000 to 100,000 chaldrons of coals are brought annually into this port; and the annual importation of wine is more than two thousand pipes. It appeared, by the report made by the commissioners for auditing the public accounts in the year 1784, that the whole annual receipt of the duties at this port were greater than those at any other port in the kingdom, except London, Bristol, Liverpool, and Hull. The trade in corn is extremely large; and in iron, deals, timber, and other kinds of merchandise, very considerable. Its foreign trade is also considerable, especially to Holland, Norway, the Baltic, Spain, and Portugal; and formerly they drove a good trade to France, till it was turned off, by treaties on one hand, and by prohibitions, high duties, &c. on the other, to Spain and Portugal. The king's staithe-yard, or quay, where the greatest part of the imported wines is landed, and put into large vaults, is a handsome square, with brick buildings, in the centre whereof is a statue of king James I. People pass from hence in boats into the fen-country, and over the famous washes into Lincolnshire in boats, which are often lost by venturing out at an improper season, and without guides.

In the year 1643, the parliamentary forces besieged the town; the siege began on the 28th of August, and continued till the 16th of September, when it was surrendered; and, to preserve it from plunder, was obliged to pay to every foot-soldier of the besieging army under the command of the earl of Manchester ten shillings, and to every foot-officer, under the rank of captain, a fortnight's pay, amounting in all to the sum of 3200*l.* after which it was made a garrison-town for the parliament. Preparatory to the restoration of Charles II. it was fortified afresh by sir Horatio Townshend, ancestor to the present marquis Townshend, who was created a baron by king Charles II. for his loyal services, by the style and title of Lord Townshend, of King's Lynn.

Every first Monday in the month, the mayor, aldermen, clergymen, &c. meet to hear and determine all controversies amicably, for preventing law-suits. This was first established anno 1588, and is called the Feast of Reconciliation.—There are more gentry, and consequently more gaiety, in this town than in Yarmouth, or even Norwich; here being such plenty of eatables and drinkables, that Spelman says Ceres and Bacchus seem to have established their magazines here; the east side of the town abounding with corn, sheep, rabbits, hares, &c. the west side with cheese, butter, black-cattle, swans, and the wild-fowl common to marshes, besides the abundance of sea and river-fish; so that he thinks there is no place in Great Bri-

tain, if in Europe, has such a variety in so small a compass of ground.

North Lynn, near King's Lynn, is a little village at the mouth of the Ouse, open to the sea; it had a church called St. Edmond's, long ago entirely swallowed up by the tides.

Old or West Lynn is so called from its situation on the west side of the river over against it, in the district called Marshland, which is a marshy peninsula, opposite to King's Lynn, almost surrounded with the Ouse and other navigable rivers, and an arm of the sea. It seems formerly to have been recovered out of the ocean, from whose inundations it could never be altogether defended; and in sir Henry Spelman's time it suffered two general ones, viz. one from the salt-water, the other from the freshes; by the last of which the inhabitants suffered 42,000*l.* damage. It contains about 30,000 acres, which turn to more profit by grazing than ploughing. It is about 10 miles in the widest place, and has no less than 111 brick bridges. The commonage of it belongs to seven villages that surround it. The air is so unhealthy, that an ague is commonly called the *Marshland bailiff*.

LYNN'FIELD, a township of North America, in Essex county, Massachusetts, north-east of Salem, and fifteen miles from Boston; incorporated in 1782, and containing 468 inhabitants.

LYN'STOCK, a village in Cumberland, on the river Eden, north-east of Carlisle; with a castle.

LYN'THORP, a village in the north riding of Yorkshire, west of Bradworth.

LYN'TON, a village in the east riding of Yorkshire; north of the wolds.—A village in the north riding, on the Ouse; south-east of Boroughbridge.—A village in the west riding. See LINTON.

LYN'TON, a village in Northumberland, north-east of Morpeth.

LYN'TON (West), a village of Cumberland, on the river Leven, west of Brampton.

LYN'WOOD, a village in the New Forest, Hants.

LYNX, *f.* [Latin.] A spotted beast, remarkable for speed and sharp sight. See the article FELIS, vol. vii. p. 299.—He that has an idea of a beast with spots, has but a confused idea of a leopard, it not being thereby sufficiently distinguished from a *lynx*. *Locke*.

What modes of sight betwixt each wide extreme,  
The mole's dim curtain, and the *lynx's* beam. *Pope*.

LY'OE, a small island of Denmark, near the south coast of Fyen. Lat. 55. 3. N. lon. 10. 10. E.

LYC'ENA, a town of Algiers, whither the independent Arabians bring their riches as a place of security, being defended by a warlike tribe, who have withstood the power of the Turks. It is 106 miles south of Constantinia.

LY'OM, a village in Northumberland, north-east of Waller.

LY'ON, a town of North Carolina, on Cape Fear River; four miles south-east of Fayetteville.

LY'ON, a river of Scotland, which rises in Loch Lyon, and runs into the Tay two miles east-north-east of Kenmore.

LY'ON (William), a strolling player, who sometimes used to perform at the theatre in Edinburgh, in which city he died about the year 1748. He was considered as very excellent in the character of Gibby; but the most remarkable quality which he possessed, and which has occasioned us to notice him in this work, was an uncommonly retentive memory, of which the following instance may be given as a proof. When he was one evening over his bottle, in company with some of his brethren of the theatre, he wagered a crown bowl of punch, a liquor of which he was very fond, that next morning at the rehearsal, he would repeat a Daily Advertiser from beginning to end. The player, who considered this boast as words of course only, paid no great regard to them; but, as Lyon was positive, he laid the wager. Next morning at the rehearsal, he put Lyon in mind of his wager, imagining, as he was



drunk the night before, that he certainly must have forgot it, and rallied him on his ridiculous bragging about his memory. Lyon pulled out the paper, desired him to look at it, and be judge himself whether he did or did not win his wager. Notwithstanding the unconnexion between the paragraphs, the variety of advertisements, and the general chaos which goes to the composition of any newspaper, he repeated it from beginning to end, without the least hesitation or mistake: an instance of a strong memory, the parallel of which perhaps cannot be produced in any age or nation.—He is the author of a farce, altered from Vanbrugh, called *The Wrangling Lovers*, or *Like Master like Man*, 1745, printed at Edinburgh.

LY'ONNESS, a name given to a part of the promontory overflowed at the Land's End, Cornwall.

LYONG', a small island in the Eastern Indian Sea, near the east coast of Oby. Lat. 1. 39. S. lon. 128. 14. E.

LY'ONNET (Peter), an ingenious naturalist, and member of several learned societies, was born at Maestricht, and was descended from a very ancient and respectable family of Lorraine. He had scarcely attained his seventh year before he displayed an uncommon strength and agility in all bodily exercises; but he was not less diligent in the improvement of his mind. Being placed at the Latin school, he learned chronology, and exercised himself in Latin, Greek, and French, poetry, as also in Hebrew, logic, and the Cartesian physics. He was particularly fond of the study of languages, whereof he understood no less than nine, living and dead. Having entered the university of Leyden, he studied the Newtonian philosophy, geometry, algebra, &c. but, his father (who was a clergyman) desiring he should attach himself to divinity, he reluctantly abandoned the former studies, as his passion for them was not easily to be overcome. He at the same time applied himself to anatomy, and also to music and drawing. He began afterwards to practise sculpture; and performed several pieces in wood, some of which are preserved, and have been greatly admired by the artists. After this, he betook himself to drawing portraits of his friends from life; wherein, after three or four months practice, he became a great proficient. Having attained the degree of candidate in divinity, he resolved to study law, to which he applied himself with so much zeal, that he was promoted at the end of the first year. Arrived at the Hague, he undertook the study of deciphering; and became secretary of the ciphers, translator of the Latin and French languages, and patent-master, to their High Mightinesses. Meanwhile, having taken a strong liking to the study of insects, he undertook an historical description of such as are found about the Hague, and to that end collected materials for several volumes; and, having invented a method of drawing adapted thereto, he enriched this work with a great number of plates, universally admired by all the connoisseurs who had seen them. In the year 1724, was printed at the Hague, a French translation of a German work, the *Theology of Insects*, by Mr. Lesser. Love of truth engaged Mr. Lyonnet to defer the publication of his above-mentioned description, and to make some observations on that work, to which he has added two most beautiful plates, engraved from his designs. This performance caused his merit to be universally known and admired. The celebrated M. de Reaumur had the above translation reprinted at Paris, not so much on account of the work itself as of Mr. Lyonnet's observations; and bestowed on it, as did also many other authors, the highest encomiums. He afterwards executed drawings of the fresh-water polypus for Mr. Trembley's beautiful work, 1744. The ingenious Wandelaar had engraved the first five plates; when Mr. Lyonnet, who had never witnessed this operation, concerned at the difficulties he experienced in getting the remaining eight finished in the superior style he required, resolved to perform the task himself. He accordingly took a lesson of one hour of Mr. Wandelaar, engraved three or four small plates, and immediately began upon the work himself,

which he performed in such a manner as drew on him the highest degree of praise, both from Mr. Trembley and from many other artists, particularly the celebrated Van Gool; who declared that the performance astonished not only the amateurs, but also the most experienced artists. In 1748, he was chosen member of the Royal Society of London. In 1749, he began (by mere chance) his amazing collection of horns and shells, which, according to the universal testimony of all travellers and amateurs who have visited it, is at present the most beautiful, and certainly one of the most valuable, in Europe. In 1753, he became member of the newly-established Dutch Society of Sciences at Haerlem; and in 1757, after the celebrated M. le Cat, professor in anatomy and surgery, and member of almost all the principal societies in Europe, had seen Mr. Lyonnet's incomparable *Traité Anatomique de la Chemille qui ronge le Bois de Saule*, with the drawings belonging to it, (which work was afterwards published,) he was elected member of the Royal Academy of Sciences of Rome, whereof M. le Cat was perpetual secretary. After the publication of this treatise, he became, in 1760, member of the Royal Academy of Sciences of Berlin; in 1761, of the Imperial Academy of Naturalists; and, in 1762, the Imperial Academy of Sciences at St. Petersburg. In order to enable such as might be desirous of following him in his intricate and most astonishing discoveries respecting the structure of this animal, Mr. Lyonnet published, in the Transactions of the Dutch Society of Sciences at Haerlem, a description and a plate (as he also afterwards did in French at the beginning of his *Traité Anatomique*) of the instrument and tools he had invented for the purpose of dissection, and likewise of the method he used to ascertain the degree of strength of his magnifying glasses. Notwithstanding all this labour, which was considerably increased by the extensive correspondence which he for many years carried on with several learned and respectable personages, he still found means to set apart a large proportion of his time (as he himself mentions it in his preface) for the immediate service of his country; but was not fortunate enough (as appears by his writings) to get any other recompense for his exertions than sorrow and disappointment. During the last fifteen or twenty years of his life, Mr. Lyonnet added to the valuable treasure he had already collected of natural curiosities, a most superb cabinet of paintings, consisting of more than 560 performances; among which are many of the most eminent works of the first Dutch masters. He did this with a view to procure himself some amusement during the latter part of his life, when old age and infirmities must weaken his powers, and set bounds to his activity. He had always indeed accustomed himself to employment, in so much that he has written some pieces of Dutch poetry; and this disposition remained with him till within a fortnight of his death, when he was attacked with an inflammation in the breast, which, though apparently cured, was, in the end, the cause of his dissolution. He died at the Hague in January 1789, aged eighty-three years, leaving behind him a most estimable character.

LYONNOIS'S, *Pagus Lugdunensis*, was, before the revolution, a province of France, bounded on the north by Bourgogne and Maçonnois, on the east by the Saone and the Rhone, on the south by Languedoc, and on the west by Auvergne; being twenty-four leagues from north to south, and sixteen from west to east. This province is watered by the Rhone, the Saone, and the Loire, and is moderately fertile, producing grain, wine, and fruits. It was annexed to the crown of France in 1563; and consisted of three small provinces; viz. Lyonnois Proper, Forez, and Beaujolais. Lyonnois and Beaujolais are now included in the department of the Rhone, and Forez in that of the Loire.

LY'ONS, a city of France, and capital of the department of the Rhône; before the revolution the capital of a province called the *Lyonnois*; situated at the conflux of the Rhône and Saône. Lyons, anciently called *Lugdunum*,



was already a flourishing state, when *Luteſia*, or Paris, could claim but a feeble exiſtence. Auſtulus proclaimed it the metropolis of Celtic Gaul; Claudius was born here, and gave it the name of a Roman city; it was reduced to aſhes in the time of Nero; but was ſoon reſtored, flouriſhed by the liberality of many princes, and became at length the ſecond city of France, thanks to its vaſt commerce, its favourable ſituation, and the induſtry of its inhabitants. It contains a vaſt number of ancient inſcriptions, which were firſt properly explained by M. Millin, *Voyage dans le Midi de la France*, 2 vols. 8vo. Paris, 1806. In the 5th century Lyons was taken by the Burgundians, whoſe king became feudatory to Clovis. The ſons of Clovis afterwards deſtroyed the power of the Burgundians, and rendered themſelves maſters of Lyons. In the diſiſion of the dominions of Louis the Debonnaire, Lyons, with the greateſt part of Burgundy, came to Lothaire. Lyons is the ſecond city of France, in point of ſize and population, but ſuperior to Paris in trade, commerce, and manufactures. They reckon eleven pariſhes, ſix gates, and four fauxbourgs; and it is divided into thirty-five quarters, named *penonages*. It was the ſee of an archbiſhop, who was primate of France, and had formerly great political power over Lyonnois. The cathedral church was a vaſt Gothic building, yet maſtetic in its appearance. The town-houſe is eſteemed one of the moſt beautiful in Europe; other public buildings were, before the revolution, four abbeys, fifty convents, three public ſchools, a college of phyſic, two general hoſpitals, &c. Here were, beſides, an academy of arts and ſciences and belles lettres, a ſociety of agriculture, a veterinary ſchool, a theatre, public library, ſeventy companies of trademen and artiſts, three forts, an arſenal well ſupplied, and arranged with care; magnificent quays, &c. The trade of Lyons is imenſe with Spain, Italy, Swiſſerland, Germany, Holland, England, &c. From Spain they receive wool, ſilk, drugs, piatters, and ingots of gold and ſilver; in return for cloth, linen, ſuſtian, ſaffron, paper, &c. To Italy they ſend cloth, linen, ſilk ſtuſſs, lace, books, mercery, and millinery; and receive in return ſilk, velvet, damask, fatins, taſſaties, and rice. To Swiſſerland they ſend coarſe cloth, hats, ſaffron, wine, oil, ſoap, and mercery; and receive from thence cheeſe, linen, and, in war-time, horſes. The great towns of Germany purchaſe from Lyons, beſides the ſame merchandiſe as the Swiſs, ſtuſſs of gold and ſilver. From Holland Lyons takes more merchandiſe than it ſends in return.

Early in the French revolution, an union was formed between the towns of Lyons, Marſeilles, and Toulon, under the title of "Federal Republicanism," contrary to the general ſenſe of the nation, which was for a republic one and indiviſible. Lyons contained a great number of diſaffected citizens of every claſs, Royaliſts and Girondiſts, and was declared to be in a ſtate of rebellion. After a ſiege of two months, in which the Lyoneſe were computed to have loſt two thouſand men, and great part of the city was reduced to aſhes, it ſurrendered. The chiefs of the rebels had fled, but ſeveral of them were afterwards taken and executed. By a decree of the convention, the walls and public buildings of Lyons were ordered to be deſtroyed, and the name of the city itſelf directed to be changed to that of *Ville Affranchie*, (ſee the article FRANCE, vol. vii. p. 792.) but this decree was afterwards repealed. The ſiege of Lyons may be juſtly termed one of the moſt memorable events of the revolution, whether we conſider it as a political or a military operation; whether with reſpect to the number of forces employed in the attack and defence, and of the lives loſt on both ſides; or whether with reſpect to the conſequences that it produced from the extinction of a party, which, if it did not aim at overturning the republic, would moſt certainly, had Lyons been able to beat off the beſieging army, have ſeparated the ſouth from the north of France, and have eſtabliſhed in it a ſeparate government. What were the real intentions of the Lyoneſe, in caſe of ſucceſs, cannot eaſily be

aſcertained. During the whole courſe of the events which preceded, attended, and followed, the ſiege, they never once in their collective capacity ſo much as hinted at the reſtoration of monarchy, nor made even the moſt diſtant approach to a complaint about the treatment which the king and his family had experienced. On the contrary, the grievances which they ſtated were all of a republican complexion. They proteſted, it is true, againſt all laws or decrees of the convention, paſſed or to be paſſed after a certain period; but it was not the period of the king's condemnation, but that of the imprisonment of the members of the Girondiſt party. This meaſure, they loudly complained, was an attack on the *ſovereignty of the people*; whoſe representatives, being clothed with the exerciſe of that ſovereignty, were and ought to be conſidered as ſacred in their perſons, and amenable only to thoſe from whom they derived their authority. To impriſon perſons ſo circumſtanced, they ſaid, was not only a violation of the reſpect which the convention owed to its conſtituents, but alſo a direct attack on their ſovereignty: every member of the convention being in the eye of the law an *integral* part of the whole; and to proceed to make decrees, during the confinement of a great number of ſuch integral parts, was to exclude the departments which they repreſented from all ſhare in that ſovereignty, which the conſtitution allowed to be fundamentally inherent in them. The Lyoneſe therefore deſired that the representatives ſhould be reſtored to their functions; declaring that, until the latter ſhould have full liberty, as uſual, to take their ſeats and vote and act in the convention, they would not ſubmit to the authority of, nor hold any communication with, that aſſembly. Nothing in favour of royalty could be deduced from all this reaſoning and conduct; except that the impriſoned members, with all the reſt of the Girondiſt party, had voted againſt the *immediate* execution of the king, and for taking the ſenſe of the people, by departments and diſtricts, relative to his fate. On the other hand, it is certain that ſome of the moſt determined royaliſts were employed by the Lyoneſe in the defence of their city, and that they were every where ſupported by ſuch of that deſcription of men as had the means of acting up to their inclination and principles. Whether they thus gave their aſſiſtance, and the others received it, under any declared or implied opinion that they were ſerving one common cauſe, viz. the cauſe of monarchy; or whether the Lyoneſe, on the point of being attacked by the whole force of the convention, were glad to accept of aid from any quarter, while the royaliſts, fighting againſt republicans of any ſide, were ſure that they were fighting againſt enemies whom it was their intereſt to weaken; are queſtions which now perhaps will never be answered. If, however, we may venture to hazard a conjecture, we would ſay it was likely that the people of Lyons were not at bottom very friendly to the revolution; which had, no matter how, been the means of producing a complete ſtagnation of trade in that city, the ſecond in all France in point of ſize and population, and the firſt in point of manufactures; its thouſands of looms were all ſtopped, and the inhabitants were reduced to very great diſtreſs;—circumſtances which could not be ſuppoſed to make them, at leaſt the principal manufacturers, very heartily attached to the new order of things that had made them ſuch ſufferers.

"In the ſiege of Lyons, all Europe was deeply intereſted. While it was able to withſtand its beſiegers, Toulon was ſafe in our hands, Marſeilles could not be kept in awe, the whole ſouth of France would have looked to it as a rallying point, and the northern departments of that vaſt country would have been in the moſt imminent danger of being ſtarved, as the principal ſupplies of corn, which they received from abroad, arrived from Italy in the ports of the Mediterranean; and, ſhould the cities to which theſe ports belong be adverſe to the convention, one of theſe two conſequences muſt have inevitably followed, that the convention muſt have been diſſolved, or  
France.



France split into two separate and hostile states; and either revolution would have given a new turn to the affairs of Europe. From the fate of Lyons nations may learn this salutary lesson—as one of the greatest scourges with which mankind can possibly be afflicted, is a *civil war*; so it is the duty of those who are placed at the helm of the state so to govern, that the people should have no grounds for seeking a redress of grievances in a revolution; and the people should on the other hand be convinced, that there can scarcely exist a grievance, which would not appear trivial when compared to that kind of revolution which changes all the elements of the government of a country, destroys all land-marks, and places the citizens under no other guidance than that of the effervescence of the human passions. May our rulers and our fellow-subjects bear this deeply in their minds; and then we may hope that they will both meet in the wish to effect, *peaceably and coolly*, such a reformation in our constitution, as may bring it as near to perfection in practice as it is in theory; and render it at once the happiness of Englishmen, the pride of reason, and the admiration of all Europe.” *Monthly Rev.* for Feb. 1795.

Of the present state of Lyons (1804), there is an ample account in the *Monthly Magazine* for that year, from which we shall make a few extracts.

Lyons is 110 French leagues (or 306 English miles) from Paris, 36 from Dijon, 44 from Avignon, 70 from Toulon, and 63 from Marseilles. It is in lat. 45. 46. N. lon. 4. 59. E. and is situated at the bottom of a ridge of hills on the confluence of the Saone and Rhone, not very improperly denominated, by Polybius and Livy, an island, of a triangular figure, the base of which is a chain of mountains and highlands tolerably picturesque. The numerous and pompous descriptions of this city, with which the French have augmented the volume of their literature, would make the stranger, who had read them before his arrival there, doubt that he was in Lyons. Its present and former state are, no doubt, very different; yet still enough remains to show what it could have been before the revolution and the destruction made by Collot d'Herbois. True, great numbers of houses have been levelled to the ground, and even almost entire streets at entering the town on the road from Paris; yet these in general were old houses, the natural ruin of which was only a little hastened, and which might add to the magnitude, but most assuredly not to the beauty, of the city. Few public buildings, except the convents, have been totally dilapidated, and still fewer have escaped some kind of mutilation. In general, all churches, chapels, and other public edifices, have been dismantled of their statues, busts, and other ornaments, not only in Lyons, but throughout all France. The inscriptions too are mostly defaced; and in many instances, where the hardness of the stone or the imperfectness of the instruments rendered it difficult to erase totally all the characters, every second letter has been most carefully destroyed. This species of malignity has even been extended to inscriptions which simply announced the date of the foundation or improvement of the building; such was the ignorant and impotent frenzy of these dilapidators. Great efforts, however, have been made to restore this city to its ancient splendour; several houses have been built in the Fauxbourg de Veyse; and two or three very lofty ones in the city, on the banks of the Rhone. On this road the view is animated by the prospect of some country seats, which, although of no great beauty or excellence, are so rare in France, that one must feel pleased with the prospect of any rural retreat, however rude and tasteless it may be. Approaching the town, and along the banks of the Saone, the views become more interesting, and even sublime. On the one hand is the river, with extensive prospects of houses, gardens, trees, &c. scattered over the declivities of its lofty banks; on the other, are huge and awful arching rocks, part of Mont d'Or, which in some places are suspended almost across the road; before you, are distant views of

the town and of one of its suburbs. Entering, you cross the Saone by a very old and strait stone bridge of four arches, very high in the middle, and of very disagreeable passage. There are two other bridges on this river, one of stone and the other of wood, but which are nothing remarkable. Nor is the famous bridge on the Rhone, so celebrated for its length, of any great notoriety in modern times. It has fourteen large circular arches through which the water runs, and four or five more over a marsh, formerly the bed of the river, in which is situated the Fauxbourg de la Guillotiere, on the road to Avignon; a situation extremely unwholesome, and sufficiently adverse to manufactures. The original foundation of this bridge, however, does great honour to the good sense of pope Innocent IV. who, during his long residence at Lyons, sold indulgences to eat meat on Fridays, and with the amount caused this bridge to be erected; and thus at once administered to the health and the accommodation of the public. Near the end of the bridge is the Custom-house, a large plain square building, which has no doubt more of utility than elegance. Adjoining is the large square called La Place de Louis le Grand, formerly Belle-cour. It has been most erroneously called, for its extent and decoration, the most beautiful square in Europe. It is but about 900 feet long, and irregularly 600 broad; its principal and indeed only beauty, is natural, and consists in its commanding a view of the junction of the Rhone and Saone. The surrounding buildings are neither uniform nor elegant; and the statue of Louis XIV. and other decorations are now no more. At the corner of the same square is the General Hospital of Charity. In 1531 there was a great sterility and famine, so that the surrounding peasants embarked in little boats on the Rhone, rather to be drowned than die with hunger. When they arrived at Lyons, the people took compassion on them, and nearly 8000 were humanely received and succoured by voluntary contributions. Shortly after the harvest came, and drew all these unfortunate people to the country; when there remained a sufficient sum to be employed in nourishing the poor of the city, and to furnish them in future with the same succour. For this it was necessary to erect an edifice; and in 1613 the building of this hospital and house of industry was commenced. It contains nine courts, one of which is larger in the middle, and was designed to answer every convenience; but the proportions and divisions are neither pretty nor advantageous. The poor are separated according to their age and sex, and those who are capable of working are occupied in the silk-manufacture, from which the house sometimes draws a considerable product. Its present state, however, is much more honourable to the architect than to the administrators and doctors, whose negligence and ignorance cannot be too severely reprehended. This hospital, whether considered as a public edifice or a civil institution, must still be estimated much inferior to that of Saragossa or Grenada in Spain, or even that of Bourdeaux. Before the revolution, the administrators of this hospital, as well as the Hotel-Dieu, enjoyed the prerogative of adopting infants, and of having the same rights as the true fathers; this is perhaps the only remain of the ancient adoption, which was practised in the earlier ages of the world, by the ceremony of passing the person adopted through his assumed mother's shift. The hospital called Hotel-Dieu is a very ancient building, said to have been erected by Childebert and Ultrogotha his queen, about the year 540; but was greatly altered and repaired, in 1708, by Delamonce. The interior consists of a large infirmary, built on the design of that at Milan, and disposed in the form of a Greek cross, of nearly 560 feet long, in which the patients are placed according to their sex, and the nature of their diseases. The middle of this great cross is covered with a shapeless and disproportionate dome. There are besides, a quarter for the children exposed, another for those adopted, and a spacious airy building on the side of the Rhone for convalescents. The convents



vents of the Cordeliers and Augustines have been every where dilapidated. That of the Cordeliers at present consists of the majestic ruins of a Gothic structure, of a single nave extremely long, with all its chapels and aisles entirely levelled, its doors and windows built up; and, instead of resounding to the deep-toned organ, and the salutations to St. Bonaventure, now re-echoes to the harmony of asses and mules, with which it is frequently well supplied. The chapel of Confalons, which adjoined this church, still remains habitable: its bare and rugged walls, once covered with elegantly-sculptured wood, are now hung with pieces of old tapestry, to qualify it a little for sying mas. Among the ruins are seen some shattered remains of bas-reliefs, admirably executed on wood, the fate of which one must needs regret, though they, like all other French productions, are spoiled by excess of ornaments, which every where, and in all ages, mark the meretricious taste of the French. The paintings that were in this chapel are said to have been the best in France, among which were several by Rubens and other Italian masters, but which made no better bonfire than those of the vilest dauber. The church of St. Peter still remains tolerably perfect, and is esteemed one of the most ancient in Lyons. It is an extremely-rude Gothic building, which forms part of the square des Terreaux, in which is the celebrated Guildhall, or Hotel de Ville. The principal façade fronts the square, is modern, and composed of a confused mixture of Doric and Corinthian pilasters, destitute of all proportion, and producing a risible effect upon an edifice, the body of which is Gothic. The Hotel de Ville has been divested of almost all its statues and inscriptions; yet still enough remains to prove it only a large, vulgar, and tasteless, pile of building, vainly called the first in Europe, after Amsterdam. The extortions of the archbishops in the thirteenth century taught them the necessity of having a town-house; but it was not until 1647 that this structure was commenced. It is a long square fabric, with two wings from each end, extending about 400 feet, and which are terminated in a kind of garden. The principal façade is without any order of architecture, and is bounded by two square pavilions surmounted with a kind of dome of no great beauty. The portal is supported by two Ionic columns of red marble, with bases and capitals in white, which have a most formal and ridiculous effect. Over this portal is a vulgar square tower terminating in a cupola and ball. On entering, a grand vestibule presents itself, ornamented with a great many inscriptions on both sides, most of which are now not legible. From this vestibule is seen the garden, or rather a few scattered and neglected shrubs, which form part of the court between the two wings that extend almost to the borders of the Rhone, but not far enough to enjoy a prospect of it. These great disproportionate wings, which are so dark and sombre, possess neither taste nor utility to render them by any means tolerable. The windows are lost in rudely-massive pediments; and the effect of the whole building is neither the strength of a prison, nor the beauty and elegance of a public edifice. The cathedral church of St. John is a regular Gothic building, mutilated and repaired from time to time, but still retaining an air of awful majesty unknown in most of the other churches. At present, however, its spacious and lugubrious walls only serve the purposes of gallantry; and it is not unfrequently at once the sacred temple of religion, and its dark recesses the theatre of connubial debauchery. The famous clock, which presented a perpetual calendar, civil and ecclesiastic, that marked the century, year, day, hour, and minute, has long been going to decay. The astrolabe still remains. The little chapel of Notre-Dame has been totally dismantled, and the tombs dug up to serve the manufacture of saltpetre; so that the bones of the dead were literally converted into the most powerful instruments of destruction. Such has been the fate of the greater part of the chapels and convents; one is made into a corn-market,

another into a stable, and a third in ruins! Of the library and cabinet only part remains; and so neglected is the library, though a public one, that the librarian will lock it up, and take the key with him to the country for four or five weeks together!

Much has been said of the extensive commerce and riches of Lyons before the revolution; but from its local situation, nearly surrounded by almost inaccessible mountains, and on the banks of a large river, the rapid current of which renders its navigation both very difficult and dangerous, one must doubt the authenticity of many reports of unbounded commerce. True its passage to the Mediterranean is rapid and dangerous enough; but the return is also as slow and difficult, which must impede and considerably diminish its trade. Nor is the passage by land more easy, as the traveller is obliged to pass the lower Alps going to Marfeilles. It must therefore be allowed that nature has fixed a limit to the extent of its commerce, which art will not easily supersede. Its manufactures indeed might be considerable; but their intimate relation with, and dependence on, commerce, subject them to the same laws, and whatever embarrasses the one will obstruct the other. Formerly 30,000 persons were said to have been employed in the silk-manufacture. But, if such a number of people were occupied in one branch, unquestionably necessity, if not genius, would have invented some kind of machinery, some means of abridging or assisting their labour by art. No such thing has yet appeared; their rude implements of industry (for they cannot be called machinery) are still such as were adopted in the most uncultivated age. To the want of machinery may be objected the low price of labour; but in Spain, where manual labour has always been as low as in France, many grand and excellent machines are to be seen in the silk-manufactories. Indeed machinery has never been required, nor its value known, in Lyons; and, whatever may have been the numbers formerly employed in this branch, at present it is certain, that, though still the principal employment of the people, they do not actually exceed 6000. The hosiery-manufacture of Lyons may be reputed to hold the second rank in the list of its fabrications, whether we consider the number of hands it employs, or the sums of money which it brings into France. This manufacture boasts the exclusive employment of materials entirely of national growth. The silks it uses, the frames and utensils it works with, and which are perfectly adapted to their purposes, the individuals to whom it gives occupation, all belong to France, and to French industry. There were at Lyons, in 1789, 2500 looms actually at work; they employed 800 masters, and 4200 journeymen of all denominations, such as smiths, needle-makers, dyers, binders, embroiderers, and others. Every loom yielded, upon an average, yearly 300 pairs of stockings, at seven livres mean price the pair, amounting all together to about 6,000,000 of livres. The half of this fabrication was exported. The conflagrations during the siege destroyed four hundred of these looms. They have since been replaced: and it is computed, that there are now as many as in 1789; but there are only 1800 in actual employment: workmen are wanting; and besides, the foreign consumption is diminished by one-half; and the use of boots, now generally worn, has lessened the home-trade. Industry, however, has opened a new channel: open-work tissues are now wrought in imitation of lace, and which, either plain or embroidered, are made into veils, shawls, and dresses, of which a considerable quantity is exported. This manufacture, as well as every other of the silken branch, claims from government the protection, care, and encouragement, of mulberry-trees, and that it would attend to the necessity of re-placing the great number of those precious trees that were torn up during the storms of the revolution. The French hosiery-manufacture did not begin to flourish till the ministry of Colbert, to whom our national industry is so highly in-

debted.



debted. Under his auspices, the mechanism of arts arrived to great perfection. Time and labour were economized, and French productions acquired a noted superiority over others.

Considerable numbers of the citizens are occupied in cultivating the surrounding high-lands, which are naturally sterile and unproductive. It is universally admitted, that the entire Department of the Rhone, which contains 135 square leagues, is so mountainous, that it does not produce corn sufficient to serve Lyons two months in the year. The price of bread, the staple and almost sole food of the poorer people, is comparatively high. Generally, the land is composed of a very light, gravelly, and sometimes calcareous, loam, which owes most of its fertility to the vapours which arise from the rivers, and deposit their humidity on the adjacent hills. In these mountains are found blue limestone, calcareous spar, schistose mica, lepidolite, gneiss, hornblende, quartz, common sand-stone, and granite. The labour is chiefly performed by the women, the men being too lazy or indolent to work in the fields; leaving it to the female sex to manure, till, and sow, their lands. To effect this, much labour is required; and these poor women are not unfrequently obliged to carry manure upon their backs, where the declivity is so upright that the ascent of asses is impracticable. Here the product in corn is certainly a very poor recompense; vines are somewhat more advantageous; not that the quantity of wine is either great or good, but that they are somewhat easier to cultivate on the face of such declivities. In general the wines are very inferior; are poor, thin, and vapid; the more strong and lively wines of Burgundy and Champagne sell very high. The fruits and vegetables, too are both high-priced, and of very indifferent quality; as much inferior as they are dearer than those of Paris. Of the actual state of agriculture, both here and throughout all France, it may be truly said, that it is all and every-where tilled, but no-where cultivated. The climate of Lyons is cold, notwithstanding its southern situation. On one side are chains of mountains from two to five thousand feet high, on the other the hoary-headed Alps, where refrigerating breezes incessantly spring. At noon, during the summer months, the heat is considerable; but the mornings and evenings are continually fresh, and not unfrequently chilling. In winter the frosts are often long and very intense. Agues and other nervous diseases are common; and the Convent of St. Anthony was formerly an hospital called *Domus contractoria à contractione nervorum*. Various are the statements of the actual population of this city; estimates of the number of its inhabitants have varied, according to the prejudice of the calculator, from 120 to 78,000, all of which were called official returns! The authors of the *Statistique Générale de France* have gratuitously given it 109,500 persons; but, as is usual with those writers, without entering into any details; a later account sets it down at 88,919. *Monthly Mag.* for May 1803, and Dec. 1804.

LYONS, a town of New York, in Ontario county: sixteen miles north of Genesee.

LYONS (Israel), an able mathematician and botanist, was the son of a Polish Jew, who settled at Cambridge in England, where he followed the business of a silversmith, and also taught the Hebrew language; and where the subject of this article was born in the year 1739. When very young he exhibited indications of extraordinary talents and ingenuity, and discovered a strong inclination for learning, particularly for the mathematics; on which account he was much patronized by Dr. Smith, master of Trinity-college. That gentleman offered to send him to school at his own expense; but young Lyons could only be persuaded to avail himself for a few days of that liberal proposal, saying, that, "he could learn more by himself in an hour than in a day with his master." About the year 1755 he began to study botany, to which he occasionally continued his attention till his death. In this science he made considerable progress, being able to re-

member not only the Linnæan names of almost all the English plants, but even the synonyma of the old botanists, which form a strange and barbarous farrago of great bulk. He had also prepared large materials for a *Flora Cantabrigiensis*, describing fully every part of each plant from the specimen, without being obliged to consult, or being liable to be misled by, former authors. In the year 1758, he acquired much celebrity by publishing *A Treatise on Fluxions*, which he dedicated to his early patron Dr. Smith. This was followed, in 1763, by his "*Fasciculus Plantarum circa Cantabrigiam nascentium, quæ post Raium observatæ fuere*," 8vo. Either in this year, or the preceding, on the invitation of Mr. now sir Joseph Banks, bart. and president of the Royal Society, whom he first instructed in botany, he was induced to read a course of lectures in that science at the university of Oxford. These lectures he delivered with great applause, to an audience of at least sixty pupils; but he could not be prevailed upon to make a long absence from Cambridge. For some time Mr. Lyons was employed as one of the calculators of the *Nautical Almanac*; for which service he received an annual salary of 100l. and he was frequently recompensed by other presents from the Board of Longitude, for his own inventions. He had also studied the English history, and could quote whole passages from the monkish writers verbatim. In the year 1773, he was appointed by the Board of Longitude to accompany captain Phipps, afterwards lord Mulgrave, during his voyage towards the north pole, in the capacity of astronomical observer; and he discharged that employment entirely to the satisfaction of his employers. Soon after his return from this expedition, he married and settled in London, where, in about two years, he died of the measles. At the time of his death, Mr. Lyons was engaged in preparing for the press a complete edition of all the works of the learned Dr. Halley; which would have proved a very desirable present to the scientific world. In the sixty-fifth volume of the *Phil. Trans.* for the year 1775, are inserted his *Calculations on Spherical Trigonometry* abridged; and after his death, his name appeared in the title page of *A Geographical Dictionary*, the astronomical parts of which were said to be "taken from the papers of the late Mr. Israel Lyons, of Cambridge, author of several valuable mathematical productions, and astronomer in lord Mulgrave's voyage to the northern hemisphere." We may add, that the astronomical and other mathematical calculations, printed in the account of that voyage, were made by our author. As to "*The Scholar's Instructor*, or Hebrew Grammar, by Israel Lyons;" and another treatise, entitled, "*Observations and Enquiries relating to various Parts of Scripture History*," 1761, they were the productions of our author's father. *Nichols's Anecdotes of Bouyer*.

LYONSIA, *f.* [from the subject of the preceding article.] In botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order contortæ, *Linn.* (apocineæ, *Juss. Brown.*) Generic essential characters—Corolla funnel-shaped; its mouth and tube without scales; limb in five deep, recurved, equilateral segments. Stamens prominent; filaments thread-shaped, inserted into the middle of the tube; antheræ arrow-shaped, cohering with the stigma by the middle, their hind lobes void of pollen. Germen of two cells; style one, thread-shaped, dilated at the top; stigma somewhat conical. Scales at the base of the germen combined. Capsule cylindrical, of two cells, its valves like follicles, with a parallel distinct partition, bearing the seeds on each side upon fixed receptacles.

*Lyonia straminea*, the only species, gathered by Mr. Brown at Port Jackson, and in Van Diemen's Land. A climbing shrub, with opposite leaves. Cymes terminal, three-forked. Flowers among the smallest of this tribe: their limbs bearded.

LYPERANTHUS, *f.* [from the Gr. *λυπη*, sadness, and *ανθος*, a flower; because of the very dark-red gloomy hue of the blossoms, which is unusual in this tribe.] In botany, a genus of the class gynandria, order monandria, natural



natural order orchidæ. The generic characters are—Calyx: perianth superior, ringent, of three leaves, the upper one vaulted, the rest flattish. Corolla: petals two, nearly equal, and similar to the flatter calyx-leaves. Nectary shorter, its edges ascending, hood-like, with a taper point, the disk glandular or papillary. Stamina: anther terminal, permanent, its cells close together; masses of pollen two in each cell, powdery. Pistillum: germen inferior; style columnar, linear. Pericarpium: capsule. Seeds: numerous.—*Essential Character.* Calyx ringent; its upper leaf vaulted. Lip shorter, hooded, glandular, with a taper point. Style linear. Anther vertical, permanent.

This is a genus of smooth Orchidæ, growing on the ground; bulbs naked, undivided, terminating the descending caudex, which throws out roots above them; stem bearing a single leaf close to the root, and two bractæ above, besides what accompany each flower; flowers racemose, very dark red, mostly reversed.

*Species.* 1. *Lyperanthus suaveolens*: leaf linear, elongated; petals ascending; disk of the nectary bearing rows of sessile glands; its margin naked. Found near Port Jackson, New South Wales.

2. *Lyperanthus ellipticus*: leaf lanceolate-elliptical; disk of the nectary papillary; its margin naked. Gathered by Mr. G. Caley in the same neighbourhood.

3. *Lyperanthus nigricans*: leaf ovate, somewhat heart-shaped; petals divided, lip fringed; its disk papillary. Found by Mr. Brown near Port Jackson, as well as in the southern part of New Holland. *Prodr. Nov. Holl.* 325.

LYP'IAT, (Upper and Lower), two hamlets in the parish of Stroud, Gloucestershire.

LYPTIN'GEN. See LEIBLINGEN, vol. xii. p. 453.

LYRA, in astronomy, a constellation in the northern hemisphere. The number of its stars, in Ptolemy's catalogue, is ten; in Tycho's eleven; in Hevelius's seventeen; and in the Britannic catalogue twenty-one.

LYRA (Nicholas de), a learned French monk and scripture-commentator, was a native of a small town in the diocese of Evreux in Normandy, from which he took his surname. He was descended from Jewish parents, who taught him the Hebrew language; but, becoming afterwards a convert to Christianity, he embraced the religious life in a monastery at Verneuil, in the year 1291. Having staid some time there, he was sent to Paris, where he applied with the greatest diligence and success to his studies, and was admitted to the degree of doctor. For several years he read lectures on the Holy Scriptures in the great convent of his order in that city, with a degree of learning and taste far superior to the prevailing spirit of his age. His merit raised him to the principal offices in his order; and secured him the regard of the most illustrious characters in France; so that queen Joan, countess of Burgundy, consort of Philip V. called the Long, appointed him one of the executors of her will. He died at Paris, in the year 1340. He was the author of "Postills," or a compendious exposition on the whole Bible, which he commenced in 1293, and finished in the year 1330. In this work he shows a greater acquaintance with the literal sense of Scripture than any preceding commentator had discovered; and has availed himself of his intimate knowledge of the Hebrew, to select the most valuable comments of the most learned rabbis. The first edition of this work was published at Rome, in 1472, in 7 vols. folio, and is now become rare; and it has since undergone various impressions at Basil, Lyons, Doway, Antwerp, and other places; of which the best is that of Antwerp, 1634, in 6 vols. folio. De Lyra was also the author of, 2. Moral Commentaries upon the Scriptures, of which those on the evangelists were published at Venice in 1516 and 1518. 3. A Disputation against the Jews; and other works. *Mist. Hist. Eccl. sæc.* xiv.

LYRATE, *adj.* in botany, a leaf cut into transverse segments, which are generally smaller and more remote downwards, like an ancient lyre. See the BOTANY Plate IV, fig. 50. vol. iii.

LYRE, *f.* [Fr. from *lyra*, Lat.] A harp; a musical instrument to which poetry is, by poetical writers, supposed to be sung.—He never touched his *lyre* in such a truly-chromatic manner as upon that occasion. *Arbutknot.*

My softest verse, my darling lyre,  
Upon Euphelia's toilet lay.

Prior.

The lyre was an instrument so dear to the Greeks, that they have by turns attributed its invention to Mercury, Apollo, Linus, Orpheus, and Amphion; making it the symbol of all excellence in poetry and music. The poets and historians of fabulous times, however, seem most to agree in ascribing the invention to Mercury. And among the accounts of the several writers of antiquity who have mentioned this circumstance, and confined the invention to the Egyptian Mercury, that of Apollodorus (Bibliotheca, lib. ii.) seems the most intelligible and probable. "The Nile," says this writer, "after having overflowed the whole country of Egypt, when it returned within its natural bounds, left on the shore a great number of dead animals of various kinds, and, among the rest, a tortoise, the flesh of which being dried and waisted by the sun, nothing was left within the shell but nerves and cartilages, and these, being braced and contracted by desiccation, were rendered sonorous; Mercury, in walking along the banks of the Nile, happening to strike his foot against the shell of this tortoise, was so pleased with the sound it produced, that it suggested to him the first idea of a lyre, which he afterwards constructed in the form of a tortoise, and strung it with the dried sinews of dead animals." Censorinus, however, (De Die Nat. cap. 22.) attributes to Apollo the first idea of producing sound from a string, which was suggested to him by the twang of his sister Diana's bow. *Ψαλλειν* is strictly to twang a string, and *Ψαλλωσ* the sound which the bow-string produces at the emission of the arrow. Euripides uses it in that sense:

τοῦτων χεῖρι  
Ψαλλεσι νεύρας.

Bacch. v. 782.

Father Montfaucon says it is very difficult to determine in what the lyre, cithara, chelys, psaltery, and harp, differed from each other; as he had examined the representations of six hundred lyres and citharas in ancient sculpture, all which he found without a neck, and the strings open as in the modern harp, played by the fingers. (Antiq. Expl. tom. iii. lib. 5. cap. 3.) But, though ancient and modern authors usually confound these instruments, yet a manifest distinction is made by Arist. Quintil. in the following passage, p. 101. After discussing the characters of wind-instruments, he says, "Among the stringed instruments, you will find the lyre of a character analogous to *masculine*, from the great depth or gravity, and the roughness of its tones; the sambuca of a *feminine* character, weak and delicate, and, from its great acuteness and the smallness of its strings, tending to dissolve and enervate. Of the intermediate instruments, the polypthongum partakes most of the feminine; but the cithara differs not much from the masculine character of the lyre." Here is a scale of stringed instruments; the lyre and sambuca at the extremes; the polypthongum and cithara between; the one next to the sambuca, the other next to the lyre. He afterwards just mentions that there were others between these. Now it is natural to infer, that, as he constantly attributes the manly character to gravity of tone, the cithara was probably the more acute instrument of the two; less loud and rough, and strung with smaller strings. Concerning what difference there might be in the form and structure of the instruments, he is wholly silent. The passage, however, is curious as far as it goes, and decisive. The cithara may, perhaps, have been as different from the lyre, as a single harp from one that is double; and it seems to be clearly pointed out by this multiplicity of names, that the Greeks had two principal species of stringed instruments; one, like our harp, of full compass, that rested on its base; the other more portable, and slung

over



over the shoulder, like our smaller harp or guitar, or like the ancient lyres represented in sculpture.

Tacitus, *Annal.* xvi. 4. among the rules of decorum observed by public performers, to which Nero, he says, strictly submitted, mentions, "That he was not to sit down when tired." It is remarkable that he calls these rules, *Cithara Leges*, "The Laws of the Cithara;" which seems to afford a pretty fair proof of its being of such a size and form as to admit of being played on *standing*. The belly of a theorbo, or arch-lute, is usually made in the shell-form, as if the idea of its origin had never been lost; and the etymology of the word *guitar* seems naturally deducible from *cithara*; it is supposed that the Roman C was hard, like the Greek K; and the Italian word *chitarra* is manifestly derived from *uagor*.

These passages in old authors are a kind of antique drawings, far more satisfactory than those of ancient sculpture; for we have seen the syrinx, which had a regular series of notes ascending or descending, represented with seven pipes, four of one length, and three of another, which of course would furnish no more than two different sounds. The cymbals too, which were to be struck against each other, are placed in the hands of some antique figures in such a manner, that it is impossible to bring them in contact with the necessary degree of force, without amputating, or at least violently bruising, the thumbs of the performer. And it is certain that artists continue to figure instruments in the most simple and convenient form for their designs, long after they had been enlarged, improved, and rendered more complicated. An instance of this in our own country will confirm the assertion. In the reign of George II. a marble statue was erected to Handel, in Vauxhall gardens. The musician is represented playing upon a lyre. Now, if this statue should be preserved from the ravages of time and accident 12 or 1400 years, the antiquaries will naturally conclude that the instrument upon which Handel acquired his reputation was the lyre; though we are at present certain that he never played on, or even saw, a lyre, except in wood or stone.

In one of the ancient paintings at Portici, there is a lyre with a pipe or flute for the cross bar, or bridge at the top. Whether this tube was used as a flute to accompany the lyre, or only a pitch-pipe, we know not; nor, in the course of our enquiries has any similar example of such a junction occurred elsewhere.

Brossard seems to have abridged the history and progress of the lyre chronologically in the most short and clear manner, which Grassineau has spun out to great length by jumping from one century to another, and crowding together all the wild and incoherent stories relative to the lyre, its inventors and performers, that he could find. All that the diligent and generally-accurate Brossard says on the subject is, that the lyre was a stringed instrument, upon which the whole musical system of the ancients has been built. It is pretended that Mercury first invented it by chance, and that it had then only three strings, which consisted of B C D; that Apollo added a fourth, Chorus a fifth, Hyagnis a sixth, and Terpander a seventh. It remained in this state till the time of Pythagoras; or, according to others, Lycaon added to it an eighth string, to render the extremities *consonant*. Timotheus afterwards added a ninth, tenth, and eleventh, string. Others after him increased the number to sixteen, that is, fifteen principals, and one added.

Mr. Barnes, in the prolegomena to his edition of Anacreon, has an enquiry into the antiquity and structure of the lyre; of which he makes Jubal the first inventor. For the several changes this instrument underwent, by the addition of new strings, he observes, that, according to Diodorus, it had originally only three, referring to the three seasons of the year, as the Greeks counted them, viz. spring, summer, and autumn; whence it was called *τρισχορδος*. Afterwards it had seven strings; as appears from Homer, Pindar, H6race, Virgil, &c. Festus Avienus gives the lyre of Orpheus nine strings. David mentions an instru-

ment with ten strings. Timotheus of Miletus added four to the old seven, which made eleven. Josephus in his *Jewish Antiquities*, makes mention of one with twelve strings; to which were afterwards added six others, which made eighteen in all. Anacreon himself says, p. 253, of Mr. Barnes's edition, *canto viginti totis chordis*. As for the modern lyre, or Welch harp, it is sufficiently known.

From the lyre, which all agree to be the first instrument of the stringed kind in Greece, there arose an infinite number of others, different in shape and number of strings; as the psalterium, trigon, sambucus, pectis, magadis, barbiton, testudo, (the two last used promiscuously, by Horace, with the lyre and cithara,) epigonium, simicium, and pandura; which were all struck with the hand, or a plectrum. The different claimants among the Greeks to the same musical discoveries, only prove that music was cultivated in different countries, and that the inhabitants of each country invented and improved their own instruments, some of which happening to resemble those of other parts of Greece, rendered it difficult for historians to avoid attributing the same invention to different persons. Thus the single flute was given to Minerva and to Marsyas; the syrinx or fistula, to Pan and to Cybele; and the lyre or cithara, to Mercury, Apollo, Amphion, Linus, and Orpheus. Indeed, the mere addition of a string or two to an instrument without a neck, was so obvious and easy, that it is scarcely possible not to conceive many people to have done it at the same time. With respect to the form of the ancient lyre, as little agreement is to be found among authors as about the number of strings. Some representations of that instrument in the hands of ancient statues, bas-reliefs, &c. we shall give under the article *MUSIC*, to which the reader is referred for further particulars.

The Abyssinian testudo, or lyre in use at present in the province of Tigr6, says Mr. Bruce, "has sometimes five, sometimes six, but most frequently seven, strings, made of the thongs of raw sheep or goat skins, cut extremely fine, and twisted; they rot soon, are very subject to break in dry weather, and have scarcely any sound in wet. From the idea, however, of this instrument being to accompany and sustain a voice, one would think that it was better mounted formerly. The Abyssinians have a tradition, that the sistrum, lyre, and tambourine, were brought from Egypt into Ethiopia, by Thot, in the very first ages of the world. The flute, kettle-drum, and trumpet, they say, were brought from Palestine, with Menelek, son of their queen of Saba by Solomon, who was their first Jewish king. The lyre in Amharic is called *beg*, the sheep; in Ethiopic it is called *mesinko*; the verb *sinko* signifies to strike strings with the fingers; no plectrum is ever used in Abyssinia; so that *mesinko*, being literally interpreted, will signify the 'stringed instrument played upon with the fingers.' The sides which constitute the frame of the lyre, were anciently composed of the horns of an animal of the goat kind, called *agazen*, about the size of a small cow, and common in the province of Tigr6. I have seen several of these instruments very elegantly made of such horns, which nature seems to have shaped on purpose. Some of the horns of an African species of this animal may be seen in M. Buffon's history of the king of France's cabinet. They are bent, and less regular than the Abyssinian; but after fire-arms became common in the province of Tigr6, and the woods were cut down, this animal being more scarce, the lyre has been made of a light red wood; however, it is always cut into a spiral twisted form, in imitation of the ancient materials of which the lyre was composed. The kingdom of Tigr6, which is the largest and most populous province of Abyssinia, and was during many ages the seat of the court, was the first which received letters, and civil religious government; it extended once to the Red Sea; various reasons and revolutions have obliged the inhabitants to resign their sea-coast to different barbarous nations, Pagan and Mahometan; while they were possessed of it, they say that the Red Sea furnished them with tortoise-shells, of which they made the bellies of their lyres, as the Egyptians



tians did formerly, according to Apollodorus and Lucian; but, having now lost that resource, they have adopted in its place a particular species of gourd, or pumpkin, very hard and thin in the bark, still imitating with the knife the squares, compartments, and figure, of the shell of the tortoise. This lyre is generally from three feet to three feet six inches high; that is, from a line drawn through the point of the horns to the lower part of the base of the sounding-board. It is exceedingly light, and easy of carriage, as an instrument should naturally be in so rugged and mountainous a country. When we consider the parts which compose this lyre, we cannot deny it the earliest antiquity. Man in his first state was a hunter and a fisher, and the oldest instrument was that which partakes most of that state. The lyre, composed of two principal pieces, owes the one to the horns of an animal, the other to the shell of a fish. It is probable, that the lyre continued with the Ethiopians in this rude state as long as they confined themselves to their rainy, steep, and rugged, mountains; and afterwards, when many of them descended along the Nile into Egypt, its portability would recommend it in the extreme heats and weariness of their way. Upon their arrival in Egypt, they took up their habitation in caves, in the sides of mountains, which are inhabited to this day. Even in these circumstances, an instrument larger than the lyre must have been inconvenient and liable to accidents in those caverns; but, when these people increased in numbers and courage, they ventured down into the plain, and built Thebes. Being now at their ease, and, in a fine climate, all nature smiling around them, music and other arts were cultivated and refined, and the imperfect lyre was extended into an instrument of double its compass and volume. The size of the harp could be now no longer an objection; the Nile carried the inhabitants every-where easily, and without effort; and we may naturally suppose, in the fine evenings of that country, that the Nile was the favourite scene upon which this instrument was practised; at least the sphinx and lotus upon its head, seem to hint that it was someway connected with the overflowings of that river."

The Indian lyre, called the *vina* or *been*, is a fretted instrument of the guitar kind. The finger-board is  $21\frac{3}{4}$ ths inches long. A little beyond each end of the finger-board are two large gourds, and beyond these are the pegs and tail-piece which hold the wires. The whole length of the instrument is three feet seven inches. The first gourd is fixed at ten inches from the top, and the second at about two feet  $11\frac{1}{2}$ . The gourds are very large, about fourteen inches diameter, and have a round piece cut out of the bottom, about five inches diameter. The finger-board is about two inches wide. The wires are seven in number; and consist of two steel ones, very close together, in the right side; four brass ones on the finger-board; and one brass one on the left side. The great singularity of this instrument is the height of the frets; that nearest the nut is one inch  $\frac{3}{8}$ , and that at the other extremity about  $\frac{3}{8}$ ths of an inch, and the decrease is pretty gradual. By this means the finger never touches the finger-board itself. The frets are fixed on with wax by the performer himself, which he does entirely by ear; but any little difference is easily corrected by the pressure of the finger. Indeed the performers are fond, on any note that is at all long, of pressing the strings very hard, and letting it return immediately to its natural tension, which produces a sound something like the close shake on the violin; but not with so agreeable an effect; for it appears sometimes to alter the sound half a tone. The frets are nineteen in number. The instrument is held over the left shoulder, the upper gourd resting on that shoulder, and the lower one on the right knee. The frets are stopped with the left-hand; the first and second fingers are principally used; the little finger is sometimes used, the third finger seldom, the hand shifting up and down the finger-board with great rapidity. The fingers of the right hand are used to strike the strings of this hand; the third finger is never

used. The two first fingers strike the wires on the finger-board, and the little finger strikes the two wires. The two first fingers of this hand are defended by a piece of wire put on the tops of them in the manner of a thimble; when the performer plays strong, this causes a very jarring disagreeable sound; whereas, when he plays softly, the tone of the instrument is remarkably pleasing. The style of music on this instrument is in general that of great execution. "I could hardly ever discover any regular air or subject. The music seems to consist of a number of detached passages, some very regular in their ascent and descent; and those that are played softly, are most of them both uncommon and pleasing. The open wires are struck, from time to time, in a manner that, I think, prepares the ear for a change of modulation, to which the uncommonly full and fine tones of these notes greatly contribute; but the ear is, I think, always disappointed; and, if there is ever any transition from the principal key, I am inclined to think it is very short. Were there any other circumstances respecting the Indian music, which led to suppose that it has, at some period, been much superior to the present practice, the style, scale, and antiquity, of this instrument would, I think, greatly confirm the supposition." *Asiatic Researches*, vol. i.

LYRIA, a town of Spain, in Valencia: eighteen miles north-west of Valencia.

LYRIC, *f.* A poet who writes songs to the harp.—The greatest conqueror in this nation, after the manner of the old Grecian lyrics, did not only compose the words of his divine odes, but set them to music himself. *Addison*.

LYRIC, or LYRICAL, *adj.* Pertaining to a harp, or to odes or poetry sung to a harp; singing to a harp.—Somewhat of the purity of English, somewhat of more equal thoughts, somewhat of sweetness in the numbers; in one word, somewhat of a finer turn, and more lyrical verse, is yet wanting. *Dryden*.

The lute neglected, and the lyric muse,  
Love taught my tears in sadder notes to flow,  
And tun'd my heart to elegies of woe.

*Pope.*

LYRIC POETRY, with the ancients, implied verses to be sung to the accompaniment of the lyre. In the supplement to the first edition of the folio Encyclopédie, there is a very long article on the subject, which, written long before the firm adherents to Lulli and Rameau were extinct, is of great length, and seems to flow from a writer who had read, meditated, and felt, with enthusiasm, all the inspirations of the lyric bards of Greece. He has taken a wide range in treating the subject, and considered the union of poetry and music, not only with more enlarged views than any other modern, but perhaps than the ancients themselves. He begins in the following manner: "The lyric poetry of the Grecians was not only sung, but composed to the chords of the lyre. This was at first the characteristic distinction of all that was called lyric poetry by the Romans, and their descendants and imitators in later times. The poet was a musician, he called upon the god of verse, and animated himself with a prelude. He fixed upon the time, the movement, and the musical period; the melody gave birth to the verse; and thence was derived the unity of rhythm, character, and expression, between the music and the poem that was sung. Thus the poetry became naturally subservient to number and cadence; and thus each lyric poet invented not only the proper kind of verse, but also the strophe analogous to the melody which he himself had created, and to which he composed it. In this respect, the lyric poem or ode with the Latins and with modern nations, has been nothing more than a frivolous imitation of the lyric poem of the Greeks: they say, *I sing*, but never do sing; they speak of the chords of the lyre, but have never seen a lyre. No poet, since Horace inclusively, appears to have modelled his odes upon a melody. Horace, adopting by turns the different formulæ of the Greek poets, seems so much to have forgotten that an ode ought to be sung, that he has

often



often suspended the sense at the end of the strophe, where the air ought to repose, to the beginning of the next stanza."

This species of poetry was originally employed in celebrating the praises of gods and heroes; though it was afterwards introduced into feasts and public diversions; it is a mistake to imagine Anacreon, as the Greeks do, the author of it; since it appears from Scripture to have been in use above a thousand years before that poet. Mr. Barne shows how unjust it is to exclude heroic subjects and actions from this sort of verse, lyric poetry being capable of all the elevation and sublimity such subjects require; which he confirms by the examples of Alcæus, Sappho, Anacreon, and Horace. The characteristic of lyric poetry, which distinguishes it from all others, is *dignity and sweetness*. As *gravity* rules in heroic verse; *simplicity*, in pastoral; *tenderness and softness*, in elegy; *sharpness and poignancy*, in satire; *mirth*, in comedy; the *pathetic*, in tragedy; and the *point*, in epigram; so in the lyric, the poet applies himself wholly to soothe the minds of men, by the sweetness and variety of the verse, and the delicacy and elevation of the words and thoughts; the agreeableness of the numbers, and the description of things most pleasing in their own nature.

**LYRICISM**, *f.* A lyric composition.—Which indeed to do they must have our *lyricisms* at their finger-ends. *Gray's Letters*.

**LYRIST**, *f.* A musician who plays upon the harp:

His tender theme the charming *lyrist* chose  
Minerva's anger and the direful woes  
Which voyaging from Troy the victors bore. *Pope*.

**LYRNES'SUS**, in ancient geography, a city of Cilicia, the native country of Briseis, who is called from thence *Lyrnessis*. It was taken and plundered by Achilles and the Greeks, at the time of the Trojan war, and the booty divided among the conquerors. *Homer*.

**LYRO'DI**, *f.* Among the ancients, a kind of musicians who played on the lyre, and sung at the same time. This appellation was also given to such as made it their employment to sing lyric poems composed by others.

**LYS**, or **LIS**, a river of France, which rises near Lyburg, in the department of the Straits of Calais, passes by Aire, St. Venant, Armentieres, Comines, &c. and runs into the Scheldt at Ghent. It gives name to one of the departments.

**LYS** (Department of), one of the departments of France, (if now it may be called so,) formed out of what was called Austrian Flanders; bounded on the north by the German Sea and the department of the Scheldt, on the east by the department of the Scheldt, on the south by the department of Jemappe, and on the west by the department of Jemappe and the sea. Besides Bruges, the capital, the chief towns are Furnes, Ypres, and Courtray.

**LYS** (St.), a town of France, in the department of the Upper Garonne, and chief place of a canton, in the district of Muret: seven miles west of Muret. The place contains 1140, and the canton 5249, inhabitants.

**LYSANDER**, a township of North America, in Onondago county, New York, incorporated in 1794, and comprehending the military towns of Hannibal and Cicero: sixteen miles south-east of Lake Ontario.

**LYSANDER**, an eminent Spartan commander, was the son of Aristoclitus, a descendant of the Heraclidæ, but not of the royal race. He was educated in the severity of the Spartan discipline, by which he was rendered hardy and vigorous in body; and nature had given him an enterprising and ambitious spirit, with talents fitted for command. He was modest in his demeanour, supple and insinuating, ever intent upon his own advancement, and restrained by no sentiments of honour or justice. He was at little pains to conceal his principles; for it is recorded as a saying of his, that "children were to be cheated by toys, and men by oaths." His abilities, however, caused him to rise in the Spartan state, which was now engaged

in the Peloponnesian war against the Athenians, who, notwithstanding many disasters, were still superior at sea. Lyfander was made the naval commander of the Lacedæmonians, B. C. 406; and by his exertions he brought that war to a close by the destruction of Athens, B. C. 404. See the article **GREECE**, vol. viii. p. 890-903. His influence greatly contributed to the abolition of the democratical government in many of the Greek towns of Asia, and the substitution of the aristocratical; in effecting which he scrupled no measures of treacherous policy, as it was a maxim with him, that, "where the lion's skin falls short, it should be lengthened with the fox's." At Miletus, after he had prevented the heads of the popular party from leaving the city by his assurances of safety, he suffered them all to be put to death by their adversaries; and similar tragedies were acted in various other places. As a naval commander he displayed great skill and activity. He pillaged Ægina and Salamis, took Lampacus, and eluded the Athenian fleet which chased him, till they came in presence of each other at Ægos-Potamos in the Thracian Chersonesus. The battle that ensued will always be memorable in history. Lyfander was slain at the siege of Halicartus about B. C. 395. The poverty in which he died was a proof that the hoarding of money was not his passion; yet no man did more than he towards corrupting his countrymen by the love of it. On the whole, though he may rank among the great men of Greece, he does not merit a place among the truly illustrious. *Plutarch*.

**LYSAN'DRIA**, *f.* in antiquity, a Samian festival, celebrated with sacrifices and games in honour of the subject of the preceding article. It was anciently called *heræa*, which name was abolished by a decree of the Samians.

**LYSA'NIAS**, or **LYS'IAS**, [Gr. one that drives away sorrow.] Tetrarch of Abilene; (Luke iii. 1.) This Lyfanius was probably the son or grandson of another Lyfanius, known in history, (Dio, lib. xlix.) and put to death by Mark Antony, who gave part of his kingdom to Cleopatra. Lyfanius, his son or grandson, possessed Abilene when John the Baptist began his mission; for St. Luke places him among the princes who governed Judea, or the country round about it. But either he must have made no great figure in the world, or his government must have been of small extent, since profane historians make no mention of him. Abilene was a small province situated between Libanus and Antilibanus. The capital whereof was Abila. See Joseph. Antiq. lib. xv. cap. 4.

**LYSA'NO**, a town of Prussia, in the palatinate of Culm: fifteen miles south of Culm.

**LY'SBURG**, a town of France, in the department of the Straits of Calais, near the source of the Lys: ten miles south-south-west of Aire.

**LYSE**, a town of Norway: eight miles south-south-west of Bergen.

**LY'SEKIL**, a seaport town of Sweden, in West Gothland: sixteen miles west of Uddevalla.

**LY'SER**, **LY'ZER**, or **LIE'SER**. See **LISER**, vol. xii. p. 786.

**LY'SERUS** (Polycarp), a learned German Lutheran divine, was the son of the minister and superintendent at Wipenden, in the duchy of Wirtemberg, where he was born in the year 1552. When he was but two years old his father died; and his mother afterwards married the famous Luke Ofauder, who took the greatest care of his education. When he was fourteen years of age, he had made such progress in elementary learning under different able masters, that he was judged deserving of being sent for academical education to the university of Tubingen, at the expense of the prince of Wirtemberg. In this seminary he applied very diligently to his studies; and, in the year 1570, was admitted to the degree M. A. with distinguished reputation. In 1573, he was received into the office of the ministry, and appointed pastor of the church of Gellersdorff, in the Austrian territory. Here he was much admired as a preacher; and frequently received applications to preach on particular occasions at Vienna, and



in other parts of Austria. In the year 1576 he went to Tübingen, and took his degree of doctor of divinity; and in the following year, Augustus elector of Saxony was induced by the fame of his pulpit-talents to appoint him a minister of the church of Wittenberg. He had not been long settled in this situation, before he was created a professor of divinity in that university; and was afterwards nominated superintendent of the district, and assessor of the consistory. In the year 1594, he was appointed minister of the court at Dresden. Here he spent the remainder of his life, occupied not only in his literary labours, and his ministerial duties, but in the education of the young princes. He died in 1601, when in the forty-ninth year of his age. He was a very voluminous writer, particularly as a commentator on the Scriptures. He wrote likewise several controversial treatises.

LYSERUS (John), a Lutheran divine of the same family with the preceding, and a native of Saxony. He was a singular character, who, being possessed of the notion that polygamy was a doctrine sanctioned both by reason and Scripture, spent his fortune and his life in endeavours to maintain and propagate it. And yet he was a little, deformed, thin, pale, absent, timid, creature, who, says Bayle, would have found one wife too much for him. Intent on establishing his favourite opinion, and on proving that polygamy is not only permitted but commanded in certain circumstances, he relinquished a considerable employment in his native country, and entered into the suite of a Swedish count, whom he had made a convert to his doctrine. After the death of that patron, he appears to have been one of the chaplains to the army of Christian V. king of Denmark; which post he lost, and was banished from all the dominions of his Danish majesty, on its being discovered that he was the author of the treatise mentioned below. With incredible pains he travelled through Germany, Denmark, Sweden, Holland, England, Italy, and France, examining the libraries for materials to confirm his system, and publishing various treatises in defence of it, under feigned names, but without having the gratification of finding that he gained many converts to his doctrine. At length, reduced to great distress, and disappointed in the hope of bettering his fortune at the court of Versailles by his extraordinary skill in the game of chess, he fell sick and died at a house between that place and Paris, in the year 1684. The most considerable of his publications, and which for a time excited no little attention, was entitled, "Polygamia Triumphatrix; id est, Discursus Politicus de Polygamia; auctore Theophilo Alithæo; cum notis Athanasii Vincentii;" published at Amsterdam in 1682, 4to. This treatise was answered by Brunsmannus, a Danish minister, in a book entitled "Monogamia Vixtrix," 1689, 8vo. In our own time, we have seen a grave divine of the church of England enter the lists in defence of the same cause with Lyserus; but the English champion has gained no greater honour than the German. *Gen. Biog.*

LYSIA, in ancient geography, a town of Asia, in Syria, seated on the river Marlyas, west of the river Orontes, and north-west of the town of Apamea.—A town of Asia Minor, in Caria, placed by Ptolemy in Phrygia Major.—A town of the Peloponnesus, in Arcadia, called also *Lusias*. See LYCIA, p. 810.

LYSIAR'CHA, an ancient kind of magistrate, being the pontiff of Lycia, or superintendent of the sacred games of that province. Strabo observes, that the Lysiar'cha was created in a council consisting of the deputies of twenty-three cities; that is, of all the cities in the province; some of which cities had three voices, others two, and others but one. Cardinal Norris says, that the Lysiar'cha presided in matters of religion; in effect, the Lysiar'cha was nearly the same with the *Asar'cha* and *Syriar'cha*; who, though they were all the heads of the councils, or states of those provinces, yet were they established principally to take care of the games and feasts celebrated in honour of the gods, whose priests they were inaugurated,

at the same time that they were created *Lysiar'cha*, *Syriar'cha*, or *Asar'cha*.

LYSIANTHUS, *f.* in botany. See LISIANTHUS, vol. xii. p. 786.

LYS'IAS, an eminent Greek orator, born at Syracuse about the year 459 B. C. He accompanied his father to Athens while he was very young, and was educated with great care in that city. In process of time he became himself a teacher of rhetoric, and composed orations for others, but does not appear to have been a pleader. He distinguished himself by the eloquence and purity of his orations, of which it is said by Plutarch, he wrote no less than 425, though the number may with more probability be reduced to 230; and of these only 34 remain, which are to be found in the collections of the Greek orators. He died in the 81st year of his age, and in the 378th year B. C. Lysias attained great reputation in his time, which his works afterwards supported; and he is mentioned with applause by Cicero and Quintilian. He seems to have well understood the management of an argument, and to have employed his subtilty with skill. Having once given a pleading to his adversary to read, and desired his opinion of it, "When I perused it for the first time (said the man), I thought it excellent—at the second reading, middling—at the third, bad." "Then, (said Lysias,) it was good; for it was to be heard but once." This orator lived at a somewhat earlier period than Isocrates; and exhibits a model of that manner which the ancients call the "tenuis vel subtilis." He has none of the pomp of Isocrates. He is every where pure and attic in the highest degree; simple and unaffected; but wants force, and is sometimes frigid in his compositions. In the judicious comparison which Dionysius of Halicarnassus makes of the merits of Lysias and Isocrates, he ascribes to Lysias, as the distinguishing character of his manner, a certain grace or elegance arising from simplicity: Προφοικε γαρ η Λυσια λεξις, εχειν το χαριεν η δ'Ισοκράτης; βλεπεται: i. e. The style of Lysias has gracefulness for its nature; that of Isocrates seems to have it. In the art of narration, as distinct, probable, and persuasive, he holds Lysias to be superior to all orators; at the same time he admits, that his composition is more adapted to private litigation than to great subjects. He convinces, but he does not elevate nor animate. The magnificence and splendour of Isocrates are more suited to great occasions. He is more agreeable than Lysias; and in dignity of sentiment far excels him. The best editions of Lysias's Orations is that by Taylor, Lond. 1739, 4to. and Camb. 1740, 8vo. *Blair's Lect.* vol. ii.

LYSIAS, a friend and relation of king Antiochus Epiphanes. That prince, going beyond the Euphrates to collect money, left the regency of Syria to Lysias, with orders to make war upon the Jews, and utterly destroy them; Lysias therefore sent Ptolemy the son of Dorimenes, Nicanor, and Georgias, into Judea with a powerful army. But, Judas Maccabæus having routed it, he came the year following with greater forces; and was again overcome, his army put to flight, and himself obliged to retire to Antioch. The same year Antiochus Epiphanes dying beyond the Euphrates, (see the article JEW, vol. x. p. 716.) Lysias took upon himself the government of the kingdom during the minority of young Antiochus, though the late king had left the regency to Philip, one of his friends who was with him at the time of his death. (1 Macc. vi. 14, 15, &c.) Notwithstanding the king's last will, Lysias kept the government of Syria; continued by his generals the war against the Jews; and came a second time into the land of Judah, as far as Bethsura; but the Jews defeated him, and obliged him to fly. He sent proposals of accommodation to Judas Maccabæus; and peace was concluded, very advantageous to the Jews, A. M. 3411, ante A. D. 163. This peace was of short duration. Lysias returned towards the close of the year, and brought the young king Eupator with him, with the best of his troops. They laid siege to Bethsura, and afterwards to Jerusalem.

The



The city, or rather the temple wherein Judas was shut up, was very much straitened; for, as this was the seventh year, there was a great want of provision. It happened, however, that, just at this time, Philip, who had been left regent of the kingdom by Epiphanes, came into Syria to assume the government. Lysias, upon receiving this intelligence, made propositions of peace to the Jews, which were accepted. Eupator and Lysias entered Jerusalem, honoured the temple, and promised the Jews that they should be permitted to live according to their own laws. But they falsified their word by demolishing the wall which secured the temple from being commanded by the citadel, which was in possession of the Syrians. They afterwards retired in haste to Antioch, where Philip had fortified himself; but they attacked him, took the city, and killed him. The next year Demetrius, son of Seleucus king of Syria, to whom the kingdom of right belonged, being returned from Rome, (where he had remained an hostage ever since the death of the king his father,) came into Syria, and was received at Tripolis, a city of Phœnicia; having collected some troops, he marched direct to Antioch, entered the city, and seized young Eupator and Lysias, and killed them. Such was the end of Lysias, who had governed the kingdom of Syria about five years.

LYSIMACHIA, *f.* [a very ancient generic name, and so called, according to Pliny and Ambrosinus, from *Lysimachus*, a favourite general of Alexander the Great, who was afterwards king of Thrace. The English name of this plant, *Loofstrife*, is evidently taken from *λυσι*: *παχης*, a dissolution of strife, or a peacemaker; but how this title could apply to the king on whom it was bestowed, and who appears to have been of a cruel and ferocious temper, we are at a loss to imagine, unless it were like the ludicrous derivation of *lucus*, a grove, *a non lucendo*, from its darkness.] In botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of rotaceæ, (*lysimachia*, *Juss.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium five-parted, acute, erect, permanent. Corolla: one-petalled, wheel-shaped; tube none; border five-parted, flat; divisions ovate-oblong. Stamina: filaments five, awl-shaped, opposite to the divisions of the corolla; antheræ acuminate. Pistillum: germ roundish; style filiform, the length of the stamens; stigma obtuse. Pericarpium: capsule globular, mucronate, one-celled, ten-valved (five-valved, *Gartner.*) Seeds: very many, angular; receptacle globular, very large, dotted.—*Essential Character.* Corolla wheel-shaped; capsule globular, mucronate, ten-valved, (five-valved; receptacle free; seeds with a ventral navel opposite to the embryo, *Gartner.*)

*Species.* I. With many-flowered peduncles. 1. *Lysimachia vulgaris*, or common loofstrife: panicled; racemes terminating. Root perennial, creeping. Stem three feet or more in height: when the leaves grow in pairs, obtusely four-cornered; when three together, grooved or angular, angles obtuse: the upper part of the stalk slightly hairy, the lower smooth, branched, and a little thickened at the joints. Flowers in terminating axillary racemes, all together forming a panicle. Peduncles somewhat viscid, thickened at top; corolla yellow. Though the natural number of divisions in this and the calyx be five, yet sometimes they are six. Filaments unequal, shorter than the corolla, viscid, broad, united at the base into a cylinder inclosing the germ. Antheræ incumbent, sub-fagittate. Style elongated as the flowers go off. Seeds numerous, very minute. Scopoli remarks, that the corolla has glands on very short pedicels scattered over it; that the filaments are also glandular, except the tips; that one stamen is longer than the rest, and the contrary; that the antheræ are blunt, and have a red septum; that the germ is glandular, the style thinner at the base, and the stigma not thicker than the style. Native of most parts of Europe, on the banks of streams, and in marshy meadows; flowering from the end of June to September. Miller says it has the English name *loofstrife*, from the quality ascribed to it by the ancients of quieting oxen

when put upon their yokes; so *Lysimachia*, *επω του λυειν την μαχην*, from dissolving strife; it is also called *willow-herb*, from the shape of the leaves; in German it is *gelbe weiderich*, *gemeine lysimachie*, and *esswurzel*; in Dutch, *gemeene weiderick*, *grootte geele weiderick*; in Danish, *fredslor*, *bastart dueurt*, &c. in French, *lysimaque vulgaire*, *corneille*, *chasse-bosse*, and *perce-bosse*.

2. *Lysimachia ephemera*, or willow-leaved loofstrife: racemes terminating; petals obovate, spreading; leaves linear-lanceolate, sessile. Root perennial. Stems several, upright, more than three feet high. Leaves narrow, smooth; and at the base of these come out short side-branches, with smaller leaves of the same shape. The flowers are produced in a long close upright spike, at the top of the stalk; corolla white; stamens longer than the corolla. It is very distinct from the fourth sort by its size, five-valved capsules, and white flowers. D'Affo, taking it to be different from *L. ephemera*, named it *L. Otani*, from Francis Otano, who first detected it in Arragon. The leaves however of our plant are dotted. Native of Spain. Cultivated in 1731, by Mr. Miller. It flowers from July to September.

3. *Lysimachia stricta*, or upright loofstrife: racemes terminating; petals lanceolate, spreading; leaves lanceolate, sessile. Stem erect, four-cornered, smooth. Leaves quite entire, acute, smooth, dotted. Divisions of the calyx lanceolate, smooth, dotted with red; petals three times as long as the calyx, yellow with red stripes and dots, and two dark-red spots; stamens shorter than the corolla. Native of North America, in swampy ground. Introduced in 1781, by Mr. William Curtis, from Mr. Robert Squibb, then at New York. It flowers in July and August. After flowering, it throws out bulbs from the axils, which, falling off in October, produce young plants the ensuing spring.

4. *Lysimachia dubia*, or purple-flowered loofstrife: racemes terminating, petals converging, stamens shorter than the corolla, leaves lanceolate, petioled. This is a plant too tender for the open air of this country. It agrees with the second in habit, structure, and glaucous colour, but the leaves are not dotted. The petals are acuminate, a little longer than the calyx, converging, and deep red; the stamens longer than the corolla, with brown antheræ; and the flowers sessile in a spike. They are however very nearly allied. Native of the Levant. Cultivated in 1759 by Mr. Miller. It flowers in July and August.

5. *Lysimachia thyrsiflora*, or tufted loofstrife: racemes lateral, peduncled. Root perennial, creeping and spreading in the mud, bearded with long fibres. Stems in tufts, porous, jointed, round, smooth, upright, hardly a foot high in general, but sometimes near a foot and a half; not branched, except that the flowers come out on lateral thyrses from the axils, towards the top; which Linnæus mentions as a singular circumstance in an upright plant. Leaves linear-lanceolate, marked with many black dots, sessile or half-embracing the stem, slightly pubescent beneath, acute, quite entire, about three inches long, and more than half an inch broad towards the base, many together at the top of the stem. Flowers in opposite axillary cylindrical thyrses or racemes, on peduncles an inch in length; corolla small, yellow; stamens much longer than the corolla; the number of these, and of segments both in the calyx and corolla, varies from five to eight. Native of many parts of Europe, in bogs, marshes, ponds, ditches, and banks of rivers. In England not common; as near King's Langley, in Hertfordshire; and in Anglesea. In Ireland, along the banks of the river Ballynahinch, above the bridge; found by Mr. John Templeton, of Orange Grove, near Belfast. Mr. Dodsworth and others found it in Yorkshire; but it seems now to be lost there.

II. With one-flowered peduncles. 6. *Lysimachia quadrifolia*, or four-leaved loofstrife: leaves in fours; peduncles in fours, one-flowered. Leaves ovate, acute. Flowers yellow. Native of Virginia.

7. *Lysimachia punctata*, or dotted loofstrife: leaves in fours,







LYSIMACHIA AND LYTTA



1. Wood Loosestrife or yellow Pimpernel. — 2. The Blister Insect.  
3 to 6. other species of Lytta.



fours, subsessile; peduncles in whorls, one-flowered. Stems from a foot and a half to three feet in height, angular, upright, the size of a quill, covered with a soft hoary down, leafy, seldom branched. Flowers small; corolla yellow. Native of Holland, among reeds; Austria, Silesia, Piedmont, Siberia.

8. *Lysimachia ciliata*, or ciliated loofestribe: petioles ciliated, flowers drooping. Stalks many, erect, about two feet high. Leaves oblong, oblique, smooth, veined on their under side, and ending in acute points. Flowers like those of the common sort, but smaller, and hang down. It was first brought from Canada; and is also a native of Virginia. In the Syst. Veget. it is set down as a variety of *L. quadrifolia*; and they are probably the same plant.

9. *Lysimachia linum-stellatum*, or small loofestribe: calyxes exceeding the corolla; stem upright, very much branched. This is a little annual plant, about two inches, or seldom three inches, high, from a slender whitish hair-like root. Leaves short, ending in a very fine point. Flowers small, pale green or herbaceous, stellate. Native of France and Italy; flowering in the spring. Introduced here in 1776, by Monf. Thouin. It flowers in June.

10. *Lysimachia nemorum*, wood loofestribe, or yellow pimpernel: leaves ovate, acute; flowers solitary; stem procumbent. Root perennial, with whitish fibres. Stems several, roundish, grooved on each side alternately, smooth, red, rooting from the lower joints. Leaves glossy on each side, entire, but somewhat waved, yellowish green, dotted with black underneath, the veins a little prominent; eight lines long, six or seven lines wide; petioles short, broadish, grooved above. Peduncles axillary, solitary or in pairs, round, one-flowered, slender, longer than the leaves. Divisions of the calyx awl-shaped, very slender. Corolla yellow, much smaller than the leaves, (five lines in diameter); at bottom more intensely yellow and shining; in the mouth small yellow glands between the filaments, and little pedicelled glands on the edge of the corolla. Filaments smooth, upright, somewhat thicker in the middle. Antheræ tawny, oblong, bent a little downwards. Germ smooth; style somewhat thicker at top. Seeds round and flat. See the annexed Plate, fig 1. When the flowers are expanded, they somewhat resemble in shape those of *Anagallis arvensis*, or common red pimpernel; hence the older botanists considered this as an *Anagallis*. It differs from the next species, to which it bears no small affinity in its general habit, in having the leaves more pointed, the flowers smaller, less bell-shaped, and on much longer peduncles, and the stalks generally redder. Native of many parts of Europe, in moist woods, flowering from May to July; or, according to Mr. Curtis, from June to September. Grows in Charlton-wood; Hanging-wood, near Woolwich; Shooter's-hill wood; between Dartford-road and Leeson-heath; between Mutwell-hill and Highgate; Cane-wood; Scarlet Spring, near Harefield, Herts; Stow and Stokenchurch woods, in Oxfordshire; Pynchley, in Northamptonshire; and near Nottingham.

11. *Lysimachia nummularia*, creeping loofestribe, or moneywort: leaves subcordate, flowers solitary, stem creeping. Root perennial, with simple fibres, striking downwards. Stems numerous, simple, trailing, putting out roots towards the top, and sometimes a branch; a foot or more in length, smooth, jointed, compressed, with four-membranaceous edges. The whole plant is smooth. The peduncles are not always equal to the leaves, but sometimes longer, sometimes shorter. Haller remarks, that the calyx distinguishes this from all the other sorts; and that the filaments coalesce into a hairy circle. Scopoli says, the peduncles are five-angled; and that one or two of the filaments are longer than the style. Pollich remarks, that the peduncles have four angles, and are shorter than the leaves; but often much longer; that the corolla is half an inch in diameter, and that it frequently has small tawny spots on it. Mr. Curtis observes, that this plant, like many others that increase much by the root or stem whilst

they are in flower, seldom produces ripe seeds. Ray however describes the capsule to be round, very small, and filled with seeds so minute as to be scarcely visible. Native of most parts of Europe, in moist meadows, on the sides of ditches, and under hedges in moist situations; flowering in June and July. It is called *nummularia*, says Gerard, of the form of money, whereunto the leaves are like; in English *moneywort*, *herb-twopence*, and *twopenny-grass*. Other languages have borrowed the same circumstances: in German it is *pfennighkraut*, *goldkraut*, *grösses gelbes munzkraut*, &c. in Dutch, *penningkruid*; in Danish, *pengekraud*, *krybende pengeurt*; in Swedish, *penningört*; in French, *lismaque monnoyeré*, *nummulaire*, *herbe aux ecus*, *herbe à cent maux*, *herbe à cent maladies*; these two last names are from *centimorbia* or *centummorbia*, as it was called by some old writers, from its supposed efficacy in curing various diseases. It was also named *serpentaria*, from a notion that serpents, when wounded, apply to this herb for cure. The leaves are substringent and slightly acid; hence Boerhaave recommended them in the hot scurvy and hæmorrhages; but modern practice takes no notice of them. According to Linnæus, it is eaten by kine and sheep, not much relished by goats, and refused by horses. Scopoli recommends an infusion of the plant in oil for destroying weevils.

12. *Lysimachia Japonica*, or Japan loofestribe: leaves subcordate, flowers axillary, peduncles shorter than the leaf. Root annual, fibrous. Stem filiform, decumbent, from flexuose erect at top, villose, simple, a hand in length. Leaves roundish, blunt, entire, very finely villose, spreading, half an inch in diameter; petioles double the length of the leaves. Flowers generally two together. Native of Japan.

*Propagation and Culture.* No. 1, 5, 8, are not often admitted into gardens, because the roots creep so much that they become troublesome; they deserve a place, however, for the beauty of their flowers, in large gardens, especially in moist places, where better things will not thrive. If the roots be taken up in autumn from places where they grow naturally, and planted in a moist soil, they will thrive without farther care. No. 2 is the finest species of this genus, and, as the roots of it do not spread like those of the other, it deserves a place in the pleasure-garden, where it is a very ornamental plant for shady borders. It loves a moist soil and a shady situation, where it will continue long in beauty. It may be propagated by parting the roots in autumn, but by this method it increases slowly, so that the only way to have it in plenty is by sowing the seeds; these should be sown upon an east-aspected border in autumn, soon after they are ripe, then the plants will come up the following spring; but those which are sown in the spring will not grow the same year. When the plants come up, they should be kept clean from weeds; and, if they are too close, some of them may be drawn out and transplanted on a shady border, which will give the remaining plants room to grow till autumn, when they may be transplanted into the borders of the flower-garden where they are designed to flower; after which they will require no other culture but to keep them clean from weeds, and dig the ground between them every spring. No. 3 increases by its bulbs; which it produces instead of seeds, and requires a very moist situation. No. 4 is propagated by seeds, sown on a moderate hot-bed in the spring, often watering the ground to bring up the plants; and, if the season should prove warm; the glasses of the hot-bed should be shaded in the heat of the day. When the plants are up, they should have a large share of fresh air, to prevent their drawing up weak, and should be frequently refreshed with water. When they are fit to remove, plant each in a separate pot, plunging them into a moderate hot-bed to forward their taking new root; after which gradually inure them to bear the open air; into which remove them the beginning of June, and let them remain there till October; when they should be removed into a common frame, where they may be sheltered from



frost in winter, but always enjoy the free air in mild weather. The spring following some of the plants may be shaken out of the pots, and planted in borders; but a few should be put into larger pots, where they may flower and feed. See ANAGALLIS, CAPRARIA, CHIRONIA, CRASSA, DRACOCEPHALUM, EPILOBIUM, JUSSIEUA, LUDWIGIA, LYTHRUM, MIMULUS, OENOTHERA, OLDENLANDIA, PHLOX, RHEXIA, SCUTELLARIA, and VERONICA.

LYSIMA'CHIA, in ancient geography, a town of Thrace, called in the time of Ptolemy *Xamilium*.

LYSIM'ACHUS, king of Thrace, one of the captains of Alexander the Great, rose from a mean condition to the favour of that prince. He is said, however, once to have incurred his displeasure to such a degree, that he was exposed to a fierce lion in his den, when he gave a signal proof of his strength and courage, by strangling the animal. This act, as it may be supposed, procured him pardon and favour. At the partition of the empire of Alexander, B.C. 323, Thrace, the Chersonese, and the adjacent countries to the Euxine Sea, were allotted to Lyfimachus. On taking possession of these territories, he soon had them to defend against Seuthes, a descendant of the ancient Odrysian kings, with whom he fought a dubious battle, but in the result he preserved his dominions. When Antigonus had rendered himself formidable to all the other sharers, Lyfimachus joined in the league against him with Seleucus, Ptolemy, and Cassander. See the article GREECE, vol. viii. 949-954. By a subsequent treaty, Thrace was confirmed to him; and, in imitation of the other captains, he took the title of king. He founded the city of Lyfimachia, B.C. 309, and made it his capital. Having married one of his daughters to Antipater king of Macedon, that prince, when expelled from his throne, took refuge with Lyfimachus; but this unnatural relation put him to death, and imprisoned his own daughter. Being afterwards engaged in a war with Dromichætes, king of the Getæ, he was taken prisoner, but was liberated by his son Agathocles. When Demetrius, upon the throne of Macedon, was preparing to recover all his father's dominions, Lyfimachus joined in a confederacy with Seleucus and Ptolemy, and invaded Macedonia. The ruin of Demetrius was the consequence; and, when that prince had delivered himself up to Seleucus, Lyfimachus was safe enough to offer him a large sum of money to put the unfortunate captive to death, which Seleucus generously refused. Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, having occupied the vacant throne of Macedon, Lyfimachus claimed a share of the kingdom; and while Pyrrhus was engaged in other schemes of ambition, he seized the whole country, B.C. 288, in which he reigned some years unmolested. He had now, in his old age, a flourishing family of fifteen children; but domestic discord poisoned this external prosperity. He had married his eldest son, Agathocles, to Lyfandra, daughter of king Ptolemy; and had himself taken to wife Arfinoe, a daughter of the same king by another queen. Arfinoe infused suspicions into his mind against his son, who was a prince of great hopes, and the favourite of the army and people. Forgetful of his obligations to this son, and of the parental tie, Lyfimachus first imprisoned and then poisoned him. Upon this catastrophe, Lyfandra with her children fled to the court of Seleucus, where they were joined by several malcontents of rank, all of whom urged that king to make war upon the tyrant. Seleucus, who had now no other rival in power than Lyfimachus, lent a willing ear to the proposal, and immediately overran his Asiatic dominions. Lyfimachus assembled a great army, and crossed the Hellespont to oppose him. These two only remaining captains of Alexander, both far advanced in years, met at Curopedion in Phrygia, where an obstinate and bloody engagement ensued, in which Lyfimachus, after exerting himself with the utmost bravery, was killed on the spot, and his army was entirely defeated. He fell, B.C. 282, in the seventy-fourth year of his age, having first lost all his children except two. His body was recognized in the field only by a favourite

dog, who would not leave it. With undoubted courage and abilities, he was characterized by a cruel and ferocious disposition, which rendered him unworthy of his fortune. Seneca, in his treatise on anger, relates, that one Telephorus, a Rhodian, his friend, having fallen under his displeasure, he caused his nose and ears to be cut off, and shut him up in a den, like a wild beast, where he kept him in filth and nakedness till he had almost lost the human form. *Plutarch*.

LYSIM'ACHUS, the fifth son of Ptolemy, a Jew of Jerusalem, who translated the book of Esther out of Hebrew into Greek. His translation was carried from Jerusalem to Alexandria by Dositheus, who called himself a priest of the tribe of Levi, in the fourth year of the reign of Ptolemy Philometor, A.M. 2837, ante A.D. 177.

LYSIM'ACHUS, brother of Menelaus, high priest of the Jews. Menelaus purchased the high-priesthood with a large sum of money, which he promised Antiochus Epiphanes; but he took no care to pay it, and thereupon was cited to appear at Antioch. In his absence he left his brother Lyfimachus at Jerusalem, who, in order to raise the sums for which his brother was indebted, began to pillage the treasury of the temple; (2 Macc. iv. 39, 40.) The people rose, and murdered him, as related under the article JEW, vol. x. p. 794, 5. Lyfimachus is sometimes reckoned among the high priests, because he was vicegerent to his brother Menelaus; but he never himself possessed the high-priesthood. B.C. 170.

LYS'INE, in ancient geography, a town of Asia, in Pamphylia, between Comana and Cormafa, according to Ptolemy.

LYSINE'MA, *f.* [from the Gr. *λυσίς*, a separation, and *μηνα*, a thread or stamen; because the stamens are unconnected with the corolla, proceeding from the receptacle, below the germen; by which character alone the genus is distinguished from *Epacris*, their habit being exactly the same.] In botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order epacridææ, *Brown*. The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium inferior, of many erect, imbricated, coloured, permanent, leaves; the inner ones gradually largest. Corolla: of one petal, salver-shaped; its tube generally splitting into five parts; limb in five smooth beardless segments, obliquely twisted to the right. Nectary of five glands, surrounding the base of the germen. Stamina: filaments five, thread-shaped, equal, inserted into the receptacle; antheræ incumbent, oblong, bursting lengthwise, rising just above the tube. Pistillum: germen superior, roundish, with five furrows; style thread-shaped; stigma obtuse. Pericarpium: capsule of five cells and five valves. Seeds: numerous, minute. Receptacles: five, attached to the central column.—*Essential Character*. Calyx of many imbricated coloured leaves. Corolla salver-shaped; its limb five-cleft, beardless. Stamina inserted into the receptacle, the length of the tube. Capsule of five cells, with many seeds. *Brown Prodr. N. Holl.* p. 552.

*Species*. 1. *Lyfinema pentapetalum*: corolla divided to the bottom; its claws unconnected, longer than the calyx, externally smooth. Found by Brown in the southern part of New Holland.

2. *Lyfinema ciliatum*: corolla divided to the bottom; its claws cohering at the top, externally smooth, the length of the calyx. Native of the same country.

3. *Lyfinema lasianthum*: corolla divided to the bottom; its claws externally woolly, rather longer than the calyx. Gathered by Menzies at King George's Sound, on the south-west coast of New Holland. The stem is shrubby, as in all the rest, its branches very slender, smooth, round, leafy. Leaves scattered, about a quarter of an inch long, elliptic-oblong, narrow, obtuse, entire, smooth. Flowers few, in a terminal simple spike, leaning one way, apparently tawny or bluish-coloured, each near half an inch long.

4. *Lyfinema confpicuum*: tube of the corolla five-cleft above, longer than the calyx; leaves lanceolate-awl-shaped; close-pressed. Found by Brown in the south of New Holland.

5. *Lyfinema*



5. *Lysinema pungens*: tube of the corolla undivided, the length of the calyx; leaves spreading, ovate, sharp-pointed. Native of the country about Port Jackson, New South Wales, from whence specimens were sent in 1791 by Dr. White. The stem is woody, with many straight rigid branches, thickly beset with sessile, rigid, smooth, entire, ribbed, spinous, and taper-pointed, leaves. Flowers white and fragrant, very elegant, in dense, leafy, terminal spikes. Mr. Brown says, that this is an intermediate species, as it were, between *Lysinema* and *Epacris*: it agrees with the latter in its corolla, but has the insertion of the stamens proper to the former. See *EPACRIS*, vol. vi. p. 850.

**LYSIP'PUS**, a celebrated sculptor and statuary of antiquity, was a native of Sicyon, and flourished in the time of Alexander the Great. He was originally a worker in brass; but became an artist through the encouragement of the painter Eumolpus, who advised him, instead of forming himself upon the imitation of any particular master, to copy after nature herself. He worked with extraordinary diligence and facility; so that he is said to have left 1500 performances, all of such excellence, that any one of them singly might have conferred celebrity on the artist. His reputation was so high, that Alexander permitted him alone to make his effigy in cast metal. He executed a series of figures of that prince, beginning from his childhood; and likewise made statues of Hephestion and his other friends; all which were brought to Rome by Metellus after the conquest of Macedonia. Lysippus improved the art of statuary by a better imitation of the hair, and by an attentive study of symmetry, in which he considered how the human figure appeared to the eye, not what were its exact proportions. For this reason he was the first who reduced the size of the head, and thereby made his statues appear taller and more elegant. Among his works, the figure of a man scraping himself with a strigil was particularly admired. It was placed by Marcus Agrippa before his public baths; and being removed by Tiberius into his own chamber, the Roman people were so clamorous in the theatre for its restitution, that the emperor thought it best to comply. A chariot of the sun, at Rhodes, was one of his great works; which, however, was surpassed by a colossus at Tarentum, forty cubits high. He likewise practised in encaustic painting. *Gen. Biog.*

**LY'SIS**, a Pythagorean philosopher who flourished in the fifth century B.C. was a native of Tarentum; and, according to Jamblicus, was instructed by Pythagoras himself, towards the close of his life. This philosopher, having opened a school at Crotona, refused to admit into it Cylon, one of the principal persons for wealth and influence in that city, but of a bad character and disposition. Exasperated at this refusal, Cylon determined on an inhuman revenge; and, having at a concerted time assembled his partisans, set fire to the house of Milo, where about forty Pythagoreans were assembled, who were all burnt, or stoned to death, excepting Lysis and Archippus, who fortunately made their escape. Lysis now retired at first into Achaia, and afterwards to Thebes, where he opened a school, died, and was buried. Lysis is celebrated for having been a most exact and punctual performer of his promises; even on the most trivial occasions. As an instance of this, Jamblicus relates, that, as he was one day about to leave the temple of Juno, where he had been performing his devotions, he met Euryphamus of Syracuse, one of his fellow-disciples, who came thither for the same purpose. The latter requested that he would wait a short time, and he would join him; which Lysis promised to do. After Euryphamus had offered up his prayers, he became so absorbed in meditation, that he quite forgot his friend, and went out at another door. Lysis waited for him during the remaining part of the day, the night following, and part of the next morning, and would have waited much longer, had not Euryphamus, upon entering the school, and perceiving him not present, recollected the meeting on the preceding day. Upon this he immediately returned

to the temple, where he found Lysis; to whom he apologized for his conduct by observing, that God had permitted his forgetfulness, in order that his friend might be furnished with a glorious opportunity of displaying his scrupulous exactness in keeping his word. Lysis composed commentaries on the philosophy of Pythagoras, which have been long lost. Diogenes Laertius testifies, that in his time there were extant some treatises of this philosopher, which commonly passed under the name of Pythagoras. Some attribute to him the "Golden Verses;" while others give them to Philolaus or Empedocles. The arguments by which learned men support their different hypotheses on this point may be seen in Fabricius, who is for ascribing them to the last-mentioned philosopher. There is still extant, under the name of Lysis, a letter addressed to Hipparchus, in which the latter is reproached for having divulged the secrets of the Pythagorean philosophy. It is preserved in various collections, and among others in the *Opuscula Mythologica et Philosophica* of our learned countryman, Dr. Thomas Gale. *Diog. Laert. Jamblic. Vit. Pythag.*

**LYSIS'TRATUS**, a brother of Lysippus. He was the first artist who ever made a statue with wax. *Pliny.*

**LYSKO**, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Troki: twenty-four miles north of Grodno.

**LYSKO**, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Novogrodek: fifty-two miles south-west of Novogrodek.

**LYSOBY'KI**, a town of Austrian Poland: twenty miles north-north-west of Lublin.

**LY'SSA**, *f.* [Greek.] A word used by medical authors to express that species of madness which is peculiar to dogs and wolves, but is communicated by their bite to man and other animals. Hence persons labouring under the dismal effects of such a bite, are called also *lyssodæti*.

**LY'SENDORF**, a town of France, in the department of the Sarre, and chief place of a canton, in the district of Prum. The place contains 117, and the canton 1962, inhabitants.

**LY'STON**, or **LIS'TON**, in Devonshire, is at present nothing more than a considerable village, although formerly a market-town; the market was held on Saturday, and it had four fairs; at present it has only three, viz. February 2, Holy Thursday, and October 28.

**LY'STRA**, a city of Lacaonia, whereof Timothy was a native. Paul and Barnabas, having preached there A. D. 45, and healed a man who had been lame from his birth, were taken for gods; Paul for Mercury, and Barnabas for Jupiter. These apostles had a great deal of difficulty to prevent the people from offering sacrifices to them; but very soon after, certain Jews of Iconium and Antioch in Pisidia coming thither animated the populace against them, who thereupon began to throw stones at Paul and Barnabas, and dragged them out of the city supposing they were dead. *Acts* xiv. 6-19. See **LYCAONIAN LANGUAGE**, p. 807.

**LY'STRA**, a town of the state of Kentucky, on Salt River.

**LY'SWIK**, a town of Sweden, in the province of Wärmeland: thirty-four miles north of Carlstadt.

**LYT'BORROW**, a village in Northamptonshire, between Tewcester and Daventry.

**LYP'CHAM**, a village in Norfolk, between East Dereham and Castle Rising.

**LYTE'RIA**, *f.* [Greek.] The solution of an acute disease.

**LYTE'RIAN**, *adj.* Belonging to the lyteria; discovering the solution of a disease. *Scott.*

**LYTH**, a township of England, in the north riding of Yorkshire, with 1037 inhabitants, of whom 550 are employed in trade and manufactures: three miles north-west of Whitby.

**LY'THE**, a hamlet to Hellington, and adjoining Crothwaite, in Westmoreland. In this hamlet there is a large moss known by the name of Lythe-Moss, where several large trees are frequently dug up. One oak contained 2009 feet of wood. In this chapelry are some very deep



deep pits; the largest of which is said to be unfathomable, but has a subterraneous passage with the Kent-river: the water from these pits runs through Thorpel-bridge.

LY'THE CHAP'EL, a village in Suffex, north-west of Stedham.

LYTHRO'DES, *f.* [from *λυθρον*, Gr. coagulated blood, which is the appearance of fresh-broken specimens of this mineral.] A new genus and species of mineral, discovered by D. L. G. Karsten, at Fridrichsworn in Norway, and described by him in the *Gesellschaft Naturforschender Freunde zu Berlin Magazin*, 1810. The following are its characters—Colour: aurora red, passing into brownish red, and in some specimens through flesh red into yellowish brown and pale brown, here and there with cream, yellow, and greenish, spots. External aspect: massive and disseminated. Lustre: in the principal fracture, resinous and glimmering; in the cross fracture, without lustre. Fracture: passing from uneven to splintery; but the texture concealed foliated with several cleavages, which were only ascertained after having examined a number of specimens. It is opaque, or at most slightly translucent on the edges; pretty easily frangible. Specific gravity, 2.510. Not particularly heavy. According to an analysis of this fossil performed by Dr. John, its constituents are as follows:

Silica	- - - -	44.62	} 100.00.
Alumina	- - - -	37.36	
Lime	- - - -	2.75	
Soda	- - - -	8.00	
Water	- - - -	6.00	
Oxyd of iron	- - - -	1.00	
Loss	- - - -	0.27	

There is no other mineral which possesses the characters and yields the same constituents as this, among which the proportions of soda and water are the most remarkable. Some of the varieties of this mineral, where two of the plates that occasion the concealed foliated fracture are set perpendicularly upon each other, may be mistaken for a species of felspar; but a closer inspection, together with the consideration of its constituents, will undeceive us. When lythrodos exhibits small splendid particles, it contains labrador felspar mixed with it. The other substances occasionally mixed with this mineral are black hornblende, white analeime, and dark brown zircon.

LY'THRUM, *f.* [*λυθρον*, Gr. gore; from the purple colour of the flower.] WILLOW-HERB; in botany, a genus of the class dodecandria, order monogynia, natural order of calycanthemæ, (salicariæ, *Juss.*) The generic characters are—Calyx: perianthium one-leaved, cylindrical, striated; with twelve teeth, alternately smaller. Corolla: petals six, oblong, bluntish, spreading, with the claws inserted into the teeth of the calyx. Stamina: filaments twelve, filiform, the length of the calyx; the upper ones shorter than the lower; antheræ simple, rising. Pistillum: germ oblong; style awl-shaped, the length of the stamens, declined; stigma orbiculate, rising. Pericarpium: capsule oblong, acuminate, straight, two-celled, or one-celled. Seeds: numerous, small.—*Essential Character.* Calyx twelve-toothed: petals six, inserted into the calyx; capsule two-celled, many-seeded.

*Species.* 1. *Lythrum falicaria*, common or purple willow-herb: leaves opposite, cordate-lanceolate; flowers in spikes, twelve-stamened. Root perennial, thick, branched, somewhat woody, widely extended. Stem from two or three to four or six feet high, upright, tinged with red, below smooth and four-cornered, above pubescent and five-cornered; corners sharp, membranaceous, rugged. Leaves sessile, embracing, about three inches long, smooth above, underneath slightly downy. Flowers in clusters, placed at a little distance from each other, in the axils of the leaves, each consisting of about eight flowers, together forming a long leafy spike; corolla red purple. Scopoli remarks that there are eighteen flowers in a whorl, that the calyxes are sessile and ten-cornered, the capsule brown, separable from the calyx, and two-celled or three-celled, the seeds wedge-shaped and rufescent, and that the whole

plant becomes red as it advances in age. Krocker observes, that the calyx is not green, but white, with twelve red streaks, that the petals are waved, and that the stamens vary in number from six to twelve. Native of most parts of Europe, in marshes, and on the banks of rivers, ponds, and ditches, which it ornaments with its beautiful spikes of purple flowers. Thunberg also found it in Japan, and remarks that it is entirely smooth there. It flowers late in the summer; Linnæus says, with *Hypericum perforatum*, or common St. John's wort. It is astringent, and is recommended by De Haen and several other foreign physicians in long-protracted diarrhœas and dysenteries. A decoction or the expressed juice is given from one to three ounces. When dried and powdered, it imbibes a great quantity of water before it loses its glutinosity. It has been used with success in tanning leather. It seems generally to remain untouched by cattle; Schreber however affirms, that they feed on it. In English it is named *purple-spiked willow-herb*, or *loosestrife*, to distinguish it from *Lythymachia*, the common *yellow loosestrife* or willow-herb; and from *Epilobium*, which is also called willow-herb. In German, *braune weiderich*, *rother weiderich*, *purpur weiderich*, *weidenkraut*, *blutkraut*, *blauer fuchschwanz*; in Dutch, *partyke*; in French, *salicairé*, *tismaque rouge*; in Russian, *plakun*.

There are several varieties of this handsome plant. One of these  $\beta$ , is made a distinct species by Mr. Miller. The stalks are upright and branching, three feet high. Leaves cordate-ovate, an inch long, and three quarters of an inch broad, downy, and placed by threes. Flowers in long spikes, disposed in thick whorls, with spaces between each; they are of a fine purple colour. It is *Salicaria purpurea foliis subrotundis*, *Tournef. Inst.* 253. It is a smaller plant than the common, much more downy, and the leaves broader. We are not told of what country it is a native.

$\gamma$ . *L. trifolia*. The common sort often varies with three leaves to a joint; in which case the stem is six-cornered.

$\delta$ . *L. quadrifolia*. It has sometimes even four leaves at a joint. Boccone says, the leaves are softer and longer.

$\epsilon$ . *L. foliis alternis*. Linnæus, in his *Flora Lapponica*, mentions a singular variety, of which he found only a single plant there. The stem a foot high and simple; leaves alternate, cordate-lanceolate, sessile; flowers from each upper axil, solitary, sessile. Miller has two other species, that seem to be only varieties of *L. falicaria*. 1. *Lythrum Lusitanicum*, the *Salicaria Lusitanica*, *angustifloræ folio*, of *Tournef. Inst.* 253. It grows naturally in Spain and Portugal, by the side of waters; but is seldom more than a foot high. Leaves smooth, growing by threes, narrower and shorter than the common sort; flowers in terminating spikes, of a light purple colour, appearing in July. 2. *L. Hispanicum*, the *Salicaria Hispanica hystopifolia*, *flor. oblongis saturate cæruleis*, of *Tournefort*. This is also a native both of Spain and Portugal. The stalks are slender, not more than nine or ten inches long, spreading out on every side; the lower part has oblong-ovate leaves, placed opposite; on the upper part, the leaves are narrower, and alternate. The flowers come out singly from the side of the stalks at each joint; they are larger than those of the common sort, and of a deeper purple colour; they therefore make a fine appearance in July, when they are in beauty.

2. *Lythrum virgatum*, or fine-branched willow-herb: leaves opposite, lanceolate; panicle, virgate; flowers twelve-stamened, in threes. Root perennial, thick. Stems upright, panicled, from a foot to two feet in length; at bottom hard and woody, round, pale brown mixed with green, commonly without leaves; towards the top green, four-cornered, leafy, with rod-like, axillary, upright, long, alternate, branches. Leaves opposite, quite entire, acuminate, an inch and a half long, on very short petioles, or sessile. Flowers in spikes, of the same colour and size as in the preceding, peduncled, in whorls, six in a whorl, the lower ones more remote, all axillary. Linnæus says,



that it varies, though seldom, with alternate leaves. Native of Austria, Silesia, and Siberia. Introduced in 1776, by Jos. Nic. de Jacquin, M.D. It flowers from June to September.

3. *Lythrum fruticosum*, or shrubby willow-herb: leaves opposite, subtomentose underneath; flowers ten-stamened; corolla shorter than the calyx; calyx shorter than the genitals. This is a shrub, with a lacerated bark. Leaves sessile, lanceolate, quite entire. Flowers solitary, peduncled, subterminating. Native of China.

4. *Lythrum verticillatum*, or whorled willow-herb: leaves opposite, tomentose underneath, subpetioled; flowers in whorls, lateral. This rises with a stiff branching stalk a foot and a half high. Leaves oblong. Flowers in whorls, pale purple, appearing in July. Native of Virginia.

5. *Lythrum petiolatum*, or footstalk-leaved willow-herb: leaves opposite, linear, petioled; flowers twelve-stamened. This rises with an upright woolly stalk near two feet high. Flowers axillary, solitary, small, pale purple; appearing in July. Native of Virginia.

6. *Lythrum lineare*, or linear-leaved willow-herb: leaves opposite, linear; flowers opposite, six-stamened. Stalks slender, about a foot high. Flowers white; calyx streaked, cut into six parts at top. It flowers in June; and is a native of Virginia.

7. *Lythrum Parsonia*, or Parsons's willow-herb: leaves opposite, oval; flowers alternate, six-stamened, sessile; stem diffusid. Roots filiform. Stem prostrate or creeping, branched, round, slender, seldom exceeding ten or fourteen inches in length; flowers pale red. Native of Jamaica and Hispaniola; flowering the whole year. Dr. Browne, supposing it to be a new genus, named it *Parsonia*, after Dr. Parsons, who published a treatise on the seeds of vegetables, and many other curious remarks on different parts of natural history. Jussieu keeps it separate from *Lythrum*, under the name which Browne had given it; the calyx being ventricose, and only six-toothed; itamens only six, short so as not to stand out of the corolla; capsule small, membranaceous, covered by the calyx, containing few seeds, fastened to a central receptacle. The flowers are axillary, alternate, and solitary.

8. *Lythrum melanium*: leaves opposite, ovate, flowers alternate, mostly ten-stamened; stem prostrate. This is a weakly plant, with a slender stem a foot high, well supplied with branches towards the top; and having a disagreeable sharp smell, approaching much to that of Guinea henweed, but more subtle, and less perceptible when placed close to the nose; hence the trivial name. The leaves and flowers are much like those of the preceding, as well as the disposition and make of the capsule; but that plant does not branch so much, nor has it any thing of this smell. Native of Jamaica, in the cane-pieces. If *Parsonia* should be separated from *Lythrum*, this will accompany it.

9. *Lythrum cordifolium*, or heart-leaved willow-herb: leaves opposite, subsessile, cordate, acute, rugged; racemes terminating and axillary: flowers ten-stamened. Native of Hispaniola.

10. *Lythrum ciliatum*, or ciliated willow-herb: leaves opposite, petioled, ovate, smooth, ciliated; racemes terminating; flowers mostly pointing one way, ten-stamened. Native of Jamaica.

11. *Lythrum cuphea*, or clammy willow-herb: leaves opposite, petioled, ovate-oblong, somewhat rugged; flowers twelve-stamened. Root fibrous, annual. It has a delicate slender stalk, round, upright, ten inches or a foot in height, pubescent, purple. The whole plant is extremely viscid all over. Leaves quite entire. Flowers lateral, on very short peduncles, solitary, decumbent. It differs from *Lythrum* in having a six-toothed unequal calyx; six (or five) unequal petals; and a one-celled capsule without valves, bursting by the enlargement of the receptacle; hence Jussieu, Gartner, and others, following Browne, have made it a distinct genus under the name of *Cuphea*.

It is a native of Brazil and Jamaica; and flowers in July and August.

12. *Lythrum triflorum*, or three-flowered willow-herb: very smooth; leaves opposite, lanceolate, entire; peduncles axillary, opposite; head three-flowered. Root perennial. Easily distinguished from the rest by its filiform peduncles, terminated by two lanceolate channelled spreading bractes, longer than the flower; and between these three regular flowers, on short pedicels, blue and small. Jussieu doubts whether this, which is the *Nesaea* of Commerçon, really belongs to this genus. According to him, the leaves are opposite; the peduncles opposite, axillary, three-flowered; the calyx ventricose, with from eight to ten teeth; the corolla four or five petalled, with from eight to ten itamens, and the fruit two-celled. Native of America.

13. *Lythrum pemphis*, or globular willow-herb: shrubby; hirsute; leaves opposite, oblong, entire; flowers axillary, peduncled, solitary; capsule cut round horizontally, one-celled. This is a hoary shrub. Leaves approximating, at the tops of the branches. It appears to be of a different genus, on account of its one-celled circumscised fruit; but, if one difference be deemed sufficient to constitute a separate genus, genera will be multiplied too much; and natural genera ought as much as possible to be kept entire. Forster has given it under the name of *pemphis*, from *πυμπίς*, a bubble, which the globular germ represents. According to him, the capsule is one-celled and six-valved, the seeds angular, compressed, fastened to a short three-toothed receptacle at the bottom of the capsule; in other respects the characters agree with those of *Lythrum*; and in his *Flora* he has given it under Linnæus's name. Found by Koenig on the coast of Ceylon, and by Forster in the island of Teautea in the South Sea.

14. *Lythrum racemosum*, or branched willow-herb: diffusid; leaves opposite, petioled, ovate; racemes terminating; flowers, opposite.

15. *Lythrum dipetalum*, or two-petalled willow-herb: hispid-viscid; leaves in threes, or opposite, sessile, ovate; flowers axillary, nodding, two-petalled. Both these were found in South America by Mutis.

16. *Lythrum hyssopifolia*, or hyssop-leaved willow-herb: leaves alternate, linear; flowers six-stamened. Root annual; (Miller says perennial.) Stems prostrate, simple, or branched only near the root, rod-like. Flowers axillary, solitary, subsessile, small, blue; (Ljunæus says purple, white at the base; Miller, light purple.) Scopoli says, the stem is half a foot long; the branches angular; the calyx cylindrical, streaked, smooth, twelve-toothed; the teeth alternately smaller and upright; the capsule four-celled, four-grooved, blunt, inclosed in the calyx, rufescent, cylindrical; the seeds roundish, as many as fifty-six in one cell. The fruiting calyxes are pressed to the scape. Pollich remarks, that, though the flowers are solitary, yet that sometimes there are two together sitting close in the axil of a leaf; that the calyx is six-toothed, and that the teeth are short-pointed, spreading, and red at the tip. Mr. Miller says that the stems are a foot, and Monf. Villars that they are two feet, long. The latter remarks that the leaves are very bitter. Krocker affirms, that the stems are suberect, not properly decumbent, and that they are a foot or more in length, quadrangular, with simple suberect brachiate branches from the base. Leaves glaucous-green, smooth, on very short petioles or sessile, an inch long and two lines wide. Flowers one, or two alternate; petals five or six, rose-coloured. Part of this description is from Hallet. Native of many parts of Europe, as Germany, Swisserland, Austria, France, Italy, England, in wet meadows, watery places, and especially where water stagnates in winter; but it does not seem to be very common any where. With us it is found on Hounslow heath; between Staines and Laleham; on Hinton, Hinton, and Teversham, moors, and at Oakington, in Cambridgeshire; on the Banbury-road from Oxford,



near the first turnpike-gate; Feversham in Kent; in the ditches near the Abbey pond; near the Wheat-sheaf, five miles beyond Huntingdon on the north road; about Wilford in Northamptonshire; flowering in July and August. In English it is called *grafs-poly*, or *small hedge-hyffop*.

17. *Lythrum thymifolia*, or thyme-leaved willow-herb: leaves alternate, linear; flowers four-stamened. Root annual. Very like the preceding, but only half, or one third, of the size. Stems, according to Villars, creeping, five or six inches long, with others smaller springing from their centre, which have several alternate branches. Krocker says the stem is upright, with sometimes a branch or two, but commonly simple. The flowers are much smaller than in the preceding sort. Native of the south of France, Italy, Silesia, &c. in moist meadows and ditches; flowering in August. Krocker suspects that it may be a variety of the preceding.

18. *Lythrum Americanum*, or South American willow-herb: leaves oblong-ovate; below, opposite; above, alternate; flowers, six-stamened. This has a woody root, from which arise two or three slender stalks, upwards of two feet high. Flowers from the upper axils, solitary, small, white, six-petalled; they do not appear till the second year from seed. It was discovered by Dr. Houfloun at La Vera Cruz, in swamps; and was cultivated by Mr. Miller before 1733, but has been since lost.

*Propagation and Culture.* The first, with its varieties, may easily be cultivated by parting the roots in autumn, but should be planted in a moist soil. It is a handsome plant, and deserving of a place in large gardens and plantations. The other hardy foreign sorts, N<sup>o</sup> 2, 4, 5, 6, may be increased in the same manner. When raised from seed, the seeds should be sown in autumn; otherwise they will remain a year in the ground. N<sup>o</sup> 16, 17, being annual, must be raised from seeds; but they are bog-plants, and seldom cultivated in gardens. The rest are too tender to live in the open air. Sow the seeds in pots, and plunge them into an old hot-bed. They will not rise unless they are sown in autumn. Shelter them through the winter, and in spring place them in a fresh hot-bed. Treat them as other tender plants from hot countries.

LYTH'UM, a village in Amounderness, Lancashire; here was formerly a priory.—A village in the east riding of Yorkshire, near North and South Cove.

LYT'TA, *f.* in entomology, a genus of coleopterous insects. Generic characters—Antennæ filiform; feelers four, unequal, the hind ones clavate; thorax roundish; head inflected, gibbous; wing-shells soft, flexile, as long as the abdomen. This genus includes many of the species included by Linnæus under that of *Meloe*, and by others among the *Cantharides*, particularly the famous blister-insect; though indeed many other species of this, and of the other genera, are capable of raising a blister, when reduced to powder and applied to the skin. There are thirty-two species, all of them exotics.

1. *Lytta vesicatorius*, the proper blister-insect, or Spanish fly. This is an insect of great beauty, being entirely of the richest gilded grass green, with black antennæ. Its shape is lengthened, and the abdomen, which is pointed, extends somewhat beyond the wing-sheaths: its usual length is about an inch. It is shown on the preceding Plate, at fig. 2. This celebrated insect, the cantharis of the materia medica, forms, as is well known, the safest and most efficacious epispastic, or blister-plaster, raising, after the space of a few hours, the cuticle, and causing a plentiful ferous discharge from the skin. It is supposed, however, that the *cantharis* of Dioscorides, or that used by the ancients for the same purpose, was a different species, viz. the *Meloe cichorei* of Linnæus, an insect of a black colour, with three transverse yellow bands on the wing-shells. These insects were formerly brought only from Spain, whence they were called Spanish flies; but they are met with in France, Italy, and some parts of Germany, and even of England. In the southern parts of Europe it multiplies exceedingly; some of the provinces of Spain

annually receive a large sum for those they export to the rest of Europe. They are there seen in vast swarms, and alighting upon trees and shrubs, whose leaves they devour. They are said to prefer the ash-leaf to that of any tree in the forest; but, whatever leaves they devour, they are uniformly accompanied with a heavy nauseous smell, like that of mice, and thence their haunts are discovered by those who go in quest of them. In their humid and living state, the odour exhaled from these insects is so corrosive and irritating, that the gathering them is attended with danger; so that the labourers, who imprudently collect them in the heat of the day, and with their hands uncovered, are frequently seized with a violent heat of urine, and voiding of blood. The same accidents befall those who unwarily sleep under the trees they frequent. The female seems to feel the access of amorous desire in a more violent degree than the male: it is she that courts the male; and, in the great act of fecundation, it is she that occupies that place to which in most animals nature directs the other sex. After impregnation, she deposits her eggs in the ground, where they remain till they have undergone the various changes that are to bring them forth winged flies.

The common way of collecting these insects is, to spread cloths under the trees containing them, to shake them down, and then kill them by putting them on a hair sieve and exposing them to the vapour of boiling vinegar, or else (which is the commonest mode) simply to immerse them in vinegar and water. They are then dried thoroughly, either in the sun or in airy chambers, being frequently turned by the hands armed with gloves. They are then well and carefully packed in close wooden barrels lined on the inside with paper. *Cantharides* in this state will keep well for a considerable time, and, if in close vessels, they hardly acquire any smell; but if in open vessels, and in the damp, they putrefy in some degree. They are liable, however, notwithstanding their very corrosive quality, to be attacked by very small worms, which gradually crumble them to powder in every part except the wings. The acrid quality, however, is not very materially injured thereby, and remains for a great length of time, though slowly diminishing in intensity.

When thus collected and dried, these insects become so light, that fifty of them hardly weigh a dram: it is in that state they are grinded down into the well-known powder which constitutes the basis of the common blistering-plaster. M. Rubiquet (*Annales de Chimie*, Dec. 1810) has made a set of experiments, to ascertain whether the vesicating property, for which these insects are so remarkable, resides in the whole of the animal, or belongs to some peculiar substance capable of being separated by chemical menstrua from the rest. After various attempts more or less successful, he discovered the following simple process, by which the vesicating principle may be obtained in a state of perfect purity: Take any quantity of the bruised insects, and boil them in distilled water; strain off the reddish-brown decoction, and digest the residue two or three times more in boiling water, till the last decoction comes off nearly colourless. The insoluble residue affords a green tincture with alcohol, which, being gently evaporated leaves behind a green fluid oil entirely destitute of any vesicating property. The aqueous decoction, being reduced by evaporation to the state of a soft extract, is to be repeatedly digested in boiling alcohol as long as any thing is taken up by this menstruum. The insoluble portion is a black matter soluble in water, and incapable of vesicating. The alcoholic solution is of a yellow colour, and excessively acrid. This latter is to be reduced to a soft state by gentle evaporation; and the yellow residue is to be digested in cold sulphuric ether, in a well-stopped vial, and frequently shaken. In the course of a day or two the ether will have acquired a pale yellow colour, when it is to be poured off from the undissolved portion, and exposed to spontaneous evaporation. By this method there will be deposited a quantity of micaceous-looking scales,



scabs, fouled with a few small drops of a yellowish fluid. This may be removed by subsequent digestion in cold alcohol, and the micaceous crystallized matter alone will remain. This latter is the pure vesicating principle; the smallest visible particle dissolved in a little oil (in which it is readily soluble), and applied to the skin, will in an hour or two raise a perfect blister. These experiments are interesting to the medical practitioner, inasmuch as they offer a method of obtaining this substance in a state in which it is soluble in oil, and may therefore be advantageously employed in stimulating frictions.

As a medicine, the blister-insect has been thought peculiarly to affect the kidneys and urinary passages, proving diuretic; though whether it affects the former it is much doubted, if we can believe the evidence of Dr. C. Smith and Dr. Cullen, notwithstanding Werlhof gives a remarkable instance of the diuretic powers of cantharides; and tells us, he had frequently experienced the same in dropsy and other diseases. He gave a grain of the powder in a dose, and repeated this every four hours; and it was only after the third dose, and after a suppression of urine of many days standing, that it began to yield. Externally they are caustic, and are used for blisters. They produce a more plentiful discharge of serum than any of the vegetable acids. They also destroy fungous flesh. Internally, their efficacy is truly valuable, when skilfully managed. The case where their internal use is most necessary, and most safe, is, when they are wanted to scour the urinary passages, and this is when they are obstructed with sloughs, and such viscidities as are apt to be washed off from the ulcerated parts; this happens mostly in women. In venereal cases, where much filth hath fallen on the genitals, the tincture is very useful. They are recommended in gravel, leprosy, the fluor albus, ulcers in the bladder, uterus, and kidneys. The phlegmatic may take them without much caution; but the hot and bilious require them mixed with proper correctors. Their use in cutaneous disorders has sometimes been successful. In cases of stone in the kidneys, fits of gravel, stone in the bladder, some oedematous cases, and sometimes in pregnant women, their use is not to be admitted. However used, they are apt to produce a strangury, and inflammation of the urinary passages; to prevent which, when blisters are applied, requires the assistance of nitre, oily drinks, soap-pills, &c. Washing the blistered part, when dressed, with warm milk, greatly relieves these symptoms. When imprudently taken into the stomach, they cause great heat, inflammation, bloody urine, a dribbling, heat, and priapism, thirst, and a cadaverous breath, &c. in which cases give nitre, camphor, mucilage of gum arabic, and acids; simple oxymel is of excellent use as an antidote. Sometimes blisters laid to the thighs, or calves of the legs, have produced a gangrene, because a flux of humours is very easily invited to these parts; therefore, should not be applied to them when they are oedematous, but rather to the inside of the arms, wrists, nape of the neck, or head.

Proof spirit, or a mixture of equal parts of water and strong ardent spirit, extracts by digestion, a tincture from cantharides which possesses all the virtues of the insects themselves. When this tincture is distilled, the spirit which comes over has the smell of the cantharides. Strong ardent spirit takes up the caustic part only; whence it follows that the intensity of the tincture may be varied, as well by varying the strength as the quantity of the spirit to a given dose of the insects. The uses and abuses of this tincture have been shortly stated at the word **CANTHARIDES**, vol. iii. p. 740.

2. *Lytta fegetum*: golden; shells green. This is smaller than the preceding; and is found in Barbary, among corn. The antennæ are black; head and thorax sometimes golden, sometimes green with a gloss of gold; body golden; legs dusky.

3. *Lytta nitidula*: green bronzed; shells testaceous; antennæ black. This species has been sometimes de-

scribed as belonging to the English insects; but by Gmelin as inhabiting the Cape only.

4. *Lytta collaris*: black; crown, thorax, and legs, ferruginous; the shells are of an azure colour. This is a large insect, and is found in the southern parts of Russia. The antennæ are ferruginous; edge of the thorax a little black. The male is as small again as the female.

5. *Lytta gigas*: azure; breast ferruginous; it inhabits Guinea. The size of this insect is about the same as that of the *L. vesicatoria*; one sex has the shells striate, but in the other they are smooth.

6. *Lytta Syriaca*: villous, green-blue; thorax rounded and ferruginous. It inhabits the southern parts of Europe, and is shown on the Plate, at fig. 3.

7. *Lytta ruficollis*: glabrous, green-gold; thorax rufous, tapering before. Inhabits the East Indies. See fig. 4.

8. *Lytta testacea*: above testaceous; shells with a large oblong black spot near the tip. The head is testaceous; mouth and antennæ black; thorax punctured and testaceous; shells smooth; body black. Inhabits Tranquebar.

9. *Lytta festiva*: shining brassy-green; shells testaceous with spots of brassy-green. The body is entirely green bronze; spot on the shells varying. Inhabits Siberia.

10. *Lytta marginata*: black; margins of the shells pale cinereous. Above opaque, beneath cinereous. Inhabits the Cape of Good Hope.

11. *Lytta vittata*: shells black, with a yellow margin. By some entomologists this is described as the *Cantharis vittata*. Head yellowish; crown with two black spots; thorax black, with three yellow lines; abdomen and legs black. Inhabits America.

12. *Lytta atrata*: body black, immaculate. About half the size of the *vittata*, and entirely of a deep black. Inhabits Barbary; and is the *Meloe Pennsylvanica* of some writers.

13. *Lytta erythrocephala*: black; head testaceous; thorax and shells with cinereous lines. The head is testaceous, with a black line down the middle; mouth black; thorax channelled; antennæ and feet black. Inhabits several parts of Austria; and is shown at fig. 5.

14. *Lytta oculata*: black, with a yellow callous dot behind the eyes. Body entirely black, immaculate; behind the eyes on each side is a large raised yellow dot. Female apterous, shells abbreviated. Inhabits Guinea.

15. *Lytta dubia*: black; crown fulvous; thorax and shells immaculate. Inhabits Siberia; and is the *Meloe Algericus* of some entomologists. See fig. 6.

16. *Lytta Afra*: black; thorax rufous. This species is found in Africa; and is the *Cantharis Afra* of Olivier.

17. *Lytta hæmorrhoidalis*: blackish blue; end of the abdomen rufous; the antennæ are black; head and thorax villous; body bluish.

18. *Lytta quadrimaculata*: black, glabrous; breast downy; shells yellowish-grey, with two black and almost square spots. A native of the northern parts of Asia; is found among flowers; and it exudes a very pleasant-smelling oil from its legs. This is a circumstance attaching likewise to

19. *Lytta fenestrata*: glabrous, pale, testaceous; thorax depressed; shells grey, tipped with black, and have two squarish hyaline spots. Found also in the Asiatic parts of Siberia, chiefly among flowers.

20. *Lytta clematidis*: black, with a steel-blue gloss; shell pale, testaceous, immaculate. Found on the clematis in Siberia.

21. *Lytta Uralensis*: black, opaque, glabrous. This is often confounded with the *atrata* above described, and is not sufficiently distinct from it. Inhabits Siberia.

22. *Lytta Sibirica*: black, opaque, glabrous; shells edged with white; head red; eyes, mouth, and antennæ, black. Is found on the lotus in divers parts of Siberia.

23. *Lytta lutea*: black, woolly; shells ventricose, sub-compressed, pale yellow with six black dots. Inhabits Siberia.



24. *Lytta ocellata*: black, woolly; legs testaceous; head, thorax, and shells, yellowish, the latter with six ocellate black spots in the middle. Inhabits the Caspian sea, and has been described particularly by Pallas. Like the *quadrinaculatus* and *fenesstrata*, it exudes an agreeable oil from its legs.
25. *Lytta pectinata*: antennæ pectinate; body black; front red. Inhabits Siberia.
26. *Lytta cinnabarina*: black; thorax above, shells, and head on each side, red. Inhabits Carniola.
27. *Lytta rufa*: black; head rufous. Inhabits Carniola.
28. *Lytta subvillosa*: yellowish, subvillous; antennæ tapering. Is found in many parts of France.
29. *Lytta bicolor*: testaceous; shells tipped with black. Inhabits France.
30. *Lytta formicaria*: brown; the fore-part of the elytra, and the thorax, which is elongated, are red. This is found in France and other parts of Europe.
31. *Lytta pubescens*: black; head and thorax pubescent; shells yellow, with a ferruginous spot on each side behind. This insect has been found only in museums by modern naturalists.
32. *Lytta ferruginea*: ferruginous; head and thorax rufous; shells brown, testaceous at the base. Inhabits various parts of Europe.

**LYTTTELTON** (Edward), Lord Lyttelton of Mounslow, keeper of the great seal in the reign of Charles I. was eminent for his probity and his moderation at the commencement of that monarch's disputes with his subjects. Without forfeiting his fidelity to the king, he preserved the esteem of the parliament till 1644, when he was made colonel of a regiment in the king's army at York. He died in 1645; and the title became extinct. Besides several of his speeches which have been printed, he wrote Reports in the Common Pleas and Exchequer, printed at London in 1683, in folio; several arguments and discourses, &c.

**LYTTTELTON** (George), Lord Lyttelton of Frankley, an elegant writer and historian, was the eldest son of Sir Thomas Lyttelton, bart. of Hagley in Worcestershire, where he was born in January 1708-9. He received his school-education at Eton, from which seminary he was removed to Christ-church college in Oxford. At both these places he was distinguished for his proficiency in classical literature; and some of his poems were the fruit of his earliest studies. In his nineteenth year he set out upon a tour to the continent, in which he visited France and Italy, and made some stay at the court of Luneville in Lorraine. His letters to his father during this absence are replete with remarks displaying solid judgment and sound principles; and afford a most pleasing example of filial affection and duty, joined with the unreserved confidence of intimate friendship. While abroad, he wrote a poetical epistle to Dr. Afcough, his Oxford tutor, which is one of the best of his works, and another to Pope, elegantly complimentary of that great poet. His conduct on his travels was highly meritorious, and a contrast to that of the dissipated young men of fortune who too often disgrace their country in the eyes of foreigners. After his return in 1730, he was chosen representative in parliament for the borough of Oakhampton. At this time his father was one of the lords of the admiralty, and of course a supporter of the existing ministry, that of Walpole. The son, warmed with that patriotic ardour and hatred of corruption which scarcely ever fails to inspire the bosom of virtuous and liberal youth, took the contrary part, and distinguished himself among the opposers of administration. In every important debate his name appeared in the minority; and he zealously concurred in every measure adopted by Pulteney, Pitt, and other leaders of that party. In 1735 he published a work entitled Persian Letters, upon the model of the *Lettres Persannes* of Montesquieu. They were the effusions of a juvenile mind, well-disposed, but not yet disciplined to correctness of judgment on the topics dis-

cussed in them. When, near the close of life, he meditated a collection of all his works, he informed Dr. War-ton that he meant to reject this, as containing principles and opinions which he retracted.

Frederic prince of Wales, having quarrelled with the royal court, formed a separate court of his own, in 1737, at which the distinguished members of opposition were cordially received. The character and talents of Lyttelton could not fail of obtaining notice in this circle, and he was appointed the prince's secretary with an advanced salary. It is supposed to have been at his instigation that the prince assumed the patronage of letters; and Mallet and Thomson felt the benefit of his recommendation. Pope, who, though not formally enlisted in party, was inclined to encourage attacks on the minister, bestowed his praise upon Lyttelton among other patriots, and well repaid his former compliment by an animated couplet:

Free as young Lyttelton her cause pursue;  
Still true to virtue, and as warm as true.

In 1741 he married Lucy, the daughter of Hugh Fortescue, esq. a lady for whom he entertained the purest affection, and with whom he lived in perfect conjugal harmony. The expulsion of Walpole from the ministry having at length given admission to the opposition party, Lyttelton, in 1744, was appointed one of the lords of the treasury. As a member of administration he was assiduous in his parliamentary attendance, and a vigorous supporter of the measures in which he partook, but never attained the station of a leader. He spoke with ease and fluency; but his oratory was marked with elegance and good sense, rather than with the fervour of genius.

In early life, Lyttelton had been led to entertain doubts of the truth of revelation; but a serious enquiry into the evidences of the Christian religion produced in his mind a firm conviction of its divine authority, in which he persisted to the end of life, with a zeal tempered by moderation. He gave a public testimony of his attachment to the cause by a "Dissertation on the Conversion of St. Paul," printed in 1747, which is regarded as a masterly performance of the controversial kind. It obtained for him many applauses from the friends of religion; among which, that of his own father, expressed in a most affectionate letter, was doubtless peculiarly grateful. About this time his fortitude and resignation were severely tried by the loss of his beloved wife in childbed. On this occasion he composed a monody, which stands prominent among his poetical works, and displays much natural feeling amidst the more elaborate strains of a poet's imagination; and on her monument he inscribed the following lines:

Made to engage all hearts, and charm all eyes;  
Though meek, magnanimous; though witty, wise;  
Polite, as all her life in courts had been;  
Yet good, as she the world had never seen;  
The noble fire of an exalted mind  
With gentlest female tenderness combin'd.  
Her speech was the melodious voice of love;  
Her song the warbling of the vernal grove.  
Her eloquence was sweeter than her song,  
Soft as her heart, and as her reason strong.  
Her form each beauty of her mind express'd;  
Her mind was Virtue by the Graces dress'd.

In 1749 he married again; but the conduct of his second wife proved so little to his satisfaction, that a separation by mutual consent ensued in a very short time. By the death of his father in 1751, he succeeded to the title and estate. His taste for rural ornament he displayed at Hagley, which he rendered one of the most delightful places in the kingdom. He occupied several posts under government; but at the dissolution of the ministry in 1759 he went out of office, and was, as a reward for his services, raised to the honour of a peerage, under the style and title of Baron Lyttelton of Frankley in the county of Worcester. From this period he chiefly devoted himself to the pursuits



pursuits of literature, and to an extensive correspondence with the pious and learned. In 1760 he published *Dialogues of the Dead*, a work abounding in good sense and found morality, and which was well received by the public. In 1767 and 1771 he gave the world his *History of Henry the Second*, in 3 vols. 4to. a valuable work, which had occupied a great portion of the latter part of his life, and on which he probably placed his chief expectations for future fame. He has given an accurate and comprehensive view of the English constitution, as it existed at the early period of our history with which his book is concerned, and of the changes subsequent to the Norman conquest. The style of the history is good; its sentiments are judicious and liberal, favourable to the best interests of mankind. It has been charged with a bias in favour of the regal against the ecclesiastical authority, but perhaps by those who were not free from an opposite bias. A tendency to prolixity is the chief fault of this history, which has prevented it from becoming popular, though it retains its reputation as a standard work. Its character, with that of the writer, is happily appreciated in the following elegant lines of Hayley:

With purer spirit, free from party strife,  
To soothe his evening hour of honour'd life,  
See candid Lyttelton at length unfold  
The deeds of liberty in days of old!  
Fond of the theme, and narrative with age,  
He winds the lengthen'd tale through many a page;  
But there the beams of patriot-virtue shine;  
There truth and freedom sanctify the line;  
And laurels, due to civil wisdom, shield  
This noble Nettor of th' historic field. *Essay on History.*

Lord Lyttelton's poems preserve a place among the select productions of the British muse, rather on account of the correctness of their versification, the elegance of their diction, and the delicacy of their sentiments, than as exhibiting any uncommon poetical powers. They are perused with pleasure, and contain nothing to offend. His miscellaneous pieces in prose, letters, &c. all display a good

heart, and a well cultivated mind. As a politician, his speeches on the Scotch and mutiny bills, in 1747; on the naturalization of the Jews in 1753; and on the privilege of parliament in 1763; hold him out to public estimation. Among other qualities, he had a remarkable facility of striking out an extemporary compliment, which obtained for him a considerable share of reputation. An instance is recorded: when lord Cobham, in a large company, mentioned his design of putting up a bust of lady Suffolk in his beautiful gardens at Stowe, he turned to his friend Lyttelton, and said, "George, you must furnish me with a motto for it." I will, said he; and instantly produced the couplet;

Her wit and beauty for a court were made,  
But truth and goodness fit her for a shade.

This truly-estimable nobleman died of a lingering disorder, which he bore with pious resignation, in August 1773, in the 64th year of his age. He left one son, who succeeded to his title, and a daughter, married to lord Valentia; both by his first wife. His miscellaneous works were published after his death in 4to. by his nephew, G. E. Ayscough, esq. *Johnson's Engl. Poets.* *Anderfon's British Poets.*

LYTTELTON (Charles), an English prelate, brother of the above, was educated at Eton in grammar-learning, from whence he entered himself at University-college, Oxford, and afterwards studied the law in the Temple and was called the bar. He, however, soon quitted the profession, entered into holy orders, and in 1747 was appointed chaplain to the king. The year following he was made dean of Exeter, and in 1762 promoted to the bishopric of Carlisle. He was several years president of the Society of Antiquaries, and contributed many articles to their Transactions. He died in 1768. For a more particular account of this family, its intermarriages, and armorial bearings, see the article HERALDRY, vol. ix. p. 582, 3. and Plate XXXV.

LYTTON, a village of Yorkshire, in the west riding, near Langterdale Chace.

CORRECTIONS.

P. 459, col. 2, presents a very imperfect account of our favourite beverage, *porter*. The origin of the name is thus related by the ingenious editor of the *Picture of London*. "Before the year 1730, the malt-liquors in general use in London were ale, beer, and two-penny; and it was customary for the drinkers of malt-liquor to call for a pint, or tankard, of half and half, i. e. half ale and half beer, or half ale and half two-penny, or half beer and half two-penny. In course of time it also became the practice to call for a pint or tankard of *three-threads*, meaning a third of ale, beer, and two-penny; and thus the publican had the trouble to go to three casks, and turn three cocks, for a pint of liquor. To avoid this inconvenience and waste, a brewer of the name of *Harwood* conceived the idea of making a liquor, which should partake of the same united flavours of ale, beer, and two-penny; he did so, and succeeded, calling it *entire*, or entire butt, meaning that it was drawn entirely from one cask, or butt; and, as it was a very hearty and nourishing liquor, it was very suitable for porters and other working people; hence it obtained the name of *porter*." At first, the only essential difference in the methods of brewing porter and other kinds of beer, was, that it was brewed from brown malt; and this gave to it both the colour and flavour required. Of late years it has been brewed from mixtures of pale and brown malt, and the colour of the present liquor is much less than was formerly esteemed requisite; but, finding that pale malt yields a much greater portion of saccharine matter than brown, the greatest number of the London brewers have given up the brown malt altogether, using pale and *amber* malt, which is intermediate between the two. From these they procure a liquor of proper strength; and they give it both colour and flavour, by

the addition of colouring matter made from burnt sugar, or by burning the sugar of concentrated wort. All the London porter is professed to be entire butt, as indeed it was at first; but the system is now altered, and it is generally compounded of two kinds, or rather the same liquor in two different stages, the due admixture of which is palatable, though neither is good alone. One is mild, and the other stale, porter; the former is that which has a slightly-bitter flavour, from having been lately brewed; the latter has been kept longer. This mixture the publican adapts to the palates of his several customers, and effects the mixture very readily, by means of a machine containing small pumps worked by handles. In these are four pumps, but only three spouts, because two of the pumps throw out at the same spout: one of these two pumps draws the mild, and the other the stale, porter, from the casks down in the cellar; and the publican, by dexterously changing his hold to the handle of the next pump, works either pump, and draws both kinds of beer at the same spout. An indifferent observer supposes, that since it all comes from one spout, it is entire butt beer, as the publican professes over his door, and which vulgar prejudice has decided to be the only good porter, though the difference is not easily distinguished.

P. 620, about the middle of col. 2. read, *Milford Hall* was formerly the residence of the *Cordell* family; but latterly it came by purchase into the possession of the late sir *Harry Parker*, bart. of the Admiralty-office; who, on Mr. *Nepean* being made secretary, retired, and in general resided on his estate. He died some years since, and was buried at *Melford*; and his estate came into and continues to be in the possession of his son, sir *William Parker*, bart. colonel of the *West Suffolk* militia.

P. 758. for *LUDSWIGSBURG*, read *LUDWIGSBURG*.



## INDEX to the Article LOGIC.

**T**HE Writer of this article, or the Compiler rather, (for he claims no merit but that of giving an abstract of the Works of Kant upon the same subject,) takes credit to himself for having been the first to present the true Kantian Philosophy in a compendious form to an English public, and in an English dress. Since the article was printed, the Work of Mad. de Stael, "de L'Allemagne," has contributed, by the celebrity of the Writer, to make that Philosophy more generally known and respected. It remains for us, in the ensuing volume, article METAPHYSICS, completely to unfold Kant's great design. In the mean time, the following Synoptical Index will tend to make that System of Logic, which must ultimately prevail, more perfectly understood. *Magna est Veritas, et prevalebit.*

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